

## **Antecedents of Organizational Commitment in public organizations: an analysis of organizational and personal variables**

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### **Abstract**

Research on the antecedents of organizational commitment has largely overlooked employees in public organizations, despite the significant qualitative and quantitative weight of this sector. This study aims to assess whether a broad range of variables identified in the literature effectively function as antecedents of organizational commitment in public institutions. First, the antecedents were grouped into five categories: (1) organizational profile (e.g., size); (2) organizational management (e.g., internal social responsibility practices); (3) employees' emotional and perceptual factors (e.g., job satisfaction); (4) employees' work relationship (e.g., type of task); and (5) employees' socio-cultural profile (e.g., educational level). Second, the research employed an empirical study on a statistically representative sample of public employees residing in Uruguay. For each category, selected antecedents were transformed into indicators that operationalized the constructs. Organizational commitment was measured using a shortened version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), originally designed and validated by Professor Lyman W. Porter and colleagues in 1974. All indicators were included in a survey distributed via Facebook. Findings revealed that variables linked to organizational profile, work relationship, and socio-cultural profile showed no association with organizational commitment, or only a weak one. In contrast, internal social responsibility practices (organizational management) and job satisfaction (emotional factor) demonstrated strong individual positive relationships with organizational commitment. Moreover, the results

uncovered a combined effect of both. These findings enrich research in this field and provide relevant insights for directors and human resource managers working in the public sector.

**Keywords:** Organizational Commitment, Antecedents, Public Organizations, Internal Social Responsibility, Job satisfaction

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## Introduction

Organizational commitment (OC) has attracted considerable attention from scholars in the field of attitudes (Jackson, 2018). Several decades ago, this topic already emerged as a central concern for both academics and human resource professionals (Bodjrenou & Bombona, 2019). The interest arises from the fact that OC correlates with a wide set of other variables (Shaub, 1991), particularly those associated with outcomes beneficial to organizations (Huselid & Day, 1991; Hofman & Newman, 2014; Closon, Leys & Hellemans, 2015). Consequently, examining the impact of OC on organizational performance remains relevant for both academics and HR practitioners (Steinhaus & Perry, 1997).

The public sector primarily delivers services to citizens, one of the most fundamental obligations of states (Lu et al., 2022). Effective fulfillment of this function requires employees who commit to their work and to the organizations where they serve. This fact underscores the importance of research on the OC of public-sector employees. Until the 2000s, OC in the public sector had received far less scholarly attention than in the private sector (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Addae et al., 2007). In the 1970s, American scholars in public administration began investigating OC with the aim of identifying its specific characteristics among public employees (Moon, 2000). In other regions, however, research on this issue emerged later. Only in the 2010s did OC in the public sector generate a significant volume of publications, especially outside the United States and Europe (see Table 1). For instance, a bibliographic review conducted in Brazil in 2018 found that the number of academic papers on OC in that country sharply increased during the 2010s, rising from an annual average of two articles in the 2000s to thirteen in 2017 (Moreno Pinho et al., 2020).

By the 1980s, researchers started questioning whether findings from studies of OC in private-sector employees could be extrapolated to the public sector or whether substantial differences existed between the two contexts. Until then, many assumed that differences between public- and private-sector management remained negligible (Rainey, 1989). Since that time, comparative research on OC in public versus private employees has produced inconclusive results. Some studies reported higher organizational commitment among private-sector employees, as

observed by Buchanan (1974b, United States), Mowday et al. (1979, United States), Zeffane (1994, Australia), Moon (2000, United States), Goulet & Frank (2002, United States), Lyons et al. (2006, Canada), Agyemang & Ofei (2012, Ghana), and Vega et al. (2024, Argentina). Other studies revealed the opposite pattern: Markovitz et al. (2007, Greece), Agarwal et al. (2017, India), and Adamchik & Sedlak (2024, Poland). A third group found no significant differences between sectors: Steinhilber & Perry (1997, United States), Al-Qatawneh (2014, Jordan), and Su et al. (2015, Australia). Such inconsistency highlights the need for research focused specifically on OC within the public sector.

Given the importance of OC, scholars also began examining its antecedents—factors that either foster or constrain its development. These antecedents encompass a wide spectrum of variables that demonstrate statistical associations with OC. Only a limited number of academic works have concentrated on antecedents, and even fewer attempted to classify them into homogeneous categories (Steers, 1977; Moon, 2000; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Velado Rodriguez et al., 2006; Suman & Srivastava, 2012; Bodjrenou et al., 2019; Lambert et al., 2021; Adamchik & Sedlak, 2024). Existing research on antecedents appears scattered across the OC literature, since most published papers include only a subset of antecedents as segmentation variables.

In particular, studies on the antecedents of OC in the public sector remain scarce. This article addresses this gap by evaluating whether a wide set of variables identified in the literature effectively act as antecedents in this context. In addition, the study examines the combined effect of antecedents that individually influence OC. To achieve this objective, we proceeded as follows. First, we developed a classification of antecedents into five categories, drawing from frameworks proposed by prior authors. Second, we selected antecedents from each category and created indicators to operationalize them. Third, we incorporated these indicators into a survey administered to a random sample of public employees in Uruguay. To measure OC, we applied a shortened version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1974). To test the relationship between these indicators and OC, we applied statistical techniques including ANOVA (for mean comparisons), simple correlations, partial correlations, and linear regressions.

The antecedents and indicators were organized into five categories: (1) organizational profile (size, type of public organization, gender of the HR manager); (2) organizational management (internal social responsibility practices); (3) emotional and perceptual factors (job satisfaction); (4) work relationship (salary, tenure, task type, union membership); and (5) socio-cultural profile (gender, age, education level, political ideology). Results showed that OC among Uruguayan employees remains relatively low in international terms. Internal social responsibility practices and job satisfaction exhibited strong direct correlations with OC, and each variable moderated the relationship of the other with OC. Conversely, neither organizational profile nor employees' socio-cultural profile correlated with OC. Only two variables from the work relationship category—task type and union membership—showed weak associations.

Taken together, these findings suggest that the development of OC among public employees primarily depends on variables organizations either control directly (their internal social responsibility policies) or can influence through targeted strategies (job satisfaction). In contrast, OC depends little on variables largely beyond organizational influence, such as employees' socio-

cultural background, the sector, or organizational size. Several of these results confirm dominant trends in prior research. For instance, the positive effects of internal social responsibility practices and job satisfaction on OC, as well as the lack of association between OC and both organizational profile and socio-cultural profile, align with previous studies. Another consistent finding involves the combined effect of internal social responsibility and job satisfaction on OC.

## **Theoretical Framework**

### *Organizational Commitment*

Organizational commitment (OC) began attracting scholarly attention during the 1960s. The first academic article on this subject appeared in 1960, authored by Helen P. Goulter (1960). Only a handful of studies followed during that decade (Grusky, 1966; Brown, 1969). In the early 1970s, however, OC gained greater prominence in academic research, as reflected in the contributions of Hall et al. (1970), Sheldon (1971), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), and Barth (1973). From that point onward, the literature on OC expanded, yet even then scholars acknowledged the absence of consensus regarding its definition (Buchanan, 1974). Mathieu and Zajac (1990, p. 171) observed a “proliferation of approaches, types, definitions, and measures of the construct.” According to Yousef (2003), these approaches largely depended on the background of each author. While all agreed that OC reflects a link between individuals and organizations, they differed substantially in how they conceptualized that link (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Decades later, the concept of OC “remains one of the most challenging and widely researched in the fields of management, organizational behavior, and human resource management” (Cohen, 2007, p. 336). Despite such sustained academic interest, “there is still considerable confusion and disagreement about what commitment is, where it is directed, how it develops, and how it affects behavior” (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 299). More than forty years ago, Morrow (1983) identified thirty different ways to define or characterize work commitment, many of which overlapped. On that basis, he suggested “a moratorium on new commitment concepts until some evaluation of existing perspectives has been completed” (p. 487).

Balfour and Wechsler (1996) noted that until the 1970s, OC had been conceptualized in multiple ways—including as desire to remain, identification with organizational goals and values, loyalty, engagement, attachment to work, commitment, and morale. In the 1980s, however, this conceptual plurality gradually gave way to the unidimensional definition proposed by Porter et al. (1974). By the late 1990s, Porter’s unidimensional approach coexisted with the tridimensional definition advanced by Allen and Meyer (1990). Cohen (2007) identified three historical stages in thinking about OC. The first, the early age, was dominated by side-bet theory (Becker, 1960), which posits that “committed employees remain so because they have made entirely or partially hidden investments in staying with a given organization” (Cohen, 2007, p. 338). The second stage was characterized by the psychological attachment approach proposed by Porter et al. (1974). The third was shaped by multidimensional perspectives, especially those of O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Allen & Meyer (1990).

Stevens et al. (1978) argued that conceptualizations of OC could be divided into two groups: exchange-based and psychological approaches. Mowday et al. (1979) distinguished two major approaches: attitudinal and behavioral. As Na Nan et al. (2021) explained, OC combines “behavioral commitment in accepting organizational goals, values, and culture, and attitudinal commitment in fulfilling those goals, values, and culture” (p. 3). Meyer and Allen (1987) contended that the coexistence of these two approaches complicated research on OC. Commeiras and Fournier (2001) observed that most specialists interpret OC as comprising two complementary dimensions: affective and calculative (or cognitive). More recently, Nelwan et al. (2024, p. 8) proposed three approaches: (1) the exchange approach, under which OC results from transactions between the organization and its employees; (2) the psychological approach, under which OC functions as an attitude or orientation toward the organization; and (3) the attribution approach, under which OC reflects attachment to a behavior chosen “clearly and irrevocably” (p. 8).

This conceptual plurality appears in the various definitions proposed over time. Hall et al. (1970) suggested that OC arises when “the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent” (p. 176). Sheldon (1971) defined OC as “an attitude or orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization” (p. 143). Buchanan (1974) described OC as “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one’s role in relation to these goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake” (p. 533). Wiener and Gechman (1977) defined it as “a special class of socially acceptable work behaviors that exceed formally or normatively prescribed expectations relevant to the job” (p. 47). Ellenbecker and Custman (2012) emphasized the attachment of individuals to organizations with which they remain willing to continue working for various reasons. Sani (2013) defined OC as the employee’s desire to belong to an organization and contribute to its objectives.

Choi and Yu (2014) described it as “the degree to which an individual identifies with and becomes involved in an organization” (p. 354). Bourauy et al. (2019) interpreted OC as a psychological state “capturing the degree to which an individual feels attached to an organization” (p. 154). Otoo and Rather (2024) defined it as “the level of identification and connection of a person with an organization, strengthened through firm acceptance and adherence to the organization’s goals and ideals” (p. 206).

In general, scholars agree that OC occurs in relation to the organization as a whole. Gouldner (1960) proposed that OC has two major dimensions: commitment to the organization as a whole and commitment to specific organizational values, which he regarded as independent. According to Lambert et al. (2021), OC “refers to commitment to the employing organization in general rather than to a particular section, department, or work group” (p. 2). Still, some authors view OC as a set of multiple commitments to various groups within the organization (Reichers, 1998, p. 469).

Despite such conceptual diversity, only two definitions have become dominant theoretical frameworks for OC: that of Porter et al. (1974) and that of Allen and Meyer (1990). Porter et al. defined OC as “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular

organization” (1974, p. 604). They argued for a unidimensional view composed of three distinct components: (1) identification with the organization, expressed in strong belief in its goals and values; (2) engagement, understood as willingness to exert considerable effort for the organization; and (3) membership, expressed as a strong desire to remain in the organization. Some authors questioned the third component, arguing that the desire to remain should be considered an outcome rather than part of OC (Reichers, 1985; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996).

Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualized OC as tridimensional, with dimensions showing some statistical independence. They proposed three forms of commitment: (1) affective commitment, reflecting emotional attachment to the organization; (2) normative commitment, based on a moral duty toward the organization; and (3) continuance commitment, based on perceived costs of leaving the organization. First dimension shares similarities with Porter et al.’s first component, while the third aligns with side-bet theory grouped under the exchange approach (Stevens, 1978; Nelwan et al., 2024). Normative commitment appears to represent an innovation introduced by Allen and Meyer (1990). Building on this framework, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed the Three-Component Model (TCM). This approach, however, faces at least three limitations. First, the proposed components represent distinct types of commitment rather than dimensions of a single construct. Second, treating perceived costs of leaving as a form of commitment remains debatable. Third, as Singh and Gupta (2015, p. 1194) noted, “affective commitment has been found to be the most valuable and the ‘right kind’ of commitment for an organization.”

Although the Allen and Meyer (1990) framework has dominated OC research over the past two decades (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Singh & Gupta, 2015), this study deliberately rejected it in favor of the Porter et al. (1974) approach. Porter (1972) designed an instrument with fifteen indicators to operationalize his definition of OC. In Mowday et al. (1979), this instrument was named the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). Over years of application, the OCQ has demonstrated several strengths: (1) it draws on a substantial body of documentation (Morris & Sherman, 1981); (2) it interprets OC exclusively as affective commitment, thereby avoiding the three problems inherent in Allen and Meyer’s (1990) framework; (3) numerous studies confirmed the unidimensionality of the fifteen-item scale (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Morrow & McElroy, 1986); (4) it exhibits internal consistency and statistical reliability (Mowday et al., 1979; Balaji, 1986); and (5) despite its limitations, some comparative studies found it richer and more reliable (Shaub, 1991).

Nevertheless, like all measurement instruments, the OCQ has limitations. First, although it measures affective commitment, several indicators show cognitive (Balaji, 1986) or behavioral components (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996). Second, while this framework conceptualizes OC as employees’ overall attitude toward their organization (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226), some OCQ items refer to different organizational subsystems (Balaji, 1986). Third, subsequent studies found factor solutions with more than one dimension (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bar-Hayim & Berman, 1992; Benkhoff, 1997; Commeiras & Fournier, 2001).

### *Antecedents of Organizational Commitment*

Antecedents represent factors that exert some influence on organizational commitment (OC). Variables used to operationalize them are expected to show statistical associations with OC indices. Segments defined by these variables should display different levels of OC. Antecedents of OC thus function as actions or elements that cause its existence (Pathardikar & Sahu, 2011). Bateman and Strasser (1984) described them as a set of situational variables and attitudes. Balfour and Wechsler (1996) identified a broad range of antecedents, though without proposing a classification, including: participation, direct service to the public, job scope, political penetration, supervisor, tenure, education, position, pay satisfaction, advancement and personal learning; desire to remain and perceived job alternatives; and internal motivation. Through a bibliographic review, Coronado Guzmán et al. (2020) listed numerous antecedents of OC such as training and development, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, psychological well-being, leadership, trust, staff promotion, organizational culture, opportunism, empowerment, and dependence.

This diversity of antecedents prompted several authors to group them into more homogeneous categories. Some divided them into two broad groups. Suman and Srivastava (2012) and Bodjrenou et al. (2019) separated them into personal and organizational factors. Lambert et al. (2021) distinguished personal from workplace factors. Velado Rodríguez et al. (2006) grouped them as proximal causes (work experiences, role ambiguity and conflict, psychological contract) and distal causes (organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, HR strategies, environmental conditions). Others proposed three categories. Steers (1977) classified them as: (1) personal (age, education, need for achievement); (2) job characteristics (task identity, feedback, optional interaction); and (3) work experiences (group attitudes, organizational dependability, personal importance). Steijn and Leisink (2006) distinguished: (1) personal characteristics; (2) job characteristics; and (3) organizational characteristics. Joiner and Bakalis (2006) proposed personal characteristics, job-related factors, and job-involvement factors. Adamchik and Sedlak (2024) organized antecedents into three groups: (1) subjective perceptions and job satisfaction (e.g., coworker relations, job satisfaction); (2) individual demographic characteristics; and (3) job-related characteristics (hierarchical position, tenure, temporary vs. permanent employment) and workplace attributes (public/private, industry, firm size).

Other authors developed classifications with more categories. Moon (2000) proposed five groups: (1) intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors; (2) individual factors; (3) managerial level (top managers, middle managers); (4) sector (public or private); and (5) organizational culture. Cohen (2002) divided them into: (1) personal (gender, age, education, tenure, etc.); (2) work experiences (income, job involvement, etc.); (3) role-related (autonomy, role conflict, etc.); and (4) structural (organizational communication, etc.). Bodjrenou et al. (2019) expanded the basic division into personal and organizational antecedents by adding subcategories. Personal antecedents included: socio-cultural factors (gender, education, marital status, nationality), work-related factors (position in the organization, tenure, etc.), and the relationship between organizational and personal life. Organizational antecedents included: internal organizational factors (training and development, leadership, mentoring,

job autonomy, organizational support) and organizational characteristics (sector of activity, etc.).

These studies reveal that scholars have proposed multiple ways of classifying OC antecedents, drawing on different criteria. Building on this literature, the present study proposes a new classification designed to encompass the broadest possible spectrum of categories. Starting from Steijn and Leisink's (2006) framework, two clearly distinct types of personal characteristics were identified: (1) socio-demographic variables (gender, age, educational level, etc.); and (2) psychological variables (emotions and perceptions). Similarly, organizational characteristics can be divided into: (1) management-related variables (HR policies, organizational culture, etc.); and (2) structural variables (organizational size, industry, public or private sector, etc.).

Accordingly, this study classifies the antecedents of OC into five groups of variables: (1) organizational management; (2) organizational profile; (3) work relationship; (4) employees' emotional and perceptual factors; and (5) socio-cultural characteristics. Table 1 presents the variables included under each category, drawn from studies specifically focused on the public sector. The following section develops the hypotheses of this research, which address the relationship between OC and variables from each of these five categories.

#### *Organizational Management Variables: Relationship between Internal Social Responsibility and Organizational Commitment*

In the classification proposed in this study, the organizational management category encompasses variables of organizational management (e.g., human resource practices, the organizational structures adopted by firms, leadership) as well as variables reflecting the broader organizational impact of such management (e.g., organizational culture, work environment). Previous research on OC in the public sector has examined several variables in this category. Table 1 includes studies that considered organizational culture and values (Odom et al., 1990; Moon, 2000; Pathardikar & Sahu, 2011), organizational structure (Pathardikar & Sahu, 2011; Al-Qatawneh, 2014), leadership (Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Ashfaq et al., 2021), work environment (Ahakwa et al., 2021b), human resource practices (Steijn & Leisink, 2006), and social responsibility (Khan et al., 2018; Bouraoui et al., 2019; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Hammon, 2023).

To represent this category of antecedents, Internal Social Responsibility (ISR) practices were selected. Two arguments justify this choice. First, ISR practices form a specific subset of human resource practices: those aimed at managing the impacts of corporate operations on employees (Licandro, 2022). Second, a substantial body of research demonstrates that CSR/ISR constitutes an important antecedent of OC in the private sector, yet studies in the public sector remain scarce, as evidenced by the recent literature review of Yassin & Beckmann (2024).

A significant portion of this research employed the Allen and Meyer (1990) framework to measure OC (Shen & Zhu, 2011; Muller, Hattrup, Spiess & Lin-Hi, 2012; Farooq et al., 2014; Closon et al., 2014; Glavas & Kelly, 2014; Hofman & Newman, 2014; Choy & Yu, 2014; Bouraoui et al., 2019; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021). Other authors relied on their own indicators or adapted measures from previous studies (Brammer et al., 2007; Sagheer et al., 2022; Putri et

al., 2025). Only a few studies used Porter et al.'s (1974) OCQ (Turker, 2009; Ali et al., 2010; Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017).

Based on findings in the private sector and the results of the three public-sector studies mentioned above, this study evaluates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Organizational Commitment positively correlates with the perception of Internal Social Responsibility.

### *Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction*

In the literature, multiple definitions of job satisfaction (JS) coexist, yet all converge on the idea that JS represents an employee's feeling or emotional state (Currivan, 1999; Odom et al., 1990; Llovet & Fito, 2013). Eliyana and Pradana (2020, p. 432) define job satisfaction as "a feeling of pleasure or a positive emotional state which is the result of the quality of one's work and work experience." According to Khan et al. (2025, p. 3), JS "is a pleasant or good emotional state that occurs due to a person's evaluation of their employment or experience at work." Locke (1969) conceptualized JS as the relationship between what employee desire from their jobs and their perception of what they actually receive. For some authors, this feeling may refer to one's task, the work environment, or the organization as a whole (Churchill, Ford & Walker, 1976, p. 327). Aziz et al. (2021) argued that satisfaction operates both at the level of overall work and at the level of specific elements of the job. Others adopt a narrower view, contending that JS reflects an affective response to specific aspects rather than to the organization as a whole (Lum et al., 1998).

The relationship between JS and OC has been extensively investigated in the management literature (Hefny, 2020) for several decades (Reichers, 1986). Most studies in the private sector have reported a positive relationship between the two variables. Representative examples include Meyer & Allen (1987), Brammer et al. (2007), Mottaz (2016), Quisque & Paucar (2020), Bennett & Hilton (2021), Abdelhakim & Agwa (2022), Van et al. (2024), and Putri et al. (2025). These investigations covered diverse countries and types of organizations, examined different employee segments, and employed varied instruments to measure JS and OC. In the specific case of public-sector employees, the majority of studies have obtained similar results regardless of the measurement tools used to operationalize the two variables (see Table 1). Collectively, this body of research indicates that job satisfaction acts as an antecedent of OC, both in the private and public sectors.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Organizational Commitment positively correlates with Job Satisfaction.

### *Organizational Commitment and Organizational Profile*

The profile of each organization is shaped by variables such as size, industry, origin of capital (domestic or international), type of capital (publicly traded or privately held), sector (private, public, or social), and the gender of executives and managers, among others. As shown in Table 1, research on OC in the public sector has generally considered only organizational size and the distinction between public and private organizations. Regarding size, most of the studies included in Table 1 found no significant relationship between this variable and OC (Zeffane, 1994; Demircioglu, 2023; Adamchik & Sedlak, 2024). Only Tumpa et al. (2017) reported a positive relationship. Accordingly, this study evaluates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3a (H3a): Organizational Commitment is associated with organizational size.

With respect to organizational type (public vs. private), most studies have found that OC tends to be lower in public organizations than in private ones (Mowday et al., 1979; Moon, 2000; Goulet, 2002; Lyons et al., 2006; Agyemang & Ofei, 2012; Tumpa et al., 2017; Chian Vega et al., 2024; Adamchik & Sedlak, 2024). Thus, organizational type functions as an antecedent of OC. These results raise the question of whether the type of public organization also operates as an antecedent of OC. The public sector is highly heterogeneous. Public organizations differ depending on whether they operate at the federal, state, or local level. Moreover, organizations that provide health services, exercise regulatory functions, supply drinking water, or carry out other public tasks vary considerably from one another. Consequently, the type of public organization may influence OC in different ways. In this study, public organizations were classified into two groups: state agencies and local governments. The data collected served to test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3b (H3b): Organizational Commitment is associated with the type of public organization (state vs. local).

Over the past two decades, the participation of women in middle- and upper-level managerial positions has increased significantly (Licandro & Correa, 2022). This trend has stimulated research on the impact of women's presence in managerial roles—both supervisory and senior management—on organizational performance (Göbel & Burket, 2023). This emerging field of inquiry rests on the argument that women possess specific characteristics that contribute to different outcomes. Drawing on social role theory (Eagly, 1987), scholars have proposed that men and women act in accordance with distinct beliefs about their organizational roles (e.g., empathy, sensitivity to social issues) (Boulouta, 2013), and that women exhibit a stronger predisposition to foster caring behaviors and to provide help to others (Rand, Brescoll, Everett, Capraro & Barcelo, 2016). Studies also indicate that women demonstrate greater tendencies toward transformational leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2003) and toward building trust with subordinates (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2003). This greater orientation toward pro-social considerations in decision-making processes has been explained by women's stronger preference for altruism over risk aversion (Zou, Wu, Zhu & Yang, 2018).

Evidence suggests that while female leadership emphasizes collaborative and participatory approaches, male leadership is characterized by command and control (Ran Michelle et al., 2015). In particular, female managers display a more coaching-oriented managerial style compared to their male counterparts. A higher proportion of women on boards of directors has also been associated with stronger ethical quality in decision-making (Akaah, 1989) and with better CSR practices toward employees (Bernardi & Threadgill, 2010).

Since empirical evidence demonstrates that leaders' interactions with employees influence their OC, it can be inferred that female leadership affects OC differently than male leadership. More specifically, it is reasonable to expect that female managers foster higher levels of OC among employees than male managers do. However, only a limited number of studies have examined this issue. Göbel & Burket (2023) showed that supervisors' gender correlates with employees' affective commitment, finding that female supervisors promote higher levels of affective commitment because they engage more actively than male supervisors in implementing HR policies that meet employees' needs. Tojimatova & Shin (2025) demonstrated that the gender of HR managers is associated with both organizational loyalty and job involvement, with female HR managers achieving stronger outcomes than their male peers in both dimensions. Conversely, McColl-Kennedy & Anderson (2005) reported no relationship between manager gender and OC. Based on this evidence, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 3c (H3c): Organizational Commitment is associated with the gender of the Human Resources manager.

#### *Organizational Commitment and Work Relationship*

This category includes variables that segment employees according to their employment or work relationship with the organization. These include task type, hierarchical position, salary level, tenure, working hours, type of employment relationship (permanent or temporary), and union membership, among others. Some of these antecedents have received more scholarly attention than others. In this study, four antecedents were selected: salary level, task type, tenure, and union membership.

As shown in Table 1, tenure has been the most frequently examined antecedent in the literature on the public sector, yet findings remain divided. Some studies reported a significant association between tenure and OC (Mowday et al., 1979; Camilleri, 2002; Addae et al., 2007; Azeem & Akhtar, 2014), while others found no such relationship (Zeffane, 1994; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Moon, 2000; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Ashfaq et al., 2021). Based on this debate, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' tenure.

Research on the public sector has also produced mixed findings regarding the relationship between monetary income and OC. Some studies reported a positive relationship: Balfour & Wechsler (1996) (pay equity), Pathardikar & Sahu (2011) (salary), and Tumpa et al. (2017) (salary). However, Steijn & Leisink (2006) found no such relationship (salary). Accordingly, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' income level.

With respect to task type, Camilleri & Van Der Heijden (2007) found that job characteristics are related to OC. Based on this evidence, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 4c (H4c): Organizational Commitment is associated with the type of task employees perform.

Research on OC has devoted limited attention to union membership (Hammer & Avgar, 2005). According to Hammer & Avgar (2005), unionized employees tend to show higher levels of OC than non-unionized employees. It has also been argued that unions may foster trust in management and strengthen employees' commitment, although this effect depends on the quality of the relationship between the two parties (Gill, 2009). Conversely, unions may negatively affect employees' commitment when they attempt to block HR policies designed to facilitate commitment or when they act as barriers that hinder communication between management and employees (Verma, 2006). Lincoln & Boothe (1993), in samples of both U.S. and Japanese employees, found that union membership negatively influenced OC. In contrast, Choi (2018) reported a positive association between union membership and OC. Based on this debate, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 4d (H4d): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' union membership.

#### *Organizational Commitment and Socio-Cultural Profile*

This type of antecedent has been the most frequently studied in the literature (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). In this study, five socio-cultural variables are considered for segmenting employees: gender, generational cohort (baby boomers, Generation X, Generation Y), place of residence, educational level, and political ideology.

Research on gender as an antecedent of OC in the private sector has produced inconsistent findings, although most studies reported higher levels of OC among women (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). Kacmar et al. (1999) attributed women's stronger OC to the fact that they must overcome more barriers than men to enter organizations, which leads them to make greater efforts. However, some studies suggest that these differences may be very small or insignificant (Adamchik & Sedlak, 2024).

The vast majority of the studies listed in Table 1 that investigated this issue in the public sector found no relationship between gender and OC (Zeffane, 1994; Moon, 2002; Camilleri, 2002; Goulet, 2002; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Addae et al., 2007; Van Waeyenberg et al., 2020; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2022; Demircioglu, 2023; Lee & Kim, 2024). Only Markovitz et al. (2010) reported a relationship between the two variables, although in their study men exhibited higher levels of OC than women. Based on this evidence, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 5a (H5a): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' gender.

Age as an antecedent of OC has been examined in two ways: as chronological age or as generational cohort. Studies linking age and OC in the public sector have produced mixed results. Some reported a significant relationship (Goulet, 2002; Camilleri & Van Der Heijden, 2007; Addae et al., 2007; Lu et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2024; Adamchik & Sedlak, 2024), while others found no such relationship (Camilleri, 2002; Azeem & Akhtar, 2014; Tumpa et al., 2017; Van Waeyenberg et al., 2020; Ashfaq et al., 2021).

Generational cohorts refer to groups of individuals born within the same period, who experienced similar historical events and therefore share values, life experiences, and attitudes (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008). Current research on the relationship between cohorts and OC has primarily focused on three groups: baby boomers (BB), Generation X (Gen X), and Generation Y (Gen Y or millennials). Few studies have addressed this issue in the public sector. Benson & Brown (2012), for example, studied a sample of 2,776 employees from an Australian public organization and found that BB employees displayed higher levels of OC than those in Gen X.

D'Amato & Herzfeldt (2008) analyzed a sample of 1,666 emerging European leaders from four cohorts (early BB, late BB, early X, late X) and found a strong correlation between generation and OC. Cennamo & Gardner (2008) measured OC among employees from different sectors in New Zealand but did not find statistically significant differences across the three generations. Cunha da Silva et al. (2015) reported significant generational differences in a Brazilian study, where Gen Y employees scored slightly higher on OC than BB employees, and both groups scored substantially higher than Gen X. Glazer et al. (2019) compared affective, normative, and continuance commitment between Gen X and Gen Y employees in the United States. They found no significant differences for affective or normative commitment, but results indicated that Gen X employees scored higher on continuance commitment than Gen Y employees. Based on this evidence, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 5b (H5b): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' generational cohort (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y).

Place of residence refers to the geographical area where individuals live. Differences often emerge between people living in rural and urban areas, or between those residing in large versus small cities. Even within large cities, behaviors may vary across neighborhoods or districts. In Uruguay, a significant contrast exists between the capital city (Montevideo), with 1.384 million inhabitants, and the rest of the country, where no other city exceeds 100,000 inhabitants. None of the publications listed in Table 1 considered this variable. In this study, the OC of public-sector employees residing in Uruguay's capital will be compared with the OC of those living in the rest of the country. The following hypothesis will therefore be evaluated:

Hypothesis 5c (H5c): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' place of residence.

Educational level has frequently shown a negative correlation with OC in the literature. Scholars have argued that individuals with higher education levels hold greater expectations, making it more difficult for organizations to provide sufficient rewards, both of which lead to lower levels

of OC (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). Most studies in the public sector that examined this issue found no relationship between educational level and OC (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Moon, 2000; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Markovitz et al., 2010; Tumpa et al., 2017; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2022; Demircioglu, 2023). Moreover, in the few studies that did find a relationship, the direction of the effect varied. Camilleri & Van Der Heijden (2007) reported that OC increased with higher educational levels, whereas Camilleri (2002) found the opposite. Accordingly, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 5d (H5d): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' educational level.

Political ideology can be defined as a set of beliefs about the proper order of society and how that order can be achieved (Erikson & Tedin, 2003). Johnson & Roberto (2018, p. 1040) describe it as a “set of opinions underpinned by doctrines, values, and perceived moral truths that guide behavior toward a specific social order.” An individual's political ideology can be interpreted as a position along a continuum with opposing extremes. In the United States, these extremes are liberal and conservative, while in Latin America they are left and right. Swigart et al. (2020) suggest that political polarization has increased since the 2010s, and that employees bring their ideologies into the organizations where they work. Johnson & Roberto (2018) note that the impact of employees' ideology on organizational behavior has only recently begun to attract academic attention.

Research has shown that leaders with progressive/liberal ideologies tend to adopt stronger commitments to CSR (Gupta et al., 2017). Tennakoon & Wattegama (2023) propose that employees' conservative ideology relates positively to their job commitment, although a gap remains in research on the relationship between ideology and employee commitment. Maranto & Skelley (2003) studied U.S. public employees' support for reforms under the Clinton administration and found that affective commitment and political ideology jointly explained this support: liberal employees with higher affective commitment provided greater support for the reforms, while conservative employees with lower commitment showed stronger support. Spenkuch et al. (2023) examined purchasing officers across U.S. federal agencies and found that procurement contracts overseen by employees not politically aligned with the incumbent government (Democratic or Republican) exhibited higher cost overruns and delays. These results suggest that the political ideology of public-sector employees may influence their organizational commitment.

In Uruguay, political ideology is conceptualized along a left–right spectrum. Surveys typically operationalize ideology through a self-identification measure. According to data from a public opinion consultancy, the Uruguayan population distributes itself ideologically as follows: left (13%), center-left (18%), center (39%), center-right (16%), and right (14%). Based on this context, the following hypothesis will be evaluated in this study:

Hypothesis 5e (H5e): Organizational Commitment is associated with employees' political ideology.

### *Combined Effect of Antecedents*

Research on the antecedents of OC has largely focused on examining the individual effect of each antecedent, while only a few studies have addressed their combined effect (Cohen, 1992). Mathieu & Zajac (1990) emphasized that the possibility of multiple combined effects should not be dismissed, as some antecedents may moderate the impact of others. Cohen (1992) investigated the moderating effect of occupational type (white-collar vs. blue-collar) on the relationship between OC and several antecedents. Suman & Srivastava (2012) analyzed the mediating role of hierarchical level (executives, supervisors, and workers) in the relationship between OC and other antecedents. Several studies have explored the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between ISR and OC (Mueller et al., 2012; Hossen, Chan & Hasan, 2020; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Licandro, 2022; Ahsan & Khalid, 2024; Putri et al., 2025).

In this study, the combined effect of those antecedents that individually show a relationship with OC will be analyzed. Due to the lack of prior research on this specific issue, no hypotheses are formulated.

**Table 1.** Antecedents of Organizational Commitment in Public Sector Employees. Literature Review

Article	Population	Instrument	Organizational factors			Personal factors	
			Policies and practices	Profile	Affective/perceptions	Labor	Socio-cultural
Mowday et al. (1979)	United States public and specific private sector employees	OCQ or variation		Public/private (yes, lower public)		Tenure (+)	
Odom et al. (1990)	Middle and senior management officials from state, national, and international highway organizations in the United States	OCQ or variation	Bureaucratic culture (no), Innovative culture (+) Culture of support for work (+)				
Liou & Nyhan (1994)	Employees of a United States	TCM (AC, CC)			Job Satisfaction (yes, AC, but not for CC)	Tenure (yes) Role (supervisor/non-supervisor) (yes) Professional/Non-professional (yes)	
Zeffane (1994)	Australian private and public employees	OCQ or variation		Size (no)		Supervisor (yes) Tenure (no)	Gender (no)
Balfour & Wechsler (1996)	Employees of 12 United States government agencies	OCQ + TCM or variations			Salary satisfaction (+)	job scope (+) position (+) tenure (no) pay equity (+)	Education (no)
Moon (2000)	Chief executives and middle managers of private companies and public organizations in the United States	Other	Organizational culture Clarity of objectives (yes)	Public vs private sector (yes)	Intrinsic (yes) and extrinsic (no) motivational factors	Managerial level (no) Tenure (no) Job autonomy (yes)	gender (no) education (no)
Camilleri (2002)	Employees of a public IT company in Malta	TCM or variation				Tenure (yes) Rol status (yes)	Age (no) Gender (no) Educational level (-) Marital status (no) Personality (yes)
Goulet (2002)	Public, private, and third-sector employees in the United States			Public vs. private sector (yes, public is lower)		Hours worked (no)	Age (-) gender (no)
Lyons et al. (2006)	Public, private and third-sector employees in Canada	OCQ or variation		Public vs. private sector (yes, public is lower)			
Steijn & Leisink 2006	Public employees in the Netherlands	TCM or variation (AC)	Leadership style (yes) Satisfaction with HR management practices (yes)	Sub-sector (yes)	Interesting work (yes), support from colleagues (yes)	Tenure (no) Job characteristics: salary (no), permanent position (no), autonomy (yes)	Gender (no) Education (no)
Camilleri y Van Der Heijden (2007)	Public employees of Malta	TCM or variation	Perception of the organization			Job characteristics (yes)	Age (-) Education (+)
Markovitz et al. (2007)	Two samples: 1) Private sector employees (non-supervisors) and 2) Public sector employees in Greece	TCM or variation			Job Satisfaction (yes)		
Addae et al. (2007)	Employees of 7 ministries in Santa Lucía	TCM or variation			Role conflict (yes)	Tenure (yes)	Age (yes) Gender (no)

		(AC)			Role ambiguity (yes)		
Malik et al. (2010)	Teachers at a public university in Pakistan	Other			Job Satisfaction (yes)		
Markovitz et al. (2010)	Public and private employees in Greece	TCM or variation (AC y NC)			Job Satisfaction (yes)		Gender (AC yes) Age (Ac and NC yes) Education (no) Marital status (AC yes)
Ting (2011)	Public school teachers in Taiwan	OCQ or variation	Internal Marketing (yes)		Job Satisfaction (yes)		
pathardikar y sahu 2011	Executives of public sector mining companies in India	TCM or variation	Organizational structure (AC and CC yes) Cultural values (CC and NC yes)			Work experience (no) Salary (CC yes)	Age (AC yes)
Agyemang y Ofei 2012	Public and private employees in Ghana	OCQ or variation		Public vs. private sector (yes)			Tenure (no)
Al-Qatawneh (2014)	Public and private employees in Jordan	OCQ or variation	Organizational Structure (yes)				
Azeem y akhtar (2014)	Government office employees in Saudi Arabia	OCQ or variation			Job Satisfaction (yes)		Tenure (yes) Age (no)
Su et al (2015)	Executives and managers in the Australian public sector	Other	Team work /respect for people (yes) innovation outcome (yes) perceived organizational support (yes)	Public vs. private sector (no)	Job Satisfaction (yes)		
Agarwal et al. (2017, p.123)	Middle managers in public and private organizations in India	TCM or variation			Job Satisfaction with AC and NC (yes); with CC (no)		
Tumpa et al. (2017)	Employees of public and private banks in Bangladesh			Public vs. private sector (yes) Size (yes)		Salary (yes)	Education (no) age (no) marital status (yes)
Khan et al. (2018)	Employees of private and public banks in Pakistan		CSR (yes)				
Fierro Moreno et al. (2018)	Public employees of Mexico	TCM or variation	Collaborative Public Management (AC and NC yes) CC (no)				
Bourauil et al (2019)	Public and private employees in Tunisia	TCM or variation (AC)	CSR perceptions (yes) Perceived organizational support (yes)				
Sarisik et al 2019	Public employees in Türkiye	TCM or variation				Burnout (yes)	

Van Waeyenberg et al 2020	Public school teachers in Belgium	TCM or variation (AC)			Exhaustion (-)	Working hours (+)	Gender (no) Age (no)
Ahmad y Raja 2021	Public and private bank employees in India (the analysis does not separate between sectors)	Other			Satisfaction with: supervisor (yes), job (yes), company policy and support (yes), promotion (yes), pay (yes), co-workers (yes)		
Ahakwa et al. (2021b)	Bank employees in Ghana	TCM or variation	Work environment (yes)		Job Satisfaction (yes)		
Chiang Vega et al. (2021)	Public and private administrative employees in the Chilean health sector	TCM or variation			Job Satisfaction (yes)		
López et al. (2021)	Public employees of a municipality in Peru	TCM or variation	CSR (NC yes) (AC and CC no)				
Ashfaq et al 2021	Public and private sector employees in Pakistan (not separated by sector)	Other	Ethical leadership (yes)		self-efficacy (yes)	Tenure (no)	Education (yes) age (no)
Chatzopoulou et al. (2021)	Private and public employees in Greece	TCM or variation	Internal CSR perception (yes)		Job satisfaction (yes) Pay satisfaction (yes)	Work experience (yes) Position (yes)	Gender (no) Education (no) Status marital (yes)
Al Balush et al (2022)	Employees of 38 Omani government units	TCM or variation				Career growth (+)	
Lu et al (2022)	Public sector employees in China	TCM or variation			Motivation for public service (+) Job Satisfaction (+)	Work experience (-)	Gender (no), Age (-), Education (no)
Hammon (2023)	Municipal employees in the United States	Other	Social Responsibility (yes)		Organizational identification (yes)		
Carrillo 2023	Administrative employees of a public institution in Ecuador	TCM or variation			Intrinsic Job Satisfaction (yes)		
demircioglu (2023)	Australian public employees	Other	Innovation climate (yes)	Size (no)	Job Satisfaction (yes)	Job Level (no) Tenure (no)	Education (no) Gender (no)
Lee y kim (2024)	Officials of the central government of Korea	TCM or variation	Perceived innovative culture (yes)		Public service motivation (yes)	years of work (+)	Gender (no) education(no)
Alomran et al (2024)	Hotel employees in Saudi Arabia	TCM or variation	Organizational trust (yes with AC and NC) (CC no)				
Yulianingrum y Survival (2024)	Regional Secretariat employees in Indonesian city	No information			Individual characteristics (Attitudes,		

								needs, interests) (yes)
Galván-Vela et al. (2024)	Teachers from public universities (79% of the sample) and private universities in Mexico	TCM or variation	Perception of organizational justice (yes)					Job satisfaction (yes) Job happiness (yes)
Verenzuela y Salas (2024)	Employees of a mayor's office in Venezuela	TCM or variation						Job Satisfaction (yes)
Vega et al. (2024)	Public and private employees in Argentina	TCM or variation		Public sector < Private sector				Job Satisfaction (no)
Tegegne & Wondimu (2024)	Professors at a public university in Ethiopia	TCM or variation						Emotional intelligence (yes)
Lin et al. (2024)	Public employees in China	TCM or variation	Perceived superior trust (yes)					Burnout (yes) Public Service Motivation (yes) Gender (yes) Age (yes)
Adamchik y Sedlak (2024)	Private and public employees in Poland	Other	Training and professional development (yes)	Sector (pub>priv) size (no)				Pay satisfaction (yes) Job fit (yes) hierarchical position (no) tenure (no) Gender (no) age (yes) education (no)

Source: own elaboration

## Methodology

This research was conducted with public-sector employees in Uruguay. Public employees in this country can be divided into two broad segments: (1) those who work in state organizations (ministries, government agencies, judiciary, legislature, state-owned enterprises, etc.), and (2) those who work in local governments. Uruguay is geographically divided into 19 provinces (called departments), each of which has a local government responsible for road management, waste collection and disposal, public lighting, and the promotion of cultural activities, among other tasks. In 2022, the public sector employed 296,925 people (17% of the total employed population), of whom 38,673 worked in local governments (INE, 2022).

A random sample of 172 public employees residing in Uruguay and using the social network Facebook was selected. The sample was drawn randomly through the algorithms applied by Facebook. Consequently, the sample comprised individuals residing throughout the national territory and working in a wide range of public organizations. This represents an important difference from most prior studies, which usually examine employees from a single or a small number of organizations (Fiorito et al., 2007). Thus, this research avoids the organization-specific factors that influence OC, which cannot be controlled when focusing on a single organization, thereby facilitating the extrapolation of findings. However, it should be noted that distributing the survey via Facebook biases the results toward public employees who use this network and, in particular, those inclined to respond to surveys distributed through it.

A structured questionnaire was used. Facebook was instructed regarding the user profile to whom the questionnaire should be sent. The instrument was designed to fit the specific conditions of self-administered surveys distributed through this social network. In particular, the questionnaire was kept concise, easy to understand, fluid, and user-friendly. Facebook did not disclose the total number of surveys sent; therefore, it is impossible to calculate the response rate. The data collected were processed and analyzed using SPSS software.

Organizational Commitment was operationalized through a reduced version of Porter et al.'s (1974) OCQ. Three indicators were selected for each of the three components of OC (identification, engagement, and membership). The items were translated into Spanish with minor adjustments to improve comprehension. Moreover, indicators originally worded as negative statements in the OCQ were reformulated as positive ones (see Table 2). Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated disagreement, 5 indicated agreement, and 3 represented a neutral position.

To operationalize Internal Social Responsibility (ISR), six indicators were selected, each representing a specific ISR practice. The research team determined the choice of indicators. Given the self-administered nature of the survey, practices were chosen that respondents could easily recognize and evaluate. The indicators covered several dimensions of this concept (see Table 3). Each respondent was asked to assess the application of these practices in their organization, using the same five-point Likert scale applied for OC.

In the case of Job Satisfaction (JS), the evaluation focused on satisfaction with the respondent's assigned role within the organization. The survey assessed satisfaction with: (1) the tasks

performed, (2) the responsibilities assigned, and (3) the material working conditions (see Table 3). Responses followed the same scale used for OC and ISR.

The questionnaire also included indicators to measure all other antecedents of OC incorporated into the hypotheses. Nominal scales were used for gender (female, male), task type (managerial, technical, administrative or commercial, operational, other), union membership (yes, no), type of public organization (central government, local government), and gender of the HR manager (female, male, none). Ordinal scales were used for educational level, salary, tenure, political ideology, and organizational size. Age was measured using a discrete quantitative scale.

Different techniques were applied in the statistical analysis. The unidimensionality of the OC scale was evaluated through factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha. Simple correlations were applied to analyze the relationship between OC and ISR, and between OC and JS. To examine the relationship between OC and other antecedents (non-continuous variables), mean difference tests were applied, supported by ANOVA to estimate statistical significance levels. The combined impact of several antecedents on OC was analyzed using multiple regression. It should be noted that a relatively flexible criterion was adopted when drawing inferences from mean difference tests. Due to the small sample size ( $n = 172$ ), relationships between variables were accepted at significance levels up to 0.150—that is, relationships were inferred when confidence levels were equal to or greater than 85%. This limitation is explicitly acknowledged in the conclusions.

## Results

### *Validity of the Reduced OCQ Scale Selected for this Study*

The analysis began by evaluating the dimensionality of the scale used to operationalize OC. To this end, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, with results presented in Table 2. The principal components method was selected for factor extraction, no prior specification of the number of factors was imposed, and the initial solution was rotated using the varimax option. The analysis confirmed that the nine OCQ indicators correspond to a single dimension. As shown in Table 2, all factor loadings exceeded 0.600 by a substantial margin, indicating that each indicator explains a significant portion of the variance of the factor to which it is associated. The one-dimensional model accounts for 63.6% of the total variance. Bartlett's test of sphericity confirmed that the nine indicators are adequately correlated with one another ( $\text{Chi-square} = 1070.395$ ,  $p \leq 0.000$ ). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy registered a value of 0.911, allowing the conclusion that the indicators associated with each factor can be predicted from the others. Cronbach's alpha was also calculated, yielding a value of 0.927, which is highly satisfactory (see Table 3).

Based on these results, it can be concluded that the nine-item instrument used in this study constitutes a unidimensional scale measuring Organizational Commitment. Consequently, the findings of this research align with the theoretical definition underlying the OCQ as well as with the results obtained by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979).

**Table 2.** Indicators used to operationalize CO, results of the confirmatory factor analysis and the reliability test of the scale

Dimension	Cod	Text	Factor loading
Identification	OC1	I find that my values and the values of this company/organization are very similar.	,735
	OC2	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company/organization.	,879
	OC3	For me, this is the best of all possible companies/organizations to work for	,832
Engagement	OC4	I am willing to go the extra mile to help this company/organization succeed	,773
	OC5	This company/organization truly inspires the best in me in terms of job performance	,858
	OC6	I would accept almost any type of task in order to continue working for this company/organization	,655
Membership	OC7	I feel a great deal of loyalty to this company/organization	,829
	OC8	For me to leave this company/organization, very significant changes would have to occur in my current circumstances (work or personal).	,754
	OC9	Deciding to work for this company/organization has been a great decision on my part	,838
Cumulative variance	Percentage		63,6%
Adequacy test	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure		,911
Bartlett's sphericity test	Chi-square approximation		1070,395
	Degrees of freedom		36
	Signification		,000
Reliability test	Cronbach's alpha		0,927

### *Evaluation of Hypotheses*

To evaluate the hypotheses, an index of Organizational Commitment (OCIND) was constructed by combining the values obtained for each OC indicator. Table 3 presents descriptive information on this index. The same table also includes descriptive statistics for an index measuring ISR and another index measuring JS. Both indices were built using the values recorded in their respective indicators. As shown in Table 3, both indices achieved high Cronbach's alpha values. The means and medians indicate that perceptions of ISR are low: half of Uruguay's public employees rated ISR below 2.5. In contrast, their level of job satisfaction with the organizations in which they work is relatively high: half rated their job satisfaction at 4 or above. Organizational Commitment recorded an intermediate but relatively low value compared to ISR and JS, with a mean score of 3.11 on a scale from 1 to 5.

Table 3 also presents the simple correlations among the three indices. The results show a strong correlation between the Internal Social Responsibility Index (ISRIND) and the Organizational Commitment Index (0.688). Complementarily, Table 4 shows strong correlations between each ISR indicator and OC (0.751). In some cases, the correlation was higher (e.g., "Promotes ethical

behavior by supervisors and fair treatment of subordinates”), while in others it was somewhat lower (e.g., “Listens to employees when they wish to express dissatisfaction, raise an issue, or file a complaint”); nevertheless, in all cases, the correlation coefficient exceeded 0.540. Based on these results, Hypothesis 1 is validated.

Tables 3 and 4 also indicate that the Job Satisfaction Index, as well as each of its component indicators, shows a strong correlation with Organizational Commitment. This validates Hypothesis 2.

**Table 3.** Correlation coefficients, descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha of the indices on Internal Social Responsibility, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Índices	Correlation coefficient			Mean	Median	Standard deviation	Standard error of the mean	Cronbach's alpha
	OCIND	ISRIND	JSIND					
OCIND	1	,688**	,751**	3,11	3,22	1,18573	0,09	,927
ISRIND		1	,639**	2,68	2,50	1,36384	0,10	,957
JSIND			1	3,47	4,00	1,24931	0,10	,858

\*\* . The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

**Table 4.** Correlation between the Organizational Commitment Index and each indicator of ISR and JS

Dimension	Cod	Indicator	Correlation coefficient
Internal Social Responsibility	ISR1	Listen to employees when they want to express dissatisfaction, raise a problem, or file a complaint	,543**
	ISR2	Promote employee participation and initiative	,625**
	ISR3	Promote a positive work environment and good relationships within the company	,669**
	ISR4	Prevent work-related illnesses (stress, tendinitis, back problems, etc.) and provide support to employees when they develop them	,580**
	ISR5	Promote and facilitate employee training and professional development.	,619**
	ISR6	Encourage managers to act ethically and treat their subordinates fairly	,707**
Job Satisfaction	JS1	I am satisfied with my working conditions.	,676**
	JS2	I am satisfied with the tasks I perform	,635**
	JS3	I am satisfied with the responsibilities assigned to me	,677**

The strong correlations observed between OC and both Internal Social Responsibility (ISR) and Job Satisfaction (JS)—within a context of low perceived ISR and high JS—suggest the presence of a combined effect of these two variables on OC. To evaluate this issue, a linear regression was conducted using the three indices, with OC as the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 5. As shown, when the combined effect of both variables is considered, the simple correlation coefficient (R) experiences a slight increase compared to the simple correlation between OC and JS (which is somewhat higher than the simple correlation between OC and ISR). Robustness tests yielded positive results, including the Durbin–Watson statistic, ANOVA, and the significance levels of standardized coefficients (standardized Betas). The coefficient values indicate that both independent variables exert a combined effect on Organizational Commitment, although the effect of Job Satisfaction is considerably stronger.

**Table 5.** Linear regression with organizational behavior as the dependent variable and ISR and JS as dependent variables. Measures obtained

Summary	R	R-squared	Adjusted R-squared	Durbin-Watson
	,798	,637	,633	1,960
Analysis of variance	F	Sign.		
	148,302	,000		
Standardized coefficients	Coefficients	Beta	t	Sign.
	INDISR	,351	5,833	,000
	INDJS	,526	8,737	,000

The mean difference test was applied to evaluate the hypotheses concerning the antecedents that characterize organizational profiles. Table 6 presents the results for the three variables from this group considered in the study. In all three cases, the differences recorded across segments were not statistically significant. OC shows virtually no variation between employees working in central government organizations and those employed in local governments. Consequently, Hypothesis 3a is rejected.

For organizational size, employees in organizations with more than 500 staff members reported lower OC compared to those in smaller organizations, but the difference was not statistically significant. This leads to the rejection of Hypothesis 3b.

Regarding the gender of the HR manager, employees in organizations led by female HR managers reported slightly higher OC. However, the significance level (0,299) was not acceptable. Therefore, Hypothesis 3c is also rejected, although it remains uncertain whether this hypothesis would still be rejected with a larger sample size.

**Table 6.** Relationship between organizational commitment and variables related to the employment relationship. Test of difference of means

Variables	Segments	OC	F	Sign.
Government Sector	Nat. Gov.	3,15	,127	,722
	Local Gov.	3,08		
Size (number of employees)	Up to 100	3,21	,814	,445
	101 to 500	3,29		
	501 or more	3,01		
Gender HR Manager	Women	3,18	1,084	,299
	Man/none	2,99		

To evaluate the hypotheses related to the antecedents of employment relationships, the mean difference test was also applied. The mean values of OCIND were calculated for each segment defined by the variables included in the hypotheses. Subsequently, an ANOVA test was used to assess whether the observed differences were statistically significant. Although employees with

longer tenure reported higher levels of organizational commitment, the ANOVA test indicates that this difference is not statistically significant (see Table 7). Consequently, Hypothesis 4a is rejected.

Table 7 also shows that OC levels increase as salary rises, yet the ANOVA test reveals that these differences are not statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b is rejected. Employees performing managerial tasks display considerably higher OC than those engaged in technical tasks, whose commitment levels are, in turn, higher than those of employees performing other types of tasks. Accepting a confidence level of 90% or higher, these results validate Hypothesis 4c. Public employees affiliated with unions report lower OC compared to their non-affiliated counterparts. Accepting a confidence level of 85% or higher, the results validate Hypothesis 4d.

**Table 7.** Relationship between organizational commitment and variables related to the employment relationship. Test of difference of means

Variables	Segments	OC	F	Sign.
Salary	Up to UY\$ 25000	2,94	,199	,897
	UY\$ 25001 to UY\$ 55000	3,06		
	UY\$ 55000 to UY\$ 85000	3,14		
	More than UY\$ 85000	3,25		
Type of work	Management	3,62	2,661	,073
	Technical	3,14		
	Other	2,95		
Tenure (years)	Up to 5	3,08	1,360	,257
	5 to 20	2,92		
	More than 20	3,30		
Union membership	Member	3,03	1,996	,139
	No member	3,21		

\*\* . The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

The mean difference test was also applied to analyze the socio-cultural segmentation variables considered in the hypotheses. The results clearly reject Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 5c, 5d, and 5e (see Table 8). No differences were found in the case of gender or the region of residence of respondents. Generation Y employees reported higher OC than the other two cohorts, but the differences were not statistically significant. An inverse relationship emerged between OC and educational level (OC decreases as educational attainment increases), yet these differences did not reach statistical significance. A similar pattern appeared with political ideology: OC tends to rise when moving from left-wing toward right-wing positions. However, here too, the differences were not statistically significant.

Finally, multiple regression was employed to evaluate the combined effect of all antecedents of organizational commitment (OC). As previously noted, internal social responsibility (ISR) and job satisfaction (JS) exert a joint effect on OC. For this analysis, nominal variables were converted into dummy variables. For example: gender (female = 1, male = 0); type of organization (central government = 1, local government = 0); union affiliation (unionized = 1, non-unionized = 0). Ordinal variables were treated as continuous variables. For instance,

educational level ranged from 1 (primary education) to 5 (completed university education); tenure ranged from 1 (less than five years) to 5 (more than twenty years); salary ranged from 1 (less than UY\$25,000) to 7 (more than UY\$85,000); organizational size ranged from 1 (up to 20 employees) to 6 (more than 500 employees).

Table 8. Relationship between organizational commitment and socio-demographic variables. Test of difference of means

Variables	Segments	OC	F	Sign.
Gender	Man	3,15	,065	,799
	Women	3,10		
Generation	Baby boomer	3,15	,473	,624
	GEN X	3,03		
	GEN Y	3,23		
Region of residence	Capital	3,04	,639	,425
	Resto of the country	3,18		
Educational level	Low	3,25	,774	,463
	Medium	3,23		
	High	3,00		
Political ideology	Left	3,04	,264	,768
	Center	3,14		
	Right	3,22		

Several tests were conducted until identifying an equation in which all standardized coefficients (standardized Betas) achieved significance levels below 0.15. Table 9 presents the results of this statistical analysis. The Durbin–Watson test and the ANOVA confirm that the model is acceptable. The R coefficient is slightly higher than the R of the model including only JS and ISR (0.798), suggesting that this extended model explains somewhat more of the variance in OC. Clearly, ISR and JS account for nearly all the variation in OC. Each of the other antecedents exerts only a minor effect on OC variance. When incorporating these additional antecedents, the weight of job satisfaction increases slightly, while the weight of internal social responsibility decreases marginally.

The signs of the coefficients indicate that OC rises modestly with longer tenure and declines slightly with higher educational level, older age, and larger organizational size. OC also shows a very small increase when the respondent is male and when employed in a central government organization. In sum, the multiple regression analysis indicates that the only antecedents producing substantial changes in OC are internal social responsibility practices and job satisfaction.

**Tabla 9.** Regresión lineal con el comportamiento organizacional como variable dependiente y las demás variables como independientes

Summary	R	R-squared	Adjusted R-squared	Durbin-Watson
	,823	,677	,661	2,087
Analysis of variance	F	Sign.		
	42,726	,000		
Standardized coefficients	Coefs.	Beta	t	Sign.
	INDISR	,313	5,319	,000
	INDJS	,573	9,666	,000
	Tenure	,074	1,462	,146
	Women	-,091	-1,960	,052
	Age	-,104	-2,023	,045
	Educational level	-,102	-2,228	,027
	Central Gov.	,088	1,937	,054
	Size	-,088	-1,937	,054

## Discussion

When applying a measurement instrument, it is essential to verify that the underlying assumptions of the instrument hold. The OCQ was originally designed to capture a unidimensional construct. Its three theoretical components (identification, engagement, and membership) represent constitutive elements of the same concept, rather than distinct dimensions. In other words, the OCQ operationalizes a single construct of organizational commitment, underlying all indicators included in the questionnaire. The academic team that designed the OCQ validated its unidimensionality in several studies, most notably in the work of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), who confirmed it across six independent samples by combining factor analysis with Cronbach's alpha. Some researchers obtained similar findings (Morrow & McElroy, 1986), while others reported two-dimensional (Angle & Perry, 1981; Caught et al., 2000) or even three-dimensional structures (Bar-Hayim & Berman, 1992).

In the present study, factor analysis confirmed that the reduced OCQ scale effectively operationalizes a unidimensional variable. This outcome aligns with the conceptualization of organizational commitment proposed by Porter et al. (1974) and with the assumptions underlying the OCQ. Few studies on public sector employees that applied the OCQ tested dimensionality through factor analysis. Ting (2011) validated the unidimensionality of the 15-item scale, whereas Zeffane (1994) identified two factors labeled emotional attachment and loyalty/corporate citizenship. Most other studies limited their validation to Cronbach's alpha to assess reliability, without examining dimensionality through factor analysis. In all cases, Cronbach's alpha proved satisfactory: Odom et al. (1990) (0.87), Lyons et al. (2006) (0.90), Agyemang & Ofei (2012) (0.90), Al-Qatawneh (2014) (0.77), and Ahakwa et al. (2021) (0.74). In this study, Cronbach's alpha reached 0.927, surpassing those values. Overall, the findings validate both the unidimensionality and reliability of the reduced OCQ scale.

Several noteworthy results emerged from this research. One central finding concerns the relatively low level of organizational commitment among Uruguayan public employees. The mean value of the OC index was 3.11 on a five-point scale. Furthermore, the OC levels observed in this study fall well below those reported in other studies using the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979; Zeffane, 1994; Agyemang & Ofei, 2012; Azeem & Akhtar, 2014). Only Al-Qatawneh (2014), who studied public employees in Jordan, reported similarly low levels. Consequently, the organizational commitment of Uruguayan public employees cannot be considered qualitatively strong.

The high correlation between ISR and OC (0.688) indicates that internal social responsibility practices exert a strong positive effect on employees' commitment in Uruguay. Previous studies reported weaker associations: Khan et al. (2018) (0.481), Bouraoui et al. (2019) (0.300), and Chatzopoulou et al. (2021) (0.365). Although direct comparability remains limited—given differences in variable definitions—the findings suggest that ISR has a relatively strong impact on OC in Uruguayan public organizations compared to international benchmarks.

Job satisfaction also demonstrated a high correlation with OC (0.751), consistent with the dominant trend in prior research on public sector employees (Table 1). Notably, the coefficient in this study ranks among the highest reported: Markovitz et al. (2010) (0.50 for intrinsic satisfaction), Chiang Vega et al. (2021) (0.660), Chatzopoulou et al. (2021) (0.568), Lu et al. (2022) (0.698), Demircioglu (2023) (0.65), Galván-Vela et al. (2024) (0.57), and Verenzuela & Salas (2024) (0.792). Thus, the impact of job satisfaction on OC among Uruguayan public employees appears comparatively strong in international terms.

Few studies have explored the combined effect of ISR and JS on OC, and none were identified in the public sector. This study demonstrates that both variables jointly affect OC, with job satisfaction exerting a substantially stronger influence than ISR. These results align with private sector studies that analyzed the mediating or moderating role of JS in the ISR–OC relationship (Hossen et al., 2020; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Licandro, 2022; Ahsan & Khalid, 2024; Putri et al., 2025).

Organizational profile variables showed no impact on OC. Neither the type of public organization (central vs. local government) nor organizational size demonstrated significant relationships with OC. While no comparable studies examined the type of public organization, the absence of a significant effect of organizational size is consistent with most prior research (Zeffane, 1994; Demircioglu, 2023; Adamchik & Sedlak, 2024). The slightly higher OC reported among employees with female HR managers did not reach significance, leading to the conclusion of no association. This outcome contradicts Göbel and Burket (2023), who found an effect of supervisor gender on affective commitment, yet it supports McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2003), who found no such relationship.

Regarding antecedents related to the employment relationship, different results were observed. Higher salary levels correspond to higher organizational commitment (OC), although the differences are minimal, and the ANOVA test results were sufficiently robust that the lack of statistical significance cannot be attributed to sample size. Therefore, the result obtained is

inconsistent with most studies in the public sector that have included this antecedent (Bafour & Wechsler, 1996; Pathardikar & Sahu, 2011; Tumpa et al., 2017).

No relationship was found between employee tenure and OC. Tenure is one of the most frequently examined antecedents in the organizational behavior literature, particularly within studies focusing on the public sector. Despite the large body of research addressing this issue, the results have not been conclusive. In this study, no relationship was identified between tenure and OC, and therefore the findings are consistent with those reported by Zeffane (1994), Bafour and Wechsler (1996), Moon (2000), Steijn and Leisink (2006), and Ashfaq et al. (2021).

Unlike the two antecedents discussed above, the type of task performed by employees was associated with their OC. The OC of employees performing managerial tasks is substantially higher than that of those performing technical tasks, and the OC of the latter is higher than that of employees engaged in other types of tasks. This result is consistent with the findings reported in the public sector by Camilleri and Van der Heijden (2007), which is the only study included in Table 1 that considers job position.

Union membership is also associated with OC. Public employees affiliated with trade unions report lower levels of OC than non-affiliated employees. This result is consistent with the findings obtained by Lincoln and Boothe (1993) in the United States and Japan, but contradicts the results reported by Choi (2018), who found that union membership is positively associated with OC.

None of the socio-cultural antecedents were associated with organizational commitment (OC). The result obtained for the gender variable is consistent with the findings reported in the majority of studies that examined its relationship with OC in the public sector (Zeffane, 1994; Moon, 2002; Camilleri, 2002; Goulet, 2002; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Addae et al., 2007; Van Waeyenberg et al., 2020; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2022; Demircioglu, 2023; Lee & Kim, 2024).

The absence of a relationship between generation and OC contradicts the widely held assumption that members of Generation Z exhibit lower levels of commitment at work. This result is consistent with the findings reported by Cennamo and Gardner (2008) in New Zealand and by Glazer et al. (2019) in the United States. However, it contradicts the results of studies conducted by D'Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) among emerging European leaders and by Cunha da Silva et al. (2015) in Brazil.

The absence of a relationship between the geographical area of residence of Uruguayan public employees and their OC cannot be compared with the findings of similar studies, as no other research considering this antecedent was identified. This variable tends to be relevant in contexts where cultural, social, and economic differences exist across regions. Uruguay, however, is a relatively homogeneous country, which may explain the result obtained.

As observed in most studies conducted in the public sector in other countries included in Table 1, the OC of Uruguayan public employees appears to be independent of their educational level (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Moon, 2000; Steijn & Leisink, 2006; Markovitz et al., 2010; Tumpa et al., 2017; Chatzopoulou et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2022; Demircioglu, 2023). Finally, the lack of

studies examining political ideology as an antecedent of OC prevents a meaningful comparison with the results obtained in this research.

## Conclusions

### *Contribution to Research on Organizational Commitment*

This study contributes to the field of organizational commitment (OC) in several ways. First, it provides a new validation of the OCQ as a unidimensional scale, thereby reinforcing its usefulness in research. Since Allen and Meyer (1990) developed the Three-Component Model (TCM), the OCQ has lost prominence, as shown in Table 1. Most researchers have opted for the TCM, frequently using only its affective commitment indicators. This preference likely reflects the fact that affective commitment can be measured with just six items, which simplifies survey administration. However, validating a reduced OCQ with nine items makes its use more appealing: it requires few items while capturing the complexity of OC—identification, engagement, and membership—more comprehensively than the TCM. Whereas Porter et al. (1974) proposed OC as essentially affective, Allen and Meyer (1990) added two non-affective dimensions: a prescriptive moral dimension (normative commitment) and a calculative, interest-based dimension (continuance commitment). These additions complicate its application, and many scholars have consequently restricted their use to the affective indicators. For those who conceptualize OC as primarily affective, the reduced OCQ constitutes a far more powerful instrument than the TCM.

Second, this study advances the field by treating OC antecedents as a central research focus. While most published works on OC include some antecedents, these are typically used only as control variables. Very few studies explicitly investigate antecedents as their main objective, and even fewer consider a broad set of them. This study contributes in two ways: it proposes a classification of antecedents into five categories—expanding beyond earlier two- or three-category schemes—and it simultaneously examines a wide spectrum of antecedents within a single empirical study. It also emphasizes antecedents rarely studied in the literature, such as union affiliation, political ideology, and the gender of the HR manager.

Third, several findings confirm prevailing trends in accumulated research. This includes the positive impact of ISR practices and job satisfaction (JS) on OC, and the independence of OC from organizational and socio-cultural profiles. Another result aligned with previous research is the confirmation of the combined effect of ISR and JS on OC.

Fourth, the study raises new research questions. The combined positive impact of ISR practices and JS invites exploration of how this interaction operates and why JS appears to exert a stronger relative effect on OC than ISR. Further investigation could also identify which ISR practices most strongly enhance OC. Another promising line of inquiry concerns why managerial and technical tasks associate with higher levels of OC compared to other roles. Moreover, findings regarding Generation Z challenge the widespread claim of weaker commitment in this cohort, suggesting the need for further research. The relationship between union affiliation and OC also opens new avenues. While U.S.-based literature, rooted in an Anglo-Saxon context, often portrays union membership as reinforcing commitment, this study finds the opposite in

Uruguay: unionized employees report lower OC than their non-unionized counterparts. Understanding this divergence in a Latin American, developing-country context could be a fruitful research direction. Similarly, antecedents such as HR manager gender and tenure showed trends that were not statistically significant, suggesting the need for studies with larger samples. Fifth, the focus on the public sector enhances the relevance of this research, given that most OC studies examine the private sector. Several arguments justify this emphasis. Public sector employment represents a significant share of the workforce in many countries, particularly in Latin America. In Uruguay, for instance, 24% of the employed population are public servants. In addition, labor relations in the public sector differ from those in the private sector. In Uruguay, public employees cannot be dismissed except for serious causes; management structures tend to be more rigid; and incentives to increase productivity are weaker. These differences may help explain why most prior research finds higher OC in the private sector. By addressing this imbalance, the present study contributes to building a deeper understanding of the factors influencing OC among public employees.

#### *Practical Implications*

This study also provides useful insights for those responsible for managing people in public organizations. Increasing employees' organizational commitment (OC) is a common objective in the private sector, but it should equally be pursued in the public sector.

The first practical implication of this research is the finding that the antecedents capable of positively influencing OC are primarily factors that organizations can control or manage, whereas most uncontrollable antecedents exert little effect. ISR practices are organizational choices. Similarly, job satisfaction (JS) results from a set of policies concerning interpersonal relations in the workplace, supervisory practices, organizational climate shaped by leaders, and fairness in decision-making regarding personnel, among other aspects. In contrast, uncontrollable factors—such as organizational size or employees' socio-cultural profiles—do not appear to influence OC. Role-related antecedents fall into an intermediate position: in some cases organizations can influence them, while in others they cannot. Task type is determined by the nature of services delivered, and organizations cannot influence employees' decision to unionize. However, if tenure were to exert a positive effect on OC, organizations could design policies to encourage it. A similar logic might apply to salary.

The second practical implication lies in the demonstration that if public organizations develop responsible human resource policies, they can indeed increase employees' OC. In particular, such policies were found to generate a substantial impact on commitment.

The third implication concerns the mediating role of job satisfaction. The evidence shows that ISR and JS jointly influence OC, suggesting that the impact of ISR policies depends on the level of JS at the time of implementation. In other words, before introducing new ISR practices, managers should assess the current state of employees' job satisfaction. A critical question follows: can the same results be expected in contexts of low satisfaction as in contexts of high satisfaction?

### *Limitations of the Study*

This study presents several limitations that should be considered for a cautious interpretation and use of its findings. In particular, care must be taken when comparing results with other studies and when attempting to generalize them.

First, the sample is not entirely random. Surveys distributed randomly through Facebook are subject to biases derived from the algorithms the platform uses to identify recipients. These algorithms operate in a manner similar to targeted advertising: they detect the profiles of individuals most likely to respond and subsequently focus on reaching more people with those same profiles.

Second, the survey was conducted in a single country. Uruguay is a small developing nation with unique socio-cultural characteristics and particular features of its public sector—for instance, its significant weight in the labor market, the fact that public employees cannot be dismissed except under serious circumstances, and a very high rate of union membership. These contextual specificities may limit the applicability of the findings to other countries.

Third, the relatively small sample size imposes restrictions on the validation of some hypotheses, as the significance level of ANOVA tests is influenced by sample size. For example, with a larger sample, the relationship between tenure and OC might have reached statistical significance. The same could hold true for the gender of the human resource manager.

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