

Faculty School of Management

Master Business Administration

Specialization: Strategic Human Resource Management

Commitment and turnover

A study to the role of different forms of employment

Radboud University Nijmegen



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Acknowledgements

The past six months have been an intensive period, in which this thesis was written. It was a period of intense learning for me and first, I would like to gratefully thank Dr. Yvonne van Rossenberg for the continuous support, and especially her enthusiasm, motivation, and immense knowledge. My research would be impossible without her help and guidance. She was always open to questions, which a had many. Her comments and guidance steered me in the right direction and at the same time this thesis was consistently allowed to be my own work. I really enjoyed the pleasant cooperation.

Second, I would like to thank my fellow students for their cooperation and stimulating discussions about our theses. Furthermore, I would like to thank them for collecting data together, which made this research possible. Without their help I could get that much respondents.

Third, I would express my profound gratitude to my family, including my parents, brother and sister, and my friends, for their support and the distraction when I was too caught up with the thesis. They provided a listening ear and encouraged me throughout the whole thesis process. This accomplishment would not have been possible without them.

Last but not least, heartfelt thanks go to my boyfriend Martijn, for the continuous encouragement throughout past year. Especially thank you for the discussions about the thesis and the remarks on the many versions of this thesis. Thank you for all your love and support.

Thank you.

Ilse Plattel

Nijmegen, 8th June 2018

Abstract

This thesis extends the knowledge about the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, and gives insights in the role of different forms of employment in this reciprocal relationship, based on the social exchange theory. Organizations are making more use of contingent employment forms and since unexpected resignation of these employees may lead to high costs, organizations need to keep them committed to the organization too. Previous research shows that higher levels of organizational commitment lead to less intentions of employees to leave the organization. This thesis' objective is to investigate what role the form of employment plays in the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Data for this research was collected by students of the Radboud University Nijmegen on the subject of the cross-cultural equivalence study on workplace commitment. Hypotheses are tested using multiple regression analyses and analysis of variance. The analyses revealed differences in organizational commitment between the three forms of employment and an overall negative relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. Some indication was found for a moderating effect on this relationship, but this was not strong enough to be significant. This research did find evidence for organizational commitment being a mediator between working in a employment form and turnover intentions, which means that through their social exchange, a reciprocal relation is build, which results in commitment and this, in turn, affects their intentions to leave the organization.

This study sheds light on turnover intentions of employees with different forms of employment. The findings show that the expected social exchange mechanisms do not explain attitudes and behaviours of self-employed workers, as it does for classically hired employees and temporary agency workers. By providing insight into this mechanism and the role of employment type, this thesis contributes to the theoretical development of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Furthermore, this study calls for more research in explanations of contingent employees, based on other theories than social exchange.

Keywords: organizational commitment, turnover intentions, forms of employment, temporary employment, self-employment, psychological contract

Table of contents

Acknowledgements	1
Abstract	2
List of figures	5
List of tables	6
1. Introduction	7
1.1 Research motivation	7
1.2 Research objective.....	9
1.3 Contribution.....	9
1.3.1 Theoretical contribution	9
1.3.2 Practical contribution.....	10
1.4 Structure of the thesis	10
2. Theoretical background.....	11
2.1 Different forms of employment.....	11
2.1.1 Social exchange and psychological contracts.....	12
2.1.2 Classic employed workers	13
2.1.3 Temporary agency workers	13
2.1.4 Self-employed workers.....	14
2.2 Organizational commitment	14
2.3 Turnover intentions	16
2.4 Conceptual models	18
3. Research Methodology.....	20
3.1 Research approach, methodology and design	20
3.2 Sample and procedure	21
3.3 Measurement instruments and variables	23
3.3.1 Forms of employment.....	23
3.3.2 Organizational commitment	23
3.3.3 Turnover intentions	24
3.4 Control variables	25

3.5 Ethical considerations.....	26
4. Results	27
4.1 Preliminary analyses.....	27
4.1.1 Descriptive statistics.....	27
4.1.2 Tests for outliers	29
4.1.3 Test for normality, multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity	29
4.1.4 Psychometric analyses of the variables	30
4.1.5 Means, standard deviations and correlations.....	30
4.2 Hypothesis testing	32
4.2.1 Direct effects	32
4.2.2 Moderation effects.....	34
4.2.3 Mediation effects	37
5. Conclusion and discussion	43
5.1 Conclusions and discussion.....	43
5.2 Contribution to the theory	46
5.3 Practical implications	47
5.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research.....	48
Reference list.....	50
Appendices	56
Appendix 1: List of items Organizational Commitment	56
Appendix 2: List of items Turnover Intentions	57
Appendix 3: Introduction online survey.....	58
Appendix 4: Normality tables	59
Appendix 5: Multicollinearity and VIF values.....	63
Appendix 6: Heteroscedasticity and plots	64

List of figures

Figure

2.1	Conceptual model of direct and mediation effects	19
2.2	Conceptual model of direct and moderation effect	19
4.1	Graph showing the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions with temporary agency as a dummy moderator variable	36
4.2	Graph showing the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions with self-employed as a dummy moderator variable	36
4.3	Mediation model (Sobel)	39
4.4	Mediation model temporary agency dummy	40
4.5	Mediation model self-employed dummy	40
4.6	Mediation model temporary agency dummy	41
4.7	Mediation model self-employed dummy	42

List of tables

Table

3.1	Overview of positions of ontology, epistemology, research approach and methodology	20
3.2	Population and sample	22
4.1	Descriptive statistics (Mean, S.D., Skewness and Kurtosis)	27
4.2	Frequencies demographic variables	28
4.3	Frequencies work-related variables	39
4.4	Means, S.D. and Pearson correlations	32
4.5	Regression coefficients control variables and main effects	34
4.6	Regression coefficients control variables, main effects and interaction effects	35
4.7	Regression coefficients control variables and main effects for the three forms of employment	37
4.8	Regression coefficients control variables, main effect and mediation effects	39
4.9	Regression coefficients control variables, main effect and mediation effects	41

1. Introduction

1.1 Research motivation

This thesis extends the knowledge about the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, and gives insights in the role of different forms of employment in this reciprocal relationship, based on the social exchange theory. The form of contract between employee and employer seemed quite standardized; after an initiation period the employee receives a permanent contract from their employer and would work for that employer for a long period of time. However, a recent shift can be recognized to new forms of employment, such as temporary agency and self-employment, where this 'ongoing' employment is not self-evident (Gallagher & McLean Parks, 2001; Capelli & Keller, 2013).

In Europe, there is a shift from permanent to flexible contracts. Poland is leading with 22% of temporary employment and 14% of self-employed workers. The Netherlands follows in fifth place with 17% of temporary employment and 12% of self-employment (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, n.d.), which means around 300.000 employees employed through employment agencies and one million self-employed. Organizations use the flexibility of these contracts to successfully adapt to market changes (Sverke, Gallagher & Hellgren, 2002) and the use of temporary agency and self-employed workers is highly suited for this strategy (Matushik & Hill, 1998). These employees are often hired for a specific task or project (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004), because of their specialization (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005), and are of great importance for an organization at that moment.

Based on social exchange theory, different job attitudes and behaviours can be expected of employees with alternative forms of employment compared to the full-time ongoing employment relationship. Social exchange theory assumes the existence of an exchange relationship between employee and employer (Braithwaite & Schrodt, 2014). In a strong relationship, employees feel supported and secure of a job, and this can result high levels of organizational commitment (Rousseau, 1989; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnitsky, 2002). Employees working under these new contingent forms of employment may experience a different type of exchange relationship, resulting in less obligations towards the organization, because they receive fewer benefits compared to employees with a standard contract.

Although organizations choose to hire employees with contingent forms of employment for specific projects and assignments, and take a less strong exchange relationship for granted, unexpected resignation of these employees is an issue for the organization, which may lead to unexpected high costs (Flickinger, Allscher & Fiedler, 2016). When they leave the organization before finishing the job, for which they were specifically hired, the organization needs to recruit new employees immediately, which costs a lot of money (Morrell, Loan-Clarke & Wilkinson, 2004; Hom, Mitchell, Lee & Griffeth, 2012). Because of this, organizations should recognize the importance of turnover behaviours of all employees, thus also the contingent employees.

An important factor associated with withdrawing behaviour, such as turnover intentions, is organizational commitment (Williams & Hazer, 1986; Meyer et al., 2002; Kohlmeyer, Parker & Sincich, 2017; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Commitment is defined as “a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target” (Klein, Molloy & Brinsfield, 2012, p. 137). For a long time, the dominant conceptualization of commitment has been the three-component model (TCM) by Meyer and Allen (1990, 1991), who defined organizational commitment as a psychological state with three components: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Klein et al. (2012) introduced the new conceptualization of commitment to the field, after Solinger, Olfen & Roe (2008) addressed criticisms about the TCM of Meyer and Allen (1991). This conceptualization was accompanied with a new measure, named as the Klein et al., Unidimensional, Target-free (KUT) measure (Klein, Cooper, Molloy & Swanson, 2014). This conceptualization defines commitment more precisely and can be applied to all targets of commitment (i.e. organization, job, profession, and team) (Klein et al., 2014).

Through the years, a lot of research has been done in the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002; Fogarty & Kalbers, 2015; Hall & Smith, 2009; Kohlmeyer et al., 2017), who all found that higher levels of organizational commitment are associated with lower levels of turnover intentions. When an employee feels committed or attached to an organization, the employee will likely want to extend the bond with the organization, by staying. Although some research included contingent employment in studies to organizational commitment (McLean Parks, Kidder and Gallagher, 1998; McDonald & Makin, 2000; Guest, Oakley, Clinton & Budjanovcanin, 2006) and turnover intentions (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010; Flickinger et al., 2016) no study combined the concepts in light of contingent employment forms. Including contingent employment forms is highly relevant, since the society is changing considering ideas about the standard employment relationship. This study seeks to examine what role organizational commitment plays within this issue of using contingent workers and their turnover intentions.

Recent years, practical and scientific attention has been drawn to contingent employment forms, such as temporal agency work, part-time workers, and self-employed workers. Questions have been asked about whether behaviours and attitudes of employees with different types of contracts vary (Rotchford & Roberts, 1982; Feldman, 2006). Although limited research actually studied these differences in behaviour, different contingent employment forms have been classified (Feldman, 2006).

Feldman (2006) defined contingent work as employment that is not permanent with one employer or client, contains not a full-time job with any one employer or client, and is limited in duration by contract or by project. He conceptualized contingent employment along three dimensions: ‘time’, ‘space’ and ‘number and kind of employers’ (Feldman, 2006). This study will focus on the last dimension, which considers contingent work resulting in different numbers and kinds of employers, and evaluate differences between employees with different types of contracts. In this research, a distinction will be made between directly employed workers, temporary agency workers and self-employed

workers. McLean Parks et al. (1998) indicate that a variety of contingent employment exists and that contingent employment forms are hard to categorize, because it heavily depends on the factor of categorization. Furthermore, they also propose a lot of gaps in research, which all indicate the disregard on differences between the employment forms, based on understanding of psychological contracts.

The consequences of these differences could be particularly interesting for organizations which have employees working under different types of contract. The differences between the contracts and the employees, especially salary, and fringe benefits, could result in different attitudes and behaviours towards the organization. It will possibly result in withdraw behaviour, where employees leave the organization voluntarily, because they will not feel committed to the organization due to the fact that the organization does not invest in or care about them.

Furthermore, there still has not been scientific attention for the possibility of withdrawing behaviour caused by using different types of contracts. This gap in the literature deserves more attention, since retention of employees can be a critical issue for organizations (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese, 2011).

1.2 Research objective

This leads to the research question of the thesis:

What is the role of the form of employment in the relation between organizational commitment and turnover intentions?

Social exchange theory will be used as a theoretical lens to understand the influence of organizational commitment on an employee's intentions to leave the organization. Hypotheses concerning the differences between the contracts and their influence on organizational commitment and turnover intentions will be developed on the basis of social exchange theory. Following social exchange theory, this study will examine what is the role of different contracts in the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Firstly, organizational commitment will be viewed as a mediator, within the relationship of form of employment and turnover intentions. Secondly, the form of employment will be viewed as a moderator in the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. This results in five hypotheses in chapter two.

1.3 Contribution

This study contributes to the scientific field of management science, which will first be elaborated. Second, the practical contribution of this study will be explained.

1.3.1 Theoretical contribution

Firstly, this thesis contributes to the theoretical development of turnover intentions and organizational commitment. Although a lot of research has been done in contingent work and flexible work forms, no attention is focused on withdraw behaviour of employees with contingent work arrangements. By

examining the relation between forms of employment and employees' intentions to leave the organization, this study is filling a scientific gap. The literature of commitment does focus on contingent employment forms. However, the focus of commitment is different. The literature focuses predominately on organizational commitment to the agency (with temporary agency workers; De Cuyper, Notelaers & De Witte, 2009; Felfe, Schmook, Schyns & Six, 2008) and commitment to the employment form or the profession (with self-employed workers; Felfe et al., 2008) or a combination of different foci of commitment (Cooper, Stanley, Klein & Tenhiälä, 2016; Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2006). This study fills a gap by focusing on the organizational commitment of the employee to the client organization and the differences for the three forms of employment.

Secondly, the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions has been repeatedly researched (Fogarty & Kalbers, 2015; Hall & Smith, 2009). However, research predominately focused on the classic employer-employee relationship and an interesting contribution of this study is whether this relationship works the same for different forms of employment. Little empirical research even combines more than two forms of employment (i.e. De Cuyper et al., 2009). In addition to previous research, this study is giving insights in the role of different employment forms in the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions by testing a moderation and a mediation model. The moderation model tests whether the relationship is stronger or weaker for the forms of employment. The mediation model tests if the intentions to leave the organization are caused by the organizational commitment of the workers, instead of directly by the employment form.

1.3.2 Practical contribution

This thesis will contribute to practice by giving insight in the different consequences of the different forms of employment. The results of this study will indicate whether employees with different forms of employment feel more or less committed to the organization and if this influences their intentions to leave the organization. A lot of organizations are using different kind of contracts and for these organizations, it will be very important to understand if attitudes of employees are found to be related to the form of employment. In this way they can deal with these differences more effectively. Moreover, turnover intentions are costly for organizations, and by giving them insight in how these concepts relate to each other, they can understand how to prevent employees from having turnover behaviour.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis will contain five chapters. After the first chapter, which contains the introduction, the theoretical lens will be described. This chapter provides a review of the current literature on contract types, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. In this chapter the research gap will be further described. Based on the review of the literature, six hypotheses are developed. The third chapter elaborates on the research philosophy, design, sampling method, control variables and ethical considerations of this study. The fourth chapter will present the findings, which will be concluded and discussed in chapter five, which will also contain limitations and recommendations for future research.

2. Theoretical background

In this chapter the key concepts of the study will be explained and the hypotheses of the thesis will be formulated. In the part 2.1 the different forms of employment will be distinguished. Additionally, social exchange theory and the psychological contracts of the different forms of employment will be discussed. In part 2.2 the concept of organizational commitment will be explained, followed by two hypotheses. The last part of this chapter will contain an elaboration of the concept of turnover intentions and the last three hypotheses will be provided.

2.1 Different forms of employment

A standard employment relationship where an employee works permanently, for one employer, for undetermined time and with good fringe benefits, is no longer the fact for every employee in society; the standard has changed (Bosch, 2004) and new employment forms came up. These new employment forms are specified as alternative work arrangements (McLean Parks et al., 1998), or temporary (Felfe et al., 2008), flexible or contingent (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005; Feldman, 2006) employment.

There are several reasons for organizations to use contingent employment in addition to standard employment relationships. First, contingent employment provides the organization with flexibility (De Cuyper et al., 2009), because they can adjust their workforce to the needs of the organization at any time (Chambel, Lorente, Carvalho & Martinez, 2016). Second, especially temporary agency employees are easier to hire and cost less (Pfeffer, 1994), because the employment agency takes care of the recruitment and selection procedure and has to deliver personnel when the client organization asks for it. Third, with contingent work arrangements, the employer does not have certain (legal) obligations, such as training and development (Zwemmer, 2012), but also salary payment in case of employee illness (Houweling & Schnelder, 2012). Legally, it is also easier to lay-off contingent workers than employees with a permanent full-time employment contract (De Boer, 2011). Fourth, temporary workers are used to replace permanent employees during periods of illness (Chambel et al., 2016). Fifth, contingent employment is often used for specific tasks or project (Felfe et al., 2008; Chambel et al., 2016). Lastly, organizations use contracts with self-employed workers, to decrease employee-related obligations (Ho, Ang & Straub, 2003).

These reasons for hiring employees with contingent employment forms are all at the side of the organization, which results in less responsibility of employers for their employees. Contingent workers have different reasons to be employed in this way. Temporary agency workers, for example, can be voluntary employed in this way, because they like working as a temporary agency worker, or involuntary, because they cannot find permanent employment (Ellingson, Gruys & Sackett, 1998).

Contingent work entails a lot of different forms of employment. Feldman (2006) conceptualized the concept of contingent work and distinguished 3 dimensions. The first dimension is time, which considers employees working less hours, employees who can work whether it is convenient for them, or seasonal workers. The second dimension is space, which entails working at different places, for

example at home, working with employees with different contracts, or working at different locations within the organization. The last dimension is numbers and kinds of employers, such as self-employed and agency hired workers. This study will focus on this last dimension of Feldman (2006) and evaluates differences between classically hired employees and contingent employees with different numbers and kinds of employers. In this research, a distinction will be made between directly employed workers (classically hired employees), temporary agency workers and self-employed workers.

2.1.1 Social exchange and psychological contracts

Behaviour of employees can be explained by social exchange theory. The relationship between employee and organization is based on a voluntary social exchange (Braithwaite & Schrod, 2014, and can be characterized by reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964; Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2006). Social exchange can be defined as “voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they bring from others” (Blau, 1964, p. 91). This social exchange entails social interactions of both parties, which develop new obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Reciprocity entails that if others fulfil their obligations to you, you in turn have to fulfil your arising obligation, which when completed will create new obligations for the others (Gouldner, 1960). Social exchange need to be distinguished from economic exchange. Economic exchanges are often created by legal obligations, are short-term, and demand specified costs and rewards, where social exchanges include emotional investments, are based on trust, are predominately long-term, and costs and rewards are not specified (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008).

Specified to an employer-employee relationship, this explanation is based on the idea that employees, who perceive a positive treatment and support from their organization, are in turn committed to the organization (Meyer et al., 2002). Benefits of the organization for the employee result in expected contributions of the employee to the organization. Important is the content of this exchange (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994). A framework within social exchange theory, which characterizes the type and content of the exchange, is the psychological contract. This characterization will be used to substantiate the expected differences in organizational commitment.

The content and type of the social exchange differs for the employment forms (Cooper et al., 2016), and the characterization of the psychological contract impacts employee behaviour and attitudes (Guest, 2004). Several studies (Schein, 1978; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995) described the psychological contract as the perceptions of both parties to the unwritten expectations between employee and organization. Rousseau (1989) described the psychological contract with a perspective that is more focused on the individual employee. She defined it as the “individual beliefs in a reciprocal obligation between the individual and the organization” (1989, p. 123) and it is the belief of the individual that creates the contract. She added “individuals have psychological contracts, organizations do not” (1989, p. 126). The psychological contract differs from the legal contract in the content of the agreements and expectations, and the terms of the psychological contract remain implicit, where the legal contract is

explicit. The legal contract obliges the employee to come to work every day, for certain hours a week. The psychological contract obliges the employee to commit to the organization, or to be loyal to their supervisor and their team. Although the psychological contract is not legally binding, a violation of the expectations can have serious consequences, like dissatisfaction or lack of organizational commitment.

Rousseau characterized the content of the social exchange relationship into two types of psychological contracts; transactional and relational agreements (1989). The transactional agreement is short term and can be characterized as economic (Rousseau, 1989; Chambel et al., 2016). Involvement of both sides is limited and employees have no feelings of loyalty and commitment for the organization (Chambel et al., 2016; McDonald & Makin, 2000). In contrast, relational agreements have a long term focus and are characterised by loyalty of the employee to the organization in exchange for job security, provided by the organization (Rousseau, 1989; Cooper et al., 2016; McDonald & Makin, 2000; Chambel et al., 2016). Relational contracts result in higher commitment to the organization (McDonald & Makin, 2000). The psychological contracts of the employees with the forms of employment will be characterized, to explain their differences in social exchange.

2.1.2 Classic employed workers

The classical way of employing people at an organization is by hiring them, after recruiting and selecting them by yourself. When employees are directly hired by an organization, they often have one single employer. Classic employed workers can be seen as employees who are having the traditional employer-employee relationship (Felfe et al., 2008; Cooper et al., 2016). Their contracts often include more job security, continuity and dependability for both employee and organization (Felfe et al., 2008).

Classical hired employees have a form of employment, where organizations normally invest in and that is usually offered to core employees (Cooper et al., 2016), who are valuable to the organization (Lepak & Snell, 2002). These traditional workers usually have an explicit or implicit understanding that their employment will last for an infinite time (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005), possess key knowledge and are unique in their human capital contribution (Cooper et al., 2016). Their psychological contract can be categorized as relational (Cooper et al., 2016; Rousseau 1989), with a strong social exchange relationship.

2.1.3 Temporary agency workers

Employees hired through intermediary organizations are a category of contingent employment (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005), also called employment agencies or temporary agencies (De Cuyper et al., 2009). These employees often choose for this way of working, because they cannot find a job and temporary work may result in a permanent job at that organization (Felfe et al., 2008; Chambel et al., 2016). The employees will be assigned by their agency to a client organization and this assignment is often of a fixed duration (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Felfe et al., 2008). Examples of temporary

employees are temporary-help employees, who are assigned by an organization because they need help for a short period, or consultant, who provide professional assistance for a project (Sverke et al., 2002).

In contrast to classic employed workers, temporary workers do not get high degrees of job security offered by the client organization (De Cuyper et al., 2009), because they are usually hired for a specific period (Flickinger et al., 2016). The agencies have the responsibility and obligation of training and development for their employees and they also take care of the salary of the employee. The client organization simply has an agreement with the agency about the employee. Because of the fixed duration, low levels of job security and low involvement of the client organization, the relationship between client organization and employee can be seen as transactional (Rousseau, 1989, 1995; Chambel et al., 2016; Cooper et al., 2016, McLean Parks et al., 1998).

2.1.4 Self-employed workers

Another category of contingent employment are the self-employed workers (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005), also called independent contractors (Connolly & Gallagher, 2004) or freelance workers (Felfe et al., 2008). These workers are not employed by an organization, but are self-employed by contracts with clients (Felfe et al., 2008) and are generally working in a one-person-business. These self-employed workers often have specialized skills (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005) and are always project-based employed with a client organization for a specific assignment or project (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Felfe et al., 2008; McLean Parks et al., 1998). Self-employed workers have their own worker-client relationships (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005).

They have a lot of benefits, such as high degrees of self-control over when and how the work is performed (Felfe et al., 2008). However, this form of employment also brings some vulnerabilities, such as being personally responsible for working equipment, training and health insurance (Felfe et al., 2008), and not having a secure and fixed income. The type and content of exchange of self-employed workers is harder to categorize. At the one hand, they do not get the investments and job security of classically hired employees, but they get more investments and job security compared to temporary agency workers (De Cuyper et al., 2009). Furthermore, self-employed workers are employed in this form of employment by choice, by which they accept disadvantages of this form of employment (Guest et al., 2006) and achieving person-job fit is easier (Feldman, 2006). The type of exchange of self-employed will still be categorized as transactional (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004), because the employment is project-based, not expected to be ongoing (Ang & Slaughter, 2001; Rousseau, 1989), and self-employed workers receive fewer opportunities for training and development (Ang & Slaughter, 2001) in comparison to classic hired employees.

2.2 Organizational commitment

As mentioned in part 2.1, the psychological contract categorizes the exchange relationship between employer and employee (Guest, 2004). Organizational commitment is one of the outcomes of that exchange relationship between employee and organization (Rousseau, 1989). When the employee

receives more benefits of the organization, the employee will in return for those benefits feel more committed to the organizations (McDonald & Makin, 2000). The literature has been dominated by the multidimensional three-component model of organizational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1990, 1991; e.g. Connelly, Gallagher & Gilley, 2007; Meyer et al., 2002; Tett & Meyer, 1993; McDonald & Makin, 2000). They see organizational commitment as a multidimensional concept and distinguished three components or psychological states of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment considers the emotional attachment to the organization, a desire. The continuance component of commitment is the need to be with the organization, because of perception of costs associated with leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Solinger et al., 2008). Normative commitment refers to the obligation of maintaining employment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The dominant position of this three-component-conceptualization of organizational commitment has been challenged (Solinger et al., 2008; Klein et al., 2012). Core problems with this conceptualization include first the inconsistency of the model with empirical findings (Meyer et al., 2002; Jaros, 1997). Second, the components are not consistently aimed at the organization. Affective commitment can be seen as focused towards the organization, since it considers feelings of attachment to the organization. However, continuance and normative components are more focused towards staying at or leaving the organization (Solinger et al., 2008), since it considers costs associated with leaving and feeling obliged to stay. This means that the focus of the three-component model is inconsistent. Third, because normative and continuance commitment are focused towards withdraw behaviour and are predominantly motives to stay at the organization. This could overlap with outcomes of studies regarding turnover intentions (Solinger et al., 2008; Solinger, Hofmans & Olffen, 2015). Fourth, the components of the three component conceptualization showed different values to different types and targets of commitment. This resulted in impossible comparability across different targets of commitment (Klein et al., 2012; Klein & Park, 2016).

An alternative unidimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment is given by Klein et al. (2012). They defined commitment as “the volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target” (2012, p. 137). In the new conceptualization, commitment is defined more precisely and more clear (Klein & Park, 2016). Furthermore, conceptualizing organizational commitment as a one-dimensional construct makes the definition of organizational commitment a lot easier and more consistent (Klein & Park, 2016). The conceptualization is more focused on commitment, instead of commitment and turnover. Moreover, this conceptualization and the accompanying Klein Unidimensional Target-free (KUT)-measure makes measurement of commitment to different targets possible with the same measure (Klein et al. 2014). In this way the results of studies will be better comparable.

Although measurement of commitment to different targets is possible, this study focuses on commitment to the organization. However, temporary workers and self-employed workers have more

than one organization and thus different targets. With temporary workers the distinction can be made between the employment agency organization and the client organization and self-employed workers have their own organization and the client organization. In this study the organizational commitment of the directly hired employee to the organization will be compared with the organizational commitment of the temporary workers to the client organization, and the organizational commitment of the self-employed employee to the client organization. This focus has been chosen, because these targets of commitments are the places they actually work.

Due to the fact that a lot of studies on organizational commitment focus on employees with a temporary (with a fixed-term contract) or permanent contract (e.g. Guest 2004, Connelly et al, 2007; Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2006), the commitment levels of other contingent employment forms remains unclear (Van Rossenberg et al., in press). As highlighted in research work (Felfe et al., 2008) the need of knowledge about organizational commitment of employees without the traditional employer-employee relationship grows with the increased use of contingent employment forms (Gallagher & McLean Parks, 2001).

Drawing on social exchange theory and the model of psychological contracts, which characterize the social exchange of contingent workers generally as transactional psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989, 1995; Chambel et al., 2016; Cooper et al., 2016; Ang & Slaughter, 2001; Van Rossenberg et al., in press) and classical hired employees' social exchange as a relational psychological contract (Cooper et al., 2016; Rousseau, 1989), the differences in organizational commitment can be explained. Dependent on the categorization of psychological contract of an employee, the employee will have different expectations of the organization and will reciprocate more or less to the organization (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Rousseau, 1989). Classical hired employees, who generally have a relational psychological contract, will experience investment in them by the organization and support of the organization in their work. In contrast, contingent workers, who generally have a transactional psychological contract, will not perceive investments and support and therefore feel less committed to the organization (McLean Parks et al., 1998). Furthermore, contingent workers' tenure at an organization is often shorter than classically hired employees, which impedes growing a strong organizational commitment. This leads to the following two hypotheses:

***H1.** Organizational commitment is lower for temporary workers compared to classically hired employees.*

***H2.** Organizational commitment is lower for self-employed workers compared to classically hired employees.*

2.3 Turnover intentions

Organizational commitment is an important employee attitude for an organization, since low levels of commitment are shown to result in high levels of turnover intentions (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian,

1974; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002; Cannon & Herda, 2016; Kohlmeyer et al., 2017). Turnover intentions of employees are a stage of withdrawal behaviour and it entails planning to leave the organization and/or looking for a new job. Mobley (1977) distinguished the stages of the turnover decision process of the employee, with a focus on the psychological process. It begins with an evaluation of the job, which leads to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. After this evaluation, the phase starts, in which the employee starts thinking about quitting, starts looking for alternatives and evaluates the alternatives. At the end the alternatives will be compared with the present job, which leads to an intention of quit or stay, and eventually to quitting the job (Mobley, 1977; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). This study focuses on the middle part of the turnover decision process, in which the employee is thinking about quitting and searching for alternatives, since the turnover intentions seem to be the strongest single predictor of turnover (Hom et al., 2012).

Employees can have voluntary and involuntary intentions to leave the organization. Employees with a fixed term or flexible contract, without any perspective on a new contract, are obviously looking for a new job when the end of their contract is approaching, although this job searching is not voluntary. It is important to make this distinction, since employees' turnover intentions with a fixed term contract are heavily influenced by the end of their contract. This study is focussed on voluntary turnover intentions of employees, which are not dependent on the type and length of the contract.

Turnover intentions of employees are linked with organizational commitment, since commitment for an organization entails identification, dedication and feeling responsible for the organization (Klein et al., 2012). Employees with high levels of commitment care about the organization and feel connected with the organization, which results in willingness to continue the employment in that organization (Kohlmeyer et al., 2017). This leads to the hypothesis:

H3. Organizational commitment will negatively affect turnover intentions.

Since no study has examined the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions for different forms of employment, this study want to further elaborate on the role of forms of employment in this issue. The forms of employment differ from each other in their psychological contracts, and these psychological contracts explain behaviour of the employees. Employees, who work at an organization through a temporary agency or as self-employed, often work at a project bases and do not have expectations of a long-term employment, which makes them less job secure than classically hired employees. Based on their psychological contracts, which seemed to be transactional, these employees will probably feel less part of the organization and their decisions are more based on their own needs, instead of the needs of the organization. Furthermore, organizational commitment is seen as the attachment of the employee with their employer, which is an outcome of the relational psychological contract of classically hired employees. When classically hired employees feel less committed to the organization, they will have more intentions to leave. In contrast, temporary agency and self-employed workers feel already less committed to the organization, based on their transactional psychological

contract. Lower organizational commitment will play a smaller part in their turnover intentions than for classically workers, and expected is that low levels of organizational commitment of contingent workers, are found to lead to lower levels of turnover intentions, than it would for classically hired employees.

***H4.** Form of employment moderates the relationship between for organizational commitment and turnover intentions, in a way that this relationship is stronger for classically hired employees.*

Although differences in organizational commitment for different employment forms could be expected (Blomme et al., 2010; Larwood, Wright, Desrochers & Dahir, 1998), effects on turnover intentions of the different forms of employment are less researched. This effect is assumed to be formed through the organizational commitment of the employees. Due to their psychological contracts, employees with different forms of employment will feel more or less committed to the organization, as mentioned in part 2.2. This study expects that this difference in turnover intentions for the employment forms, in combination with the expectation that organizational commitment is associated with turnover intentions, will have an influence on turnover intentions, through their feelings of commitment to the organization. As highlighted by Lee and Mitchell (1994), affective responses, like organizational commitment, which are determined by individual values and job expectations, are influencing the intention to stay or quit (Steers & Mowday, 1981). A classical hired employee will have high feelings of commitment for the organization, because of the stronger social exchange relationship, and will therefore be less likely to leave the organization. Contingent employees, have lower commitment, due to their weaker social exchange relation with the employer, and will therefore be more likely to have intentions of turnover.

***H5.** Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between form of employment and turnover intentions.*

2.4 Conceptual models

In this part, the conceptual models of the study are presented. This study aims to give more insights in the relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions, and the role of forms of employment in this relationship. To reach this goal, two models are proposed: a moderation and a mediation model. Figure 1 contains the conceptual model of the moderation model, where the direct effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions is hypothesized and a moderation effect of form of employment. A negative direct effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions is proposed in hypothesis 3. In addition, the moderation effect of forms of employment on the relation between organizational commitment and turnover intentions is represented in hypothesis 4.

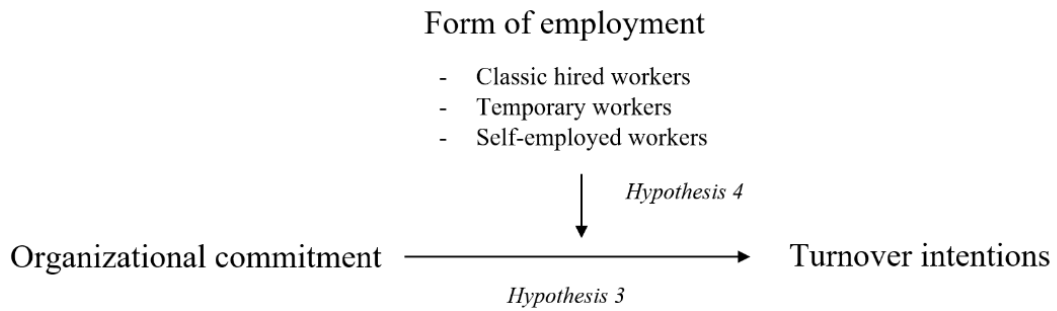


Figure 2.1: Conceptual model of direct and moderation effect.

Figure 2 entails the conceptual model the mediation model, including direct effects and a mediation effect. The first two hypotheses will entail the direct effects of the forms of employment to organizational commitment. The third hypothesis contains the negative effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. In addition, hypothesis 5 considers the mediation effect of the model. When the data will show a full mediation, the direct effect of forms of employment on turnover intentions will disappear. The effect of working in one of the forms of employment will then have an effect on turnover intentions, through their organizational commitment.

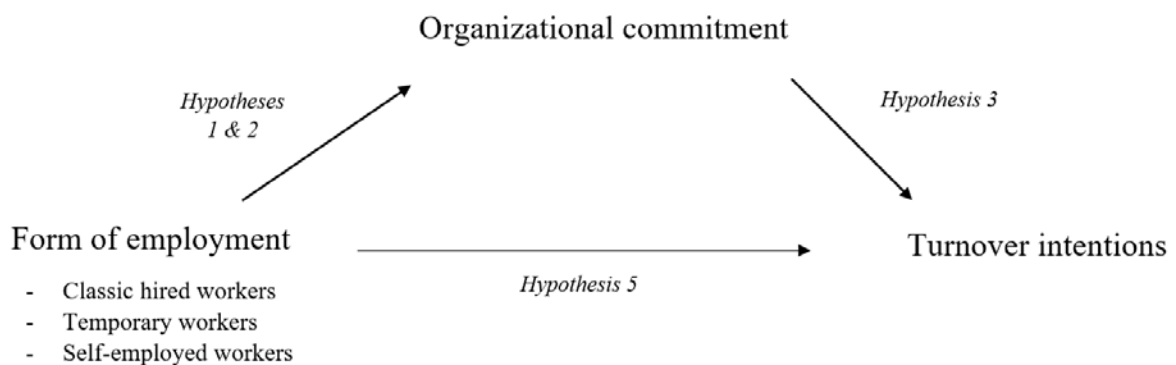


Figure 2.2: Conceptual model of direct effects and mediation effect.

3. Research Methodology

This chapter contains the research methodology of this thesis. First, the positivistic epistemology of this thesis is outlined. Based on the positivistic approach, the deductive research approach is chosen with a survey study as method. In the second part the sample of the study will be described. In part 3.3 the variables of this study will be outlined, accompanied with the measurement instruments used to measure the concepts. Furthermore, the control variables will be explained and this chapter will be concluded with the ethical considerations of this thesis.

3.1 Research approach, methodology and design

This chapter will outline the epistemology, ontology, research approach and methodology of this study. Epistemology considers the relationship between theory and reality (Healy & Perry, 2000) and is concerned with how to know what is the real reality and what is real knowledge (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2013; Duberley, Johnson & Cassel, 2012). The epistemology, ontology, research approach and methods used, should be aligned. Table 3.1 provides an overview of different positions possible in epistemology, ontology and methodology.

Table 3.1 Overview of positions of ontology, epistemology, research approach and methodology.

	Positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology	Naïve realism – “real” reality but apprehandable	Historical realism – virtual reality shaped by values; crystallized over time	Relativism – local and specific constructed realities
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; findings are true	Transactional/subjectivist; value mediated findings	Transactional/subjectivist; created findings
Research approach	Deductive approach	Often inductive approach	Often inductive approach
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods	Dialogic/dialectical	Hermeneutical/dialectical

Adapted from Guba & Lincoln (1994: 109) and based on Ritchie et al. (2013).

Therefore, this study follows a positivistic epistemology. Positivism basically entails that the study can measure facts about reality in an objective way, since the researcher is independent and neutral, and the data of the study is not influenced by the researcher (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Healy & Perry, 2000; Ritchie et al., 2013).

Ontology concerns the nature of reality and whether human interpretations can be independent from the reality (Ritchie et al., 2013). One position in ontology is realism, which sees the world as objective composition of objects, which can be objectively and independently observed by the researcher (Ritchie et al., 2013; Healy & Perry, 2000). A realist ontology and a positivistic epistemology are consistent, since they both see the reality in a way that can be objectively observed.

The existing research approaches can be distinguished between inductive versus deductive. With an inductive approach, the observer seeks to build theory out of the observations (Ritchie et al., 2013). Exploratory studies often have an inductive approach (Kenealy, 2012). A deductive research approach is used to test hypotheses, derived from theory (Ritchie et al., 2013). This kind of research is often focused on verification of theories (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This study will have a deductive research approach, since a lot of theory about the concepts of this study exist and this will be tested with hypotheses.

This study will make use of a quantitative research method. A quantitative research is best suited, since this kind of research is used to test hypotheses based on theory, in order to confirm or reject the hypotheses (Newman & Benz, 1998). The choice for a quantitative study is in line with the positivistic epistemology and ontology, and with the deductive research approach.

This study will be focused on the individual level of the concepts. The relation between commitment attitudes and turnover behaviour will be individually analysed, in order to examine the differences between de forms of employment. In both commitment and turnover studies, these concepts are normally measured at an individual level (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Rousseau, 1989, Morrell et al., 2004), since it is the individual commitment to the organization and the individual intention to leave the organization.

The instrument that will be used for this study and which fits the choices of this study, is a survey (Healy & Perry, 2000). A survey is well suited to reveal relationships between variables and it is looking for correlations (Bryman & Cramer, 2002). This survey included measures of the concepts of this study. For organizational commitment and turnover intentions, valid and reliable measurements exist (Klein et al., 2014; Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro, 1984), which will be elaborated in part 3.3. The survey will be cross-sectional, which means that respondents will fill in the survey ones and at the same point in time.

3.2 Sample and procedure

In line with the chosen epistemology and ontology, this study will be a quantitative research including a survey method. This survey will be targeted at the working population in The Netherlands. For this study, eight bachelor students and six master students have collaborated to collect the data for this study, under supervision of Dr. Yvonne van Rossenberg and Dr. Michiel van Berkel. Data was collected in The Netherlands and Flanders and this data will be merged with the international research project of Prof. Howard Klein (Ohio State University) regarding the cross-cultural equivalence study on workplace commitment. The aim of this international cohort is to study the cross-cultural and cross-language equivalence of the Klein Unitary Target (KUT) measure of workplace commitment.

In April and May 2018 the data has been collected, using Qualtrics software. The bachelor and master students collected the data, by sending out an anonymous survey link to the survey to their personal social network, also called convenience sampling. The participants of the survey are chosen by

the researchers, because they are easy to access, due to close proximity to the researcher (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). Obviously, the disadvantage of this method of sampling is that the sample is likely to be biased. (Etikan et al., 2016). Additionally, Facebook and LinkedIn are used to distribute the survey. Furthermore, through a snowball sampling strategy, more respondents got access the anonymous link of the survey. The aim of the sample was a diverse set of workers in The Netherlands, with different types of contracts and originating from a variety of organizations and industries.

The data collected with the survey was merged into Dataset Workplace Commitment 2018. Part of the dataset was removed, since this was not needed in this research. The procedure of removal contained the following steps. First, all respondents which did not have one of the forms of employment studied in this thesis, were removed. In addition, all the respondents which had missing values on the key variables of this study, organizational commitment and turnover intentions, were taken out of the dataset. These were removed, because the concepts of the study have not been measured appropriately.

Due to missing data, mainly because the respondents stopped with the survey, or because respondents did not belong to the categories of this thesis, the final sample counts 778 respondents. Of this sample 74 respondents (9,5%) work as a temporary agency worker. This sample is not representative of the Dutch working population, since in 2017 8,5% workers worked as temporary agency workers (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2017). The sample consists of 64 self-employed workers (8,2%), which is not representative of the Dutch working population, since in 2017 12,9% workers was self-employed (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2018). The sample is not representative, $\chi^2(778, 3) = 14,944$, $p < .30$. Although the sample is not representative through a χ^2 test, Table 3.2 provides information on the size of the population and the sample, and shows that the sample is a fair representation of the population.

Table 3.2 Population and sample.

<i>Type of employment</i>	<i>Population (x 1.000)</i>	<i>% of population</i>	<i>Sample</i>	<i>% of sample</i>
Directly hired workers	6.435	78,4	640	82,3
Temporary agency workers	719	8,7	74	9,5
Self-employed workers	1.055	12,9	64	8,2
Total/average	8579	100	778	100

The first question in the survey asked the form of employment of the respondent. Dependent on their answer, the respondents' questions were specified to their form of employment. Using this approach, all the respondents answered the same questions, and the possibility to specify the question to the form of employment emerged.

3.3 Measurement instruments and variables

This study will contain three variables. Since both a mediation and a moderation effect will be tested, the independent variable changes. In the mediation model, the employment forms will be the independent variable, turnover intentions the dependent variable, and organizational commitment will be the mediation variable. In the moderation model, organizational commitment is the independent variable and forms of employment will be the moderator variable. These concepts will be measured with existing measurement scales.

3.3.1 Forms of employment

In the concept of forms of employment, three forms are distinguished: classic hired, temporary and self-employed workers. These forms of employment differ from each other in that they have multiple number or kind of employer organizations (Feldman, 2006). The classically hired employee has only the organization where the employee is contracted with as an employer organization. The self-employed workers have multiple organization. First, they have their own one-person-business. Second, they have at least one, but probably multiple client-organizations, for which they are working. The temporary worker has two employer-organizations. He is contracted with the employment agency organization and is actually working at the client-organization. Respondents answer the question “I work for...” with the following answering categories: “directly for an organization”, “through an employment agency”, “through a detach agency”, “as employer of my own business” or “as self-employed”. A distinction in the survey will be made between employees working for an ‘employment agency’ and ‘detach agency’. Although a distinction is made in the survey, both of these organizations operate as an employment agency and respondents of this category will be analysed together as temporary agency workers. Because the respondents of these two categories respond to questions that are specified to their specific employment form, the items had to be summed up.

Since this variable has three categories, two dummy variables were created; one for self-employed and one for temporary agency. Classically hired is chosen to be the reference category, because it is the largest group (Field, 2014). The same principle will be used, to determine the reference category for the control variables. The dummies have two categories; the category of the dummy (coded by one) and the other employment forms (coded by zero).

3.3.2 Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as “a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target” (Klein et al, 2012, p. 137). The concept of commitment will be targeted at the organization, because the effects of organizational commitment on turnover intentions will be measured, and the turnover intentions consider the intentions the leave the organization. So both concepts are focused on the organization. Klein et al. (2014) provided a measure consistent with their conceptualization (Klein et al., 2012): the Klein Unidimensional Target-free measure. This

measurement scale will be used, because the conceptualization behind this measure is more clear and more precise in measuring commitment, than the TCM of Meyer & Allen (1991; Klein et al., 2012; Klein et al., 2014). The KUT-measure is target-neutral developed, but it will be focused on the commitment to the organization, since the target in this study is the organization. Respondents indicate their organizational commitment by four, to Dutch translated, items (Appendix 1): “How committed are you to the organization”, “To what extent do you care about the organization”, “How dedicated are you to the organization” and “To what extent have you chosen to be committed to your organization”. These items are measured by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “by no means” (1) to “extremely” (7). These questions were translated by Dr. Yvonne van Rossenberg, in line with the translation protocol.

Additionally, the target of commitment in this study will be the organization. The target of commitment is important to distinguish, since the employees often have multiple employer organization. The employees with different forms of employment all have at least one organization, where they actually work. This is the organization where they have colleagues and where they do their assignments for. For the classical hired worker this is not relevant, since they often have one organization, thus the target of commitment will be that organization. For the temporary and self-employed worker this is important, since they have multiple employer organizations. The target of commitment will be the client-organization, for both employment forms.

Confirmatory or exploratory factor analyses are not conducted, because existing scales are used and no factors within the variable are expected. This variable was computed in SPSS by first summing up the separate questions of the different employment forms. Additionally, the mean of the four items was calculated ($M = 4.91$), because in this way the missing values are best taken into account. The convergent reliability is confirmed by a Cronbach’s alpha of .91.

3.3.3 Turnover intentions

In this study the effects of organizational commitment on turnover intentions will be measured. Turnover intentions are chosen over actual turnover, because turnover intentions are an important predictor for actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Moreover, turnover intentions are far more important for an organization than actual turnover, since they can still manage turnover intentions, which is impossible for actual turnover. The respondents have been asked to indicate their turnover intentions by four, to Dutch translated, items (Appendix 2): “I often think about quitting my job”, “I am looking for a new job”, “I am planning to leave this organization” and “If it was up to me, I would like to continue working for this organisation”. These items are based on the conceptualization of turnover of Hom et al. (1984). The four items are focused on specific withdraw attitudes and activities, identified by Mobley (1977). The items are measured by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “totally disagree” (1) to “totally agree” (7). To make sure the respondents’ turnover intentions are voluntary and not due to the temporary status of their contract, the questions for temporary employees are altered. Their question starts about turnover intentions start with “Regardless of my temporary contract, ...” and they have a fifth question: “It is due

to my temporary contract that I am searching for another job”. These questions were also translated by Dr. Yvonne van Rossenberg.

Also here, confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses are not conducted, since an already valid scale was used and no factors within this variable are expected. This variable was computed in SPSS by first summing up the separate questions of the different employment forms. Before computing the variable, item four was reverse coded. Additionally, the mean of the four items was calculated ($M = 2.94$), because in this way the missing values are best taken into account. Convergent reliability was confirmed by a Cronbach's alpha of .87.

3.4 Control variables

In this study control variables are added to the analysis to exclude alternative explanations, which will improve the internal validity of this study (Becker, 2005). Control variables give the study more context (Becker, 2005). In this study, based on the literature, the following control variables are chosen: age, gender, education level, working based on a temporary or permanent contract, working full-time or part-time, and tenure

The first three control variables are age, gender and education level. These demographic differences are often taken in consideration in literature on permanent and contingent employment (Feldman, 2006). The respondents will be asked to answer the questions about their gender, age and education level. For gender two groups will be formulated: female and male. Female employees, for example are, due to work/family issues, more likely to be voluntarily employed in contingent work forms (Albion, 2004). A dummy variable will be constructed, with women as the reference category. For age, the respondents need to fill in their birth year. Younger employees are, in comparison with older employees, more often employed in low-skilled and badly paid contingent work, which has influence on their work attitudes (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). For education, the respondents need to indicate their highest level of education, with the eight categories. These eight categories are grouped into three groups: “low education level”, “middle education level” and “high education level”. Two dummy variables will be constructed, with “high education level” as the reference category.

The last three control variables are tenure, type of contract (permanent vs temporary, and part-time vs full-time), which all are work-related variables. Tenure is a factor that encourages the development of the social exchange (De Cuyper et al., 2009; Guest, 2004). Type of contract is divided into two variables: full-time vs part-time contract, and temporary vs permanent contract. Differences between part-time and full-time could be expected, because part-timers are less often at the workplace, since they work less hours a week. This can also influence their psychological contract. Temporary versus permanent contract will be controlled for, because of the voluntariness of the turnover intentions. The questions about turnover intentions were asked in a way to make sure the turnover intentions were voluntary. But to be sure, this will also be controlled for.

3.5 Ethical considerations

For this thesis a survey link was distributed to working people in The Netherlands and Flanders. All respondents were asked to fill in the survey, which was completely anonymous. At the beginning of the survey, it was made clear for what the data would be used, namely Bachelor and Master theses, and an international academic research. Also the subject of the survey was mentioned in the introduction of the survey, to give the respondents an idea of what the survey is about.

The data of this research will be processed anonymously and confidentially. Because the survey did not contain a lot of personal questions, the researchers of the data were not able to identify the individual participants of the survey. Furthermore, participants did not have to disclose any, when they did not want to. Questions about how much they work and at which organization, could have been answered by “I would rather not provide this information”. Participants could withdraw from the survey at any time they wanted. The data of unfinished surveys has been included in the data of this study. However, a lot of the data has been removed, because of missing values and incomplete answers. The survey was not obligatory and no benefits were promised to the participants for completing the survey. All respondents were ensured of these things by an introduction part, including information for the participants. This text (in Dutch) can be found in Appendix 3.

Because the survey was distributed by Bachelor and Master students, a lot of the respondents were in the age of the students and the age of the students’ parents. Furthermore, a few of the students knew self-employed workers and we had to specifically target them to get more respondents in this category. Also to these participants no benefits were attached to their participation and they were not obliged to participate.

4. Results

In results of the analyses of this thesis will be presented in this chapter. In the first part of this chapter, the preliminary analyses, such as the descriptive statistics, assumptions analyses and Pearson correlations, will be presented and explained. In the second part, the hypotheses mentioned in chapter two will be tested with regression analyses.

4.1 Preliminary analyses

4.1.1 Descriptive statistics

A total of 814 participants responded to the survey. Of the 814 surveys, 778 (95,6%) surveys were valid. Surveys were deleted because they were not usable; they were incomplete or had too many missing values on the variables. Some of the incomplete surveys have been included, when they completed a meaningful part of the survey. A few questions on control variables were asked later in the survey, which explains why age, gender and education level have less valid observations (N). Both nominal and metric variables are included in the analyses. Nominal data is measured by categories and it only makes sense to show the frequencies, since an average for the variable ‘gender’ for example does not give usable information (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2014). Metric variables measure how respondents differ in amount of degree on the variable (Hair et al., 2014). An average is an appropriate measure. Table 4.1 gives an overview of all variables included in this study, and some descriptive statistics. In Table 4.2 and 4.3 these descriptive statistics will be further elaborated, by reporting the frequencies of each variable for the forms of employment.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics (Mean, S.D., Skewness and Kurtosis).

No	Variable	Scale	Measurement level	N	Mean or %	S.D.	Skewness			Kurtosis		
							Estimate	S.E.	Zscore	Estimate	S.E.	Zscore
1.	Organizational commitment	Likert 1-7	Ordinal	778	4.91	0.92	-.607	.088	-5.153	1.646	.175	9.406
1a.	- Classically hired	2 categories	Nominal	778	4.94	0.86	-.538	.097	-5.546	1.777	.193	9.207
1b.	- Temporary agency	2 categories	Nominal	778	4.39	1.12	-.701	.279	-2.513	.558	.552	1.065
1c.	- Self-employed	2 categories	Nominal	778	5.11	1.01	-.242	.299	-0.809	.267	.590	.0453
2.	Turnover intentions	Likert 1-7	Ordinal	778	2.94	1.49	.680	.088	8.537	-.422	.175	-2.411
2a.	- Classically hired	2 categories	Nominal	778	2.91	1.50	.715	.097	7.370	-.378	.193	-1.959
2b.	- Temporary agency	2 categories	Nominal	778	3.42	1.56	.338	.279	1.391	-.833	.552	-1.509
2c.	- Self-employed	2 categories	Nominal	778	2.75	1.23	.640	.299	2.141	-.341	.590	-.5780
3.	Classically hired (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	778	82%	0.38	-1.692	.088	-19.227	.867	.175	4.954
4.	Temporary agency (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	778	10%	0.29	2.766	.088	31.432	5.663	.175	32.360
5.	Self-employed (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	778	8%	0.28	3.047	.088	34.625	7.300	.175	41.714
<i>Control variables</i>												
3.	Age	17-77 years	Ratio	706	34.86	14.45	.605	.093	6.505	-1.223	.186	-6.575
4.	Men (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	708	37%	0.48	.546	.092	5.935	-1.707	.183	-9.328
5.	Women (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	708	63%	0.49	-.546	.092	-5.935	-1.707	.183	-9.328
6.	Low education level (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	738	4%	0.18	5.052	.090	56.133	23.589	.180	
7.	Middle education level (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	738	26%	0.44	1.088	.090	12.089	-.819	.180	-4.550
8.	High education level (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	738	70%	0.46	-.892	.090	-9.911	-1.208	.180	-6.711
9.	Permanent contract (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	774	51%	0.50	-.052	.088	-0.59	-2.002	.176	-11.375
10.	Temporary contract (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	774	49%	0.50	.052	.088	0.59	-2.002	.176	-11.375
11.	Full-time (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	778	56%	0.49	.318	.088	3.614	-1.904	.175	-10.880
12.	Part-time (dummy)	2 categories	Nominal	778	44%	0.47	.711	.088	8.08	-1.499	.175	-8.566
13.	Tenure	0-650 months	Ratio	773	77.91	107.72	2.024	.088	23.000	3.631	.176	20.631

Table 4.2 shows the demographic frequencies of this study sample, and are given for each form of employment. A clear difference between the forms of employment is that 78,7% of the temporary agency workers are between 20-29 years old, while this is only 49,3% of the classically hired employees. Self-employed workers are shown to be more distributed among the age groups. To test if these two variables are significantly associated, a Chi-square test is conducted, which shows that these variables are indeed associated, $\chi^2(778, 10) = 40.612, p < .001$. Both classically hired employees and temporary agency workers are often women, whereas self-employed workers are more often men. Also this variables seems to be associated with forms of employment, $\chi^2(708, 2) = 17.611, p < .001$. A chi-square test does not show significantly different distributions in education levels among the forms of employment, $\chi^2(738, 4) = 5.775, p = .217$. However, notable it that for all forms of employment, high education is by far the biggest group.

Table 4.2 Frequencies demographic variables.

Forms of employment		Classically hired		Temporary agency		Self-employed	
Demographic variables		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Age	< 20 years	21	3,7	4	6,6	0	0
	20 – 29 years	281	49,3	48	78,7	20	32,8
	30 – 39 years	59	10,4	4	6,6	11	18,0
	40 – 49 years	59	10,4	2	3,3	8	13,1
	50 – 59 years	120	21,1	3	4,9	16	26,2
	60 – 69 years	30	5,3	0	0	5	8,2
	Total valid answers	570	-	61	-	61	-
Gender	Men	201	34,2	23	37,7	37	61,6
	Women	386	65,8	38	62,3	23	38,3
	Total valid answers	587	-	61	-	60	-
Education level	Low education	21	3,4	1	1,5	4	6,6
	Middle education	167	27,4	16	23,9	10	16,4
	High education	422	69,1	50	74,6	47	77,0
	Total valid answers	610	-	67	-	61	-

Freq. = frequency, *%* = percent.

Table 4.3 presents the frequencies of the work-related variables, for each form of employment. Temporary vs permanent ($\chi^2(774, 2) = 108.407, p < .001$), full-time vs part-time ($\chi^2(587, 2) = 7,348, p < .05$) and tenure ($\chi^2(778, 10) = 59.226, p < .001$) seems to be associated with the forms of employment. Classically hired employees have more often a permanent contract than temporary of self-employed workers. All three forms of employment work more often full-time than part-time. However, for temporary agency and self-employed workers the percentage of full-timers is higher than for classically hired employees. Temporary agency and self-employed workers do not often have a tenure longer than 10 years, and almost all have tenure of less than two years. Classically hired employees have more often a tenure longer than 10 years, and most of the classically hired employees work between 1 and 10 years at an organization.

Table 4.3 Frequencies work-related variables.

Forms of employment		Classically hired		Temporary agency		Self-employed	
Demographic variables		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Contract type	Permanent	383	59,8	9	12,2	5	8,3
	Temporary	257	40,2	65	87,8	55	91,7
	Total valid answers	640	-	74	-	60	-
Contract type	Full-time	268	53,6	23	65,7	37	71,2
	Part-time	232	46,4	12	34,3	15	28,8
	Total valid answers	500	-	35	-	52	-
Tenure	< 1 year	162	25,3	43	58,0	30	46,9
	2 - 10 years	326	50,9	29	39,2	31	48,4
	11 - 20 years	77	12,03	1	1,4	3	4,7
	21 - 30 years	47	7,3	-	-	-	-
	31 - 40 years	26	4,1	-	-	-	-
	> 40 years	2	0,3	1	1,4	-	-
	Total valid answers	640	-	74	-	64	-

Freq. = frequency, % = percent.

4.1.2 Tests for outliers

The data is tested for outliers. The tests do not show outliers for the variable ‘organizational commitment’. The variable ‘turnover intentions’ does show some outliers. After checking for atypical and exceptional values, no respondents were deleted.

4.1.3 Test for normality, multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity

The variables are checked for the assumptions of the regression analysis. The first assumption is the normal distribution of the data (Appendix 4). The data is checked for each variable and for each form of employment with a normality test. A Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that for classically hired employees ($p < .001$), temporary agency workers ($p = .008$) and self-employed workers ($p = .015$), the data regarding organizational commitment was significantly not distributed normally. The data is organizational commitment is skewed to the left skewed, which means that there are more higher values on organizational commitment.

For turnover intentions, a Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that for classically hired employees ($p < .001$), temporary agency workers ($p < .01$) and self-employed workers ($p < .01$), the data was significantly not distributed normally. This data was right skewed, which means that the respondents had more low values on turnover intentions.

The variables were also checked for multicollinearity. Multicollinearity appears when two independent variables correlate with each other. Multicollinearity is tested by a variance inflation factor (VIF) and a Tolerance value, where the VIF value is one divided by the tolerance value. The Tolerance value indicated the unique amount of variability of the independent variable. At a VIF value of 10 and a tolerance value of 0, the variables are completely inter-correlated. The VIF values of the variables in the analysis should not exceed a level of 5 and the tolerance value should be lower than .20 (Hair et al., 2014). When multicollinearity does occur, the ability to predict the relative roles of the different independent variables decreased (Hair et al., 2014). In this case this study, the highest VIF value are

2.261 (age), 2.098 (tenure) and 2.021 (self-employed dummy), so there were no problems with the multicollinearity (Appendix 5).

The assumption of the independence of the error term is also checked, by checking if the mean of standardized predicted value is 0 and the standard deviation is 1, in the 'residuals table' (Field, 2014) and by checking the value given by the Durban Watson test, which should be between 1 and 3. This was checked for all analyses. For organizational commitment as independent variable, Durban Watson test reports 1,964 and for turnover intentions as independent variable, Durban Watson test reports 1,954. Both values are within the norm, so the assumption of the independence of the error term is met.

The last assumption of the regression analysis is a constant variance of the residuals or in other words heteroscedasticity or homoscedasticity. This was checked by looking at a plot of the residuals and the predicted values of the dependent variable (Appendix 6). The residuals were scattered and did not form a pattern of increasing or decreasing residuals, which means that the variance of the residuals is constant and homoscedasticity (Hair et al., 2014).

4.1.4 Psychometric analyses of the variables

A factor analysis was not conducted in this study, since for the variables 'organizational commitment' and 'turnover intentions' already existing measurements were used and no factors within the variable were expected. A reliability analysis was used to test the internal consistency of the measurements. A Cronbach's alpha value shows whether the measurement or scale is internal consistent, and this value should be higher than .70. The measurements of 'organizational commitment' ($\alpha = .91$) and 'turnover intentions' ($\alpha = .87$) were both internal consistent and had acceptable values of Cronbach's alpha.

4.1.5 Means, standard deviations and correlations

Table 4.4 reports the means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations amongst the metric of this study, including the metric control variables. These outcomes are also presented for the forms of employment separately. Two variables that are interesting to look further into are 'organizational commitment' and 'turnover intentions', which both have valid answers on all the included surveys. Since classically hired employees are by far the largest group of employment forms, the average of turnover intentions does not give a meaningful presentation of the data, because it is severely influenced by the values of the classically employed workers. Therefore, the different means for the three forms of employment are also presented in Table 4.4. The respondents score overall high on organizational commitment, with an average value of 4.91 (S.D. = 0.92). An ANOVA test shows that the organizational commitment of the three forms of employment significantly differ from each other, $F(2, 775) = 14,811$, $p < .001$. A Scheffe post hoc test revealed that organizational commitment was significantly higher for classically hired employees ($M = 4.94$, $p < .001$) and self-employed workers ($M = 5.11$, $p < .001$) compared to the temporary agency workers ($M = 4.39$). No significant difference was found between the classically hired employees and the self-employed workers ($p = .373$).

The mean of turnover intentions ($M = 2.94$, $S.D. = 1.49$) is also not representative for the different employment forms. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test shows the significant differences in turnover intentions of the different employment forms, $F(2, 775) = 4,452$, $p < .05$. Differences between the groups can be explained by a Scheffe post hoc test, which indicate that classically hired employees ($M = 2.91$, $p < .05$) and self-employed workers ($M = 2.75$, $p < .05$) have lower turnover intentions, compared to temporary agency workers ($M = 3.42$). Between classically hired employees and self-employed workers, no difference was found ($p = .737$)

The Pearson's correlation coefficient indicates the strength of the relationship between two variables. For the total sample, all variables are significant. Turnover intentions ($r = -.449$, $p < .01$) has a negative relationship with organizational commitment. Age correlates positively with organizational commitment ($r = .212$, $p < .01$) and negatively with turnover intentions ($r = -.223$, $p < .01$). Tenure correlates positively with organizational commitment ($r = .174$, $p < .01$) and negatively with turnover intentions ($r = -.160$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, tenure and age are positively related ($r = .644$, $p < .01$).

When the three forms of employment are compared, more insights can be given in the data. For all three forms of employment, organizational commitment is negatively related to turnover intentions. However, this relationship seems to be stronger for classically hired employees ($r = -.450$, $p < .01$) and self-employed workers ($r = -.453$, $p < .01$) than for temporary agency ($r = -.380$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, for classically hired employees, all variables are correlated, whereas for temporary agency and self-employed workers only organizational commitment and turnover intentions are negatively related. For classically hired employees, age correlates positively with organizational commitment ($r = .186$, $p < .01$) and negatively with turnover intentions ($r = -.234$, $p < .01$). Tenure correlates positively with organizational commitment ($r = .187$, $p < .01$) and negatively with turnover intentions ($r = -.166$, $p < .01$).

Table 4.4 Means, S.D. and Pearson correlations

No	Variable	Mean	S.D	N	1.	2.	3.	4.
<i>Total</i>								
1.	Organizational commitment	4.91	.915	778	-			
2.	Turnover intentions	2.94	1.493	778	-.449	***	-	
3.	Age	34.86	14.445	706	.212	***	-.223	***
4.	Tenure	77.91	107.719	773	.174	***	-.160	***
<i>Classically hired</i>								
1.	Organizational commitment	4.95	.858	640	-			
2.	Turnover intentions	2.91	1.501	640	-.450	***	-	
3.	Age	35.23	14.583	570	.186	***	-.234	***
4.	Tenure	87.96	112.610	640	.187	***	-.166	***
<i>Temporary agency</i>								
1.	Organizational commitment	4.39	1.121	74	-			
2.	Turnover intentions	3.42	1.564	74	-.380	**	-	
3.	Age	25.69	7.997	61	.140		.047	-
4.	Tenure	25.19	72.587	74	-.057		.026	-.009
<i>Self-employed</i>								
1.	Organizational commitment	5.11	1.006	64	-			
2.	Turnover intentions	2.75	1.230	64	-.453	***	-	
3.	Age	40.67	14.198	60	.188		-.144	-
4.	Tenure	35.10	39.743	59	.166		-.207	-.331 *

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

4.2 Hypothesis testing

The hypotheses will be tested by regression analyses. Three analyses will be conducted; analysis of the direct effects, analysis of the moderation effects and analysis of the mediation effects.

4.2.1 Direct effects

The direct effects of the forms of employment on organizational commitment and of organizational commitment on turnover intentions will be tested in this section. These direct effects are hypothesized in hypotheses one to three, where the first two hypotheses contain the effects of the forms of employment on organizational commitment and the third, the effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. The first two hypotheses will be tested by a multiple regression, where two dummies of forms of employment will be included. Model 1 of this regression analysis will test the effects of the control variables. Model 2 adds the dummy variables of forms of employment (temporary employment and self-employed) and the main effect of organizational commitment. To further clarify the differences between organizational commitments of the different employment forms, the Pearson correlations and descriptive statistics will be analysed. The third hypothesis will be tested with a regression analysis.

Hypothesis 1 proposes organizational commitment to be higher for classically hired employees than for temporary agency workers. Hypothesis 2 proposes organizational commitment to be higher for classically hired employees than for self-employed workers.

The ANOVA tests in 4.1.1 showed that temporary agency workers ($M = 4.39$) have significantly lower organizational commitment than classically hired employees ($M = 4.94$, $p < .001$) and self-

employed workers ($M = 5.11, p < .001$). No significant differences appeared between classically hired employees and self-employed workers. This seems to indicate that hypothesis 1 is confirmed, and hypothesis 2 rejected. However, a more nuanced image will be shown with regression analyses, which includes several control variables.

The regression results for the forms of employment, with organizational commitment as the dependent variable, are summarized in Table 4.5. The overall effect of the control variables in Model 1 can be determined, by looking at the R^2 value. The R^2 value is the coefficient of determination, which indicates the explained variance of the dependent variable by the variables included in the model. The adjusted R^2 is used in these analyses, because it takes into account the number of included variables (Hair et al., 2014). Model 1, including the control variables, was significant ($R^2 = .077, p < .001$). Model 2, adding temporary agency and self-employed dummy, significantly increased the exploratory power of the model ($\Delta R^2 = .016, p < .01$).

To evaluate the relationships within the model, the unstandardized regression coefficients will be used (B), since the independent variable is already standardized before the analysis. Negative relationships are found between middle education ($B = -.220, p < .01$) and organizational commitment, and between temporary contract ($B = -.299, p < .001$) and organizational commitment. Furthermore, hypothesis 1 is confirmed, with temporary agency having a significant negative effect on organizational commitment ($B = -.284, p < .05$). The positive effect of the self-employment on organizational commitment is also significant ($B = .334, p < .05$), rejecting hypothesis 2.

The control variables education level and type of contract (temporary vs permanent) have significant negative effects on organizational commitment. Because of these effects, there is checked if the effects of forms of employment on organizational commitment stay significant, when these control variables are separately excluded. The exclusion of education level did not cause any changes, whereas the exclusion of temporary contract did. When the same analysis was conducted without the control variable 'temporary contract', the b-value of dummy self-employed decreased from $.334, p < .05$ to $.163, p = .20$). This means that the dummy variable 'temporary contract' is a suppressor, which means that, when excluded, the negative effect of this variable on organizational commitment influences the positive effect of self-employed dummy on organizational commitment. If temporary contract is added to the analyses, the true effect of self-employed appears to be significant. This suppressor effect could be caused by the distribution of the sample, in specific the fact that 92% of the self-employed workers have a temporary contract (Table 4.3). Since temporary contract is just a control variable, the model including this variable is used, still concluding hypothesis 2 to be rejected

Table 4.5 Regression coefficients control variables and main effects

Model	Variable	Dummy	Organizational commitment		Turnover intentions		
			1	2	1	2	
1. Control variables	Age		.095 *	.051	-.209 *	-.140	
	Gender	Men	.092	.065	-.327 **	-.260 *	
	Level of Education	Low educated		-.138	-.164	-.416	-.517
		Middle educated		-.220 **	-.206 **	-.273 *	-.434 ***
	Contract type	Temporary contract		-.299 ***	-.338 ***	.033	-.186
		Part-time contract		.107	.100	-.001	.077
	Tenure			.043	.060	-.089	-.057
2. Main effects	Forms of employment	Temporary agency			-.284 *		
	Forms of employment	Self-employed			.334 *		
	Organizational commitment					-.670 ***	
ΔR^2			.077 ***	.016 **	.058 ***	.170 ***	
Adjusted R ²			.077	.093	.058	.228	
F-value			8.96 ***	8.63 **	6.89 ***	25.80 ***	

Regression coefficients are reported for the respective regression models, including control variables (model 1), and control variables, forms of employment and organizational commitment (model 2). $N = 778$. * Regression effect is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Regression effect is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *** Regression effect is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 3 proposes organizational commitment to have a negative effect on turnover intentions. Table 4.4 reports a strong correlation between organizational commitment and turnover intentions ($r = -.449$, $p < .01$). This is in line with the expectations. The regression results for organizational commitment, with turnover intentions as the dependent variable, are summarized in Table 4.5. Model 1, including the control variables explains a significant portion of variance of turnover intentions ($R^2 = .058$, $p < .001$). The addition of organizational commitment in Model 2 significantly increased the exploratory power of the model ($\Delta R^2 = .170$, $p < .001$). Negative relationships between turnover intentions and men ($B = -.260$, $p < .05$), and middle education level ($B = -.434$, $p < .001$) are found. Furthermore, hypothesis 3 is confirmed, with organizational commitment having a significant negative effect on turnover intentions ($B = -.670$, $p < .001$).

4.2.2 Moderation effects

The analyses of the direct effects showed the negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Hypothesis 4 extends the content of this relationship by adding a moderating variable of forms of employment, and proposing that the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions is stronger for classically hired employees than it is for the contingent workers. This moderation model was tested with a multiple regression analysis. In this analysis, Model 1 contains the control variables, Model 2 the main effect of the dummy variables of forms of employment (temporary employment and self-employed) and the main effect of organizational commitment, Model 3 the interaction effect of temporary employment and organizational commitment, and the interaction effect of self-employed and organizational commitment.

The regression results for the moderation model are reported below, in Table 4.6. As already mentioned in the last paragraph, Model 1, including the control variables, seems to be significant ($R^2 = .058$, $p < .001$). Adding the main effects of forms of employment and organizational commitment, significantly increases the explanatory power of the model ($\Delta R^2 = .170$, $p < .001$). However, addition of the interaction variables in Model 3 does not show an increase in explained variance.

Table 4.6 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients of the moderation model. Regarding the control variables, age ($B = -.159$, $p < .05$), gender ($B = -.272$, $p < .05$), low education ($B = .529$, $p < .05$) and middle education level ($B = -.429$, $p < .01$) can be found significantly negatively related to turnover intentions. The main effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions seems to stay significant ($B = .806$, $p < .001$) after adding the interaction variables to the analysis. Based on this results, hypothesis four should be rejected, due to the fact that the interaction between organizational commitment and temporary agency ($B = .230$, $p = .18$), and the interaction between organizational commitment and self-employed ($B = .275$, $p = .16$), are not significant.

Table 4.6 Regression coefficients control variables, main effects and interaction effects

Model	Variable	Dummy	Turnover intentions			
			1	2	3	
1. Control variables	Age		-.209 *	-.159 *	-.169 *	
	Gender	Men	-.327 **	-.272 *	-.257 *	
	Level of Education	Low educated		-.416	-.529 *	-.525
		Middle educated		-.273 *	-.429 **	-.445 ***
	Contract type	Temporary contract		.033	.218	-.253
		Part-time contract		-.001	-.080	.081
	Tenure			-.089	-.047	-.038
2. Main effects	Forms of employment	Temporary agency		-.033	.051	
	Forms of employment	Self-employed		.172	.141	
	Organizational commitment			-.676 **	-.806 ***	
3. Interactions	Organizational commitment *	temporary agency			.230	
	Organizational commitment *	self-employed			.275	
ΔR^2			.058 ***	.170 ***	.002	
Adjusted R^2			.058	.226	.228	
F-value			6.89 ***	20.68 ***	17.54	

Regression coefficients are reported for the respective regression models, including control variables (model 1), control variables and forms of employment (model 2), and control variables, forms of employment and organizational commitment (model 3). $N = 778$. * Regression effect is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Regression effect is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *** Regression effect is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The results of the interaction effects are presented below in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2. Although the interaction effect did not have a significant effect on turnover intentions, it might be interesting to see a visual representation of the relationships. Figure 4.1 shows the relationship between organizational

commitment and turnover intentions, with temporary agency as a moderator. When employees are directly hired by an organization, their turnover intentions are significantly affected by their organizational commitment. The turnover intentions of employees working through a temporary agency are slightly less negatively affected by their organizational commitment. However, this effect is not big enough to be significant.

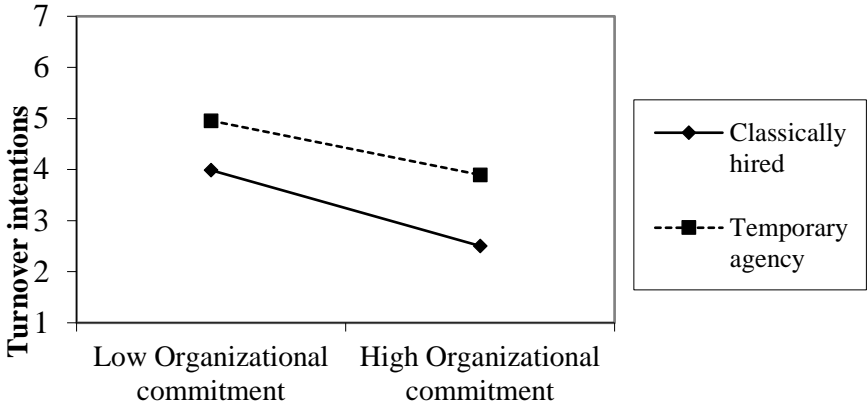


Figure 4.1 Graph showing the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions with temporary agency as a dummy moderator variable.

Figure 4.2 shows the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, with self-employed as a moderator. For directly hired employees and self-employed workers, turnover intentions are shown to be affected by organizational commitment. For both forms of employment, a negative relationship appears, meaning that when they have higher organizational commitment, they will be less likely to have turnover intentions. These relationship seems to differ slightly for directly and self-employed, in that the effect is a bit stronger for classically hired employees than it is for self-employed workers. However, this effect is not big enough to be significant.

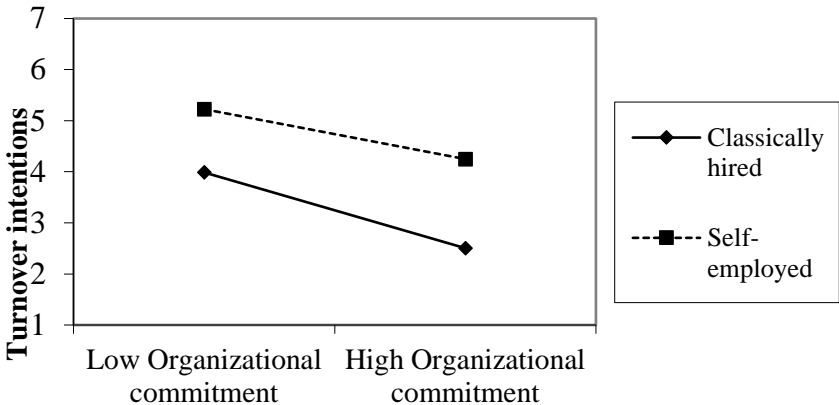


Figure 4.2 Graph showing the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions with self-employed as a dummy moderator variable.

These graphs confirm that for the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, the strength of this relationship does not significantly differ for classically hired employees and contingent workers. Hereby, hypothesis four is rejected.

Although the analysis above shows that the significant negative relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions does not differ in strength for the three forms of employment, additional analyses have been conducted to get insight in the relationship for the three forms of employment. The relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions is analysed for each form of employment and the results are presented in Table 4.7. In line with the expectations, the relationship is the strongest for classically hired employees ($B = -.732, p < .001$), followed by self-employed workers ($B = -.636, p < .001$). Temporary agency workers have the weakest, but still significant, negative relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions ($B = -.542, p < .01$). As mentioned, Table 4.7 only gives more insight in the differences between the forms of employment; they still do not significantly differ.

Table 4.7 Regression coefficients of main effect for the three forms of employment

Model	Variable	Dummy	Turnover intentions					
			1. Classically hired		2. Temporary agency		3. Self-employed	
			B	B	B	B	B	B
1. Control variables	Age		-.196 *	-.198 *	.268	.532	-.116	-.061
	Gender	Men	-.415 **	-.308 *	.325	-.010	-.189	-.366
	Level of Education	Low educated	-.667 *	-.773 *	-.182	-.180	1.095	.955
		Middle educated	-.312 *	-.507 ***	-1.299	-1.262	.017	.464
	Contract type	Temporary contract	.128	-.217	-.464	-.253	.047	.509
		Part-time contract	-.047	.037	-.421	-.634	.410	.770 *
Tenure		-.053	.004			-.607	-.289	
2. Main effects	Organizational commitment			-.732 ***		-.542 **		-.636 ***
ΔR^2			.073 ***	.246 ***	-.012	.136	-.009	.244 **
Adjusted R^2			.073		-.012	.148	-.009	.253
F-value			7.30 ***	23.75 ***	.89	2.26 *	.930	3.22 **

Regression coefficients are reported for the respective regression models, including control variables (model 1), and control variables and organizational commitment (model 2). $N = 778$. * Regression effect is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Regression effect is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *** Regression effect is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

4.2.3 Mediation effects

The direct effects showed significant effects of forms of employment on organizational commitment and a significant effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. It would be interesting to see if these relations together form a mediation model. Hypothesis 5 proposed this mediation model for the three different forms of employment. Because dummies are used for the nominal variable ‘forms of employment’, a complete mediation model including all three employment forms, was not possible. Therefore, relative indirect effects will be tested, thus the indirect effect of the dummy variable (temporary agency or self-employed) relative to the reference category (directly hired). The mediation

model was tested with a multiple regression and a Sobel test (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Sobel, 1982) is used to test if organizational commitment mediates the relationship between the forms of employment and turnover intentions. The “causal steps approach” is used to describe the mediation process (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

According to the causal steps approach, mediation occurs when the independent variable (i.c. forms of employment) significantly affects the dependent variable (i.c. turnover intentions) and the mediator (i.c. organizational commitment) and the mediator (i.c. organizational commitment) significantly affects the dependent variable (i.c. turnover intentions). In the last step, the effect of the mediator (organizational commitment) on the dependent variable (i.c. turnover intentions), controlled for the independent variable (forms of employment) will be tested. Then, the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, after controlling for the mediator, will be compared with the total effect of the independent variable. When the direct effect is closer to zero and became non-significant, a full mediation can be concluded. If the direct effect is still significant, it is called a partial mediation.

In this analysis, Model 1 contains the control variables, Model 2 the main effect of all three dummy variables of forms of employment (temporary employment and self-employed), and Model 3 adds the variable of organizational commitment to test the mediation model. The regression results of the mediation model are reported in Table 4.8. As mentioned in part 4.2.1, Model 1 including the control variables is significant for turnover intentions ($R^2 = .058, p < .001$) as dependent variable and for organizational commitment ($R^2 = .077, p < .001$) as dependent variable. For organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .170, p < .001$) as dependent variable and turnover intentions ($\Delta R^2 = .016, p < .01$) as dependent variable, the last model significantly increases the exploratory power of the model.

Before checking the mediation with the Sobel test, the steps of the “causal steps approach” are checked (Table 4.8). The dummy temporary agency of forms of employment has a significant negative effect on organizational commitment ($B = -.284, p < .05$) and self-employed has a significant positive effect on organizational commitment ($B = .334, p < .05$). Organizational commitment has a significant negative effect on turnover intentions ($B = -.670, p < .001$, Table 4.5), which slightly increases when the dummies of forms of employment are added to the model ($B = -.676, p < .001$, Table 4.8). Temporary agency dummy ($B = .177, p = .40$) and self-employed dummy ($B = -.074, p = .75$) do not have a significant effect on turnover intentions. Although the “causal steps approach” assumes forms of employment to be significantly related to turnover intentions, this is not the case. A mediation model can still be tested, since theory does not agree that this direct effect is needed to test a mediator (Hayes, 2009; Mathieu & Taylor, 2006).

Table 4.8 Regression coefficients of control variables, main effects and mediation effects

Model	Variable	Dummy	Turnover intentions			Organizational commitment	
			1	2	3	1	2
1. Control variables	Age		-.209 *	-.197 *	-.159 *	.095 *	.051
	Gender	Men	-.327 **	-.320 *	-.272 *	.092	.065
	Level of Education	Low educated	-.416	-.407	-.529 *	-.138	-.164
		Middle educated	-.273 *	-.277 *	-.429 **	-.220 **	-.206 **
	Contract type	Temporary contract	.033	.032	.218	-.299 ***	-.338 ***
		Part-time contract	-.001	-.006	-.080	.107	.100
	Tenure		-.089	-.091	-.047	.043	.060
2. Main effects	Forms of employment	Temporary agency		.177	-.033		-.284 *
	Forms of employment	Self-employed		-.074	.172		.334 *
3. Mediation effect	Organizational commitment				-.676 **		
ΔR^2			.058 ***	-.002	.170 ***	.077 ***	.016 **
Adjusted R ²			.058	.056	.226	.077	.093
F-value			6.89 ***	5.45 ***	20.68 ***	8.96 ***	7.94 ***

Regression coefficients are reported for the respective regression models, including control variables (model 1), control variables and forms of employment (model 2), and control variables, forms of employment and organizational commitment (model 3). N = 778. * Regression effect is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Regression effect is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *** Regression effect is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

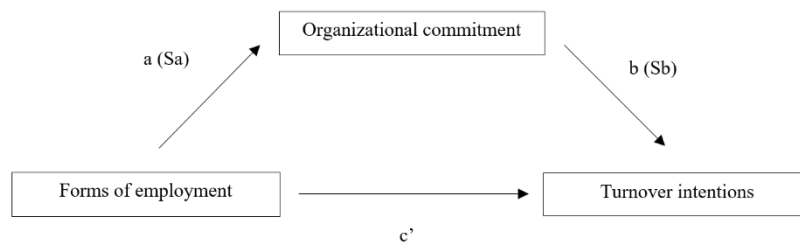


Figure 4.3: Mediation model (Sobel).

A few values are needed to conduct a Sobel test: the unstandardized regression coefficients and standard error of the relationships forms of employment on organizational commitment ('a' and 'Sa'), and organizational commitment on turnover intentions ('b' and 'Sb'), summarized in figure 4.3 (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Sobel, 1982). Starting with the mediation model of temporary agency relative to directly hired ($a = -.284$, $Sa = .122$, $p < .05$, $b = -.676$, $Sb = .055$, $p < .001$). The Sobel test confirmed that organizational commitment mediated the effect of temporary agency dummy on turnover intentions ($Z = 2.29$, $p < .05$). By adding organizational commitment to the model, the effect of temporary agency dummy on turnover intentions decreased and changed significantly ($\Delta B = -.210$). Although no direct effect of the dummy temporary agency was found on turnover intentions ($B = .177$, $p = .40$), these results provided full support for hypothesis 5, since organizational commitment completely mediates the effect of temporary agency on turnover intentions (Figure 4.4).

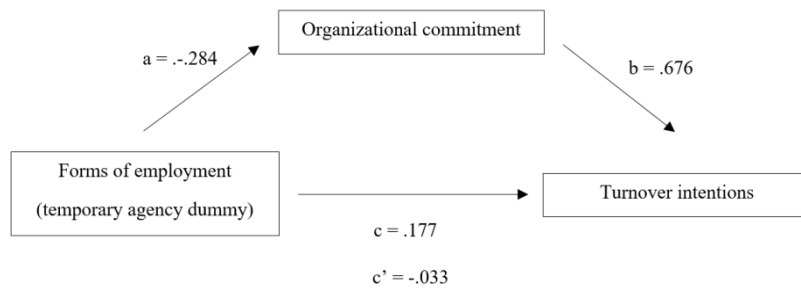


Figure 4.4: Mediation model temporary agency dummy.

For the mediation model of self-employed workers relative to directly hired, the values needed for the Sobel test are: $a = .334$, $Sa = .133$, $p < .05$, $b = -.676$, $Sb = .055$, $p < .001$. The Sobel test revealed that organizational commitment mediates the effect of temporary agency dummy on turnover intentions ($Z = -2.46$, $p < .05$). This means that by adding organizational commitment to the model, the effect of self-employed dummy on turnover intentions changed significantly ($\Delta B = .246$). However, organizational commitment is not mediating this relationship, since a direct effect ($B = .172$, $p = .41$) seems to appear, when organizational commitment is added to the model (Figure 4.5).

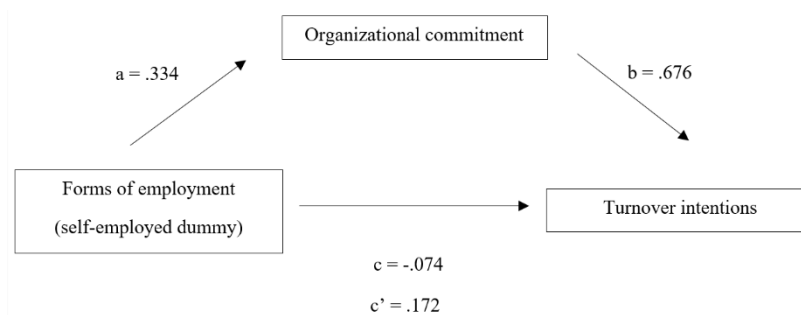


Figure 4.5: Mediation model self-employed dummy.

The graphical representations (Figure 4.4 and 4.5) show some differences between the mediations. The mediation model of temporary agency workers shows that the effect of the dummy changes from a not significant positive effect, to a not significant negative effect. For self-employed the effect of the dummy changes from a not significant negative effect to a not significant positive effect. Furthermore, the indirect effect for self-employed dummy is significantly stronger than the direct effect. For temporary agency dummy, the indirect effect is significantly weaker than the direct effect on turnover intentions. Although it should be mentioned, that for both dummies the direct and indirect effects on turnover intentions is not significant. This implicates that the addition of the mediation variable significantly changes the direct effect, but it does not result in a not significant indirect effect, when it was significant, or the other way around.

The control variables in these analyses seem to have a significant effect on the dependent variables. Because of these effects, there is checked if the effects of the independent on the dependent variables change when the variables are separately excluded. Only the exclusion of age in the analysis

with turnover intentions as dependent variables changes the effects. Without age in the analysis self-employed has a b-value of $-.220$ ($p = .31$) and addition of age changes the b-value to $-.074$ ($p = .75$). This means that age and forms of employment are correlated and this correlation influences the relation on turnover intentions. Age is eliminated in this analysis, to test the individual effect the dummies of forms of employment. The results of this new analysis are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Regression coefficients of control variables, main effects and mediation effects

Model	Variable	Dummy	Turnover intentions			Organizational commitment	
			1	2	3	1	2
1. Control variables	Gender	Men	-.361 **	-.338 **	-.297 **	.093	.054
	Level of Education	Low educated	-.462	-.427	-.537	-.088	-.145
		Middle educated	-.291 *	-.299 *	-.460 ***	-.227 **	-.214 **
	Contract type	Temporary contract	.089	.101	-.170	-.334 ***	-.359 ***
		Part-time contract	-.055	-.040	.030	.115	.093
	Tenure		-.194 **	-.189 *	-.125 *	.092 *	.085 *
2. Main effects	Forms of employment	Temporary agency		.222	-.022		-.324 **
	Forms of employment	Self-employed		-.220	.062		.373 **
3. Mediation effect	Organizational commitment				-.691 ***		
AR ²			.045 ***	.001	.178 ***	.073 ***	.023 ***
Adjusted R ²			.045	.046	.224	.073	.096
F-value			6.46 ***	5.17	23.40 ***	10.15 ***	7.94 ***

Regression coefficients are reported for the respective regression models, including control variables (model 1), control variables and forms of employment (model 2), and control variables, forms of employment and organizational commitment (model 3). $N = 778$. * Regression effect is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Regression effect is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *** Regression effect is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The biggest differences after eliminating age are the direct effects of self-employment on turnover intentions. Before addition of organizational commitment, working self-employed has a negative relationship on turnover intentions ($B = -.220$, $p = .31$). This changes after adding organizational commitment to the model to a small positive effect ($B = .062$, $p = .76$).

A Sobel test is conducted to test whether organizational commitment is a mediator. Starting with the mediation model of temporary agency relative to directly hired ($a = -.324$, $S_a = .119$, $p < .01$, $b = -.691$, $S_b = .055$, $p < .001$). The Sobel test revealed that organizational commitment mediated the effect of temporary agency dummy on turnover intentions ($Z = 2.66$, $p < .01$). This means that by adding organizational commitment to the model, the effect of temporary agency dummy on turnover intentions changed significantly ($\Delta B = -.210$). These results provided full support for hypothesis 5.

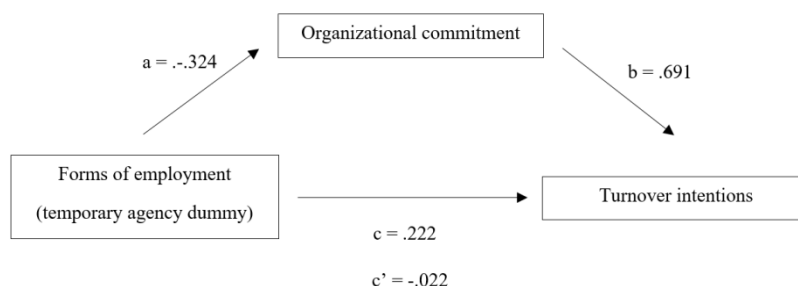


Figure 4.6: Mediation model temporary agency dummy.

For the mediation model of self-employed workers relative to directly hired, the values needed for the Sobel test are: $a = .373$, $Sa = .125$, $p < .01$, $b = -.691$, $Sb = .055$, $p < .001$. The Sobel test revealed that organizational commitment mediates the effect of temporary agency dummy on turnover intentions ($Z = -2.90$, $p < .01$). This means that by adding organizational commitment to the model, the effect of self-employed dummy on turnover intentions changed significantly ($\Delta B = .246$). These results provided full support for hypothesis 5.

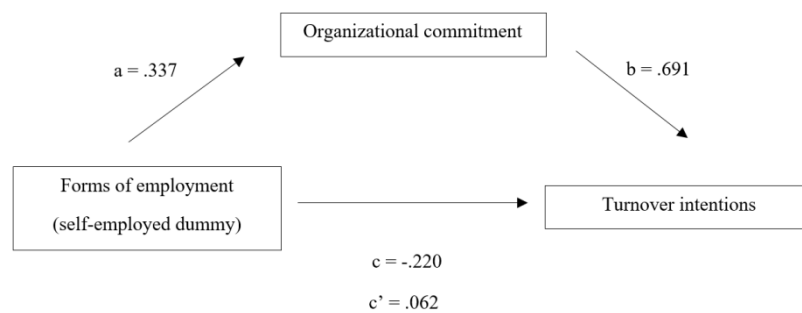


Figure 4.7: Mediation model self-employed dummy.

The graphical representations show differences with the first mediation models (Figure 4.6 and 4.7). When age is removed from the model, for both working at a temporary agency as working self-employed is organizational commitment found to mediate the effect on their intentions to leave. Working at a temporary agency is positively related to their intentions to leave, and this relation is completely mediated by organizational commitment. Working self-employed is negative related to their intentions to leave the organization, and this relationship is completely mediated by their organizational commitment. Hypothesis 5 can partially be confirmed, since it proposed contingent workers to have higher turnover intentions than classically hired employees, through their organization commitment. This is shown to be true for temporary agency workers, but not for self-employed workers. Self-employed workers seem to have less intention to leave the organization, through their organizational commitment.

5. Conclusion and discussion

In the discussion, these results and conclusions will be analysed and discussed. This will be done by looking back at the theoretical background of this thesis. There will be discussed in what way this thesis contributes to the literature of organizational commitment and turnover intentions, and the contribution to social exchange theory. Finally, the limitations of this study will be explained and recommendations for future research and practice will be given.

5.1 Conclusions and discussion

There is a shift to new forms of employment, such as temporary agency and self-employment, because organizations need to be more flexible (Sverke et al., 2002). Employees with different forms of employment have different expectations of their employers, which are established in their psychological contracts (Cooper et al., 2016). These psychological contracts are important in understanding employee attitudes and behavioural intentions (Guest, 2004), such as organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Hom et al., 2012). From previous research we understand that contingent workers often have a transactional psychological contract, where classically hired employees have a relational psychological contract. In comparison to relational psychological contract, transactional contracts can be characterized by lower involvement, less feelings of loyalty, and less security. Organizational commitment and turnover intentions are both outcomes of the social exchange relation between employee and employer (Rousseau, 1989; McDonald & Makin, 2000; Blomme et al., 2010), but these concepts are related too (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002, Kohlmeyer et al., 2017). There is limited assessment of what is the effect of different employment forms, particularly employment forms related to contingent work settings. Therefore, the following research question was formulated in this thesis:

How does organizational commitment influence turnover intentions, dependent on the form of employment?

The effects of the forms of employment on organizational commitment and on employees' intentions to leave the organization, based on social exchange theory, will be explained in two parts. The first part will look back at organizational commitment literature. The second part will examine the findings concerning the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, in combination with the two extensions of this relationship.

First, this thesis effects of the forms of employment on their organizational commitment is examined. A lot of research focussed on organizational commitment of one of the three forms of employment, but not on the comparison between the forms of employment and the implications of the differences. Based on social exchange theory and the expected characterization of the psychological contract as transactional (Chambel et al., 2016; Cooper et al., 2016), temporary agency workers are expected to be less committed to the organization. The results of this study are consistent with the

expectations and previous research (Felfe et al., 2008). Finding a negative effect of working as a temporary agency worker on organizational commitment, means that they are less committed to the organization, compared to classically hired employees. This means that the social exchange mechanism is a good explanation for the effect of working a temporary agency worker on organizational commitment.

The type of social exchange for self-employed workers is less clear. They have more benefits than temporary agency workers (Felfe et al., 2008) and work at an organization for a different reason than temporary agency workers (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005). Still, self-employment is classified as contingent employment (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005; Connelly & Gallagher, 2004), and thus the expectation remains that these workers are more likely to experience transactional types of contracts psychological contract. The results for self-employment do not correspond with this categorization, since self-employed workers seemed to be more committed to the organization than classically hired employees. The literature may need to reassess the classification of this employment form, by looking at other theories that may explain employee behaviour. Furthermore, the social exchange mechanism and the model of psychological contracts does not seem to fit with the factors explaining employee's attitudes and behaviour of self-employed workers. Benefits of the organization, such as investments and support, may be less important for self-employed workers in developing commitment to the organization. Other theories may shed light on the drivers of self-employed workers to be committed to the organization.

Second, the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions was tested and possible extensions of this relationship were examined. The findings correspond with previous empirical evidence, which state that organizational commitment negatively affects employees' intentions to leave the organization (Williams & Hazer, 1986; Meyer et al., 2002; Kohlmeier, Parker & Sincich, 2017; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment seems a strong antecedent of withdrawal behaviour, particularly turnover intentions. The extent to which employees care about the organization and feel dedication for the organization are thus important in causing and preventing turnover for an organization.

The role of the form of employment is examined by two extensions, which examine social exchange mechanisms for the forms of employment. The first extension contains the expectation that for temporary agency and self-employed workers the commitment to the organization plays a weaker role in predicting their intentions to leave the organization, because they already feel less committed to the organization, based on their psychological contract. Against expectations, the findings show no significant moderating effects of the forms of employment, so the extension could not be confirmed. In order to interpret the role of organizational commitment in predicting employees' intentions to leave for the three employment forms, the results of the analysis are presented in graphs (Figure 4.1 and 4.2). These graphs show a very small negative effect of the form of employment on the relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. This means that organizational commitment has a

weaker effect on the employees' turnover intentions for temporary agency and self-employed workers than for classically hired employees. However, these differences are too small to be significant.

The analysis gives an indication for the expected relationships, but these relationships cannot be found in the data with certainty. It is interesting to get more insight in the effect of working in an employment form on the relationship of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. The additional analysis shows that for classically hired employees organizational commitment indeed plays a stronger role than it does for both temporary agency and self-employed workers. This could be explained by the fact that temporary agency and self-employed workers are employed at the client organization for a restricted period. Their time-limited social exchange does not result in high organizational commitment, and their intentions to leave are less based on this commitment. Thus, current study does not provide evidence confirming the expectations based on social exchange theory.

The second extension to the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover examines if employees' intentions to leave the organization can be explained through their organizational commitment. Working in one of the employment forms was confirmed to have an effect on organizational commitment and organizational commitment negatively affects employees' intentions to leave the organization. It is interesting to examine whether working in one of the employment forms has an effect on employees' intentions to leave the organization, and if this is a direct effect or if it is completely mediated by an employees' commitment to the organization.

The findings for temporary agency workers show, as expected, that they have higher levels of turnover intentions, because of their form of employment, and this effect is completely formed through the mechanism of organizational commitment. The mechanism of organizational commitment is strong, even strong enough that it explains all effects between working for a temporary agency on turnover intentions. Temporary employees thus have higher intentions to leave the organizations, because working for a temporary agency negatively affects organizational commitment. This is interesting, because this means that to predict turnover intentions, temporary agency workers' organizational commitment does matter and their form of employment does not affect turnover intentions directly. This underlines the importance of social exchange for temporary agency workers, which results in commitment and this, in turn, affects turnover intentions. Based on these findings, social exchange is confirmed to be vital for temporary agency and it explains how employment form, organizational commitment and turnover intentions are related.

Working self-employed has the exactly opposite effect. This form of employment negatively affects employees' intentions to leave the organization, fully mediated by their commitment to their organization. For this employment form, the mechanism of organizational commitment is also strong, and does leave just a small effect behind. This mediation process was expected, although based on social exchange it was not expected that working self-employed positively affects organizational commitment and negatively affects intentions to leave. These effects may be explained by other mechanisms and

theories than social exchange, and future research should consider other theories that might explain attitudes and behaviours of self-employed workers.

It can be concluded that the form of employment definitely plays a role in the relationship of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. This relationship is indicated to differ in strength and organizational commitment plays a mediating role. However, another important finding for explaining employees' behaviour based on social exchange is discovered. This thesis clearly shows that social exchange theory does not explain the attitudes and behaviour of self-employed workers, as it does for temporary agency workers.

5.2 Contribution to the theory

This thesis first contributes to the theoretical development of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. A lot of frameworks and models on organizational commitment and turnover assume a "standard" ongoing employee-employer relationship (Gallagher & McLean Parks, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997). With the upcoming of new forms of employment, this theoretical base seems to be limited. For the forms of employment separately, a few studies focused on factors predicting behaviour and attitudes of employees (Flickinger et al., 2016; De Cuyper et al., 2009; McDonald & Makin, 2000). Previous studies predicted different attitudes, or concludes differences based on previous research (Felfe et al., 2008; Feldman, 2006). However, little empirical research combines more than two forms of employment (i.e. De Cuyper et al., 2009) or even focusses on contingent employment forms and their psychological contracts (McLean Parks et al., 1998). This thesis contributes to the theoretical development by comparing three forms of employment, based on their psychological contracts and social exchange theory. Social exchange mechanisms seemed to explain the organizational commitment and turnover intentions for classically hired employees as well as for temporary agency workers. However, this is not the case for self-employed workers. This is a huge contribution to the literature concerning social exchange theory, since it demonstrates that social exchange does not provide insights in organizational commitment and turnover intentions for all the employment forms, especially self-employed workers.

Furthermore, the findings indicate that the classification of psychological contracts of classically hired employees and temporary agency workers are in line with social exchange theory. Self-employed workers seems be another category of employees than temporary agency workers. Just like temporary agency workers, self-employed have less benefits than classically hired employees. Other aspects of the job, like control over their self-control over their work and their choices for certain clients, seem to be strengthening their commitment to the organization. Self-employed workers are even more committed and less likely to leave the organization, which contributes the limited and contradictory research on attitudes and behaviours of self-employed workers. They clearly should not be classified with other alternative employment forms, with transactional psychological contracts, and this classification should not be based on social exchange theory.

The third contribution lies in the extension of the relationship of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. This relationship seems to be quite straightforward, since commitment and turnover are already linked in previous empirical research on the basis of social exchange. However, the moderating and mediation models do give the indication that more factors play their part in this clear relationship and that working in one of the forms of employment also affects this relationship. Particularly, organizational commitment shows to be important in developing intentions to leave the organization for the employment forms. However, self-employed workers' attitudes and behaviour is the opposite of temporary agency workers, when compared to classically hired employees.

Fourth, a methodological contribution has been made by using the KUT-conceptualization and measure (Klein et al., 2014) for conceptualizing and measuring commitment. A lot of empirical evidence of organizational commitment is based on the TCM, which consist of far more items than the KUT. The conciseness and one-dimensionality of the KUT makes it easier and more clearly than the TCM. The results will also be better comparable, since organizational commitment is conceptualized as a one-dimensional concept. TCM uses more dimensions, and a lot of research test one or two dimensions. That way it is hard or even impossible to say something about the concept organizational commitment as a whole and compare results and findings of studies. This study contributes by confirming reliability of the translated measure in The Netherlands.

5.3 Practical implications

This study contributes to the practice and to management of organizational commitment and turnover. The added value of this study is predominantly important for managers of organizations, their human resource management practices and overall management of organizations.

This thesis first contributes to the decision and consideration of organizations to use alternative forms of employment. The contracts differ in rights, obligations, length, and a lot of other aspects. Organizations should consider the consequences in employee attitudes and behaviours, when employing them with different forms of employment. By showing relations of organizational commitment and turnover intentions for the three forms of employment, this thesis could help in this consideration.

Furthermore, it contributes to the management of employees by normal and human resource managers. Because of their psychological contracts, managers do expect less organizational commitment of contingent workers. Also turnover intentions are less important, because of the finite duration of the contract. However, as explained in the introduction, unexpected resignation of contingent employees may result in substantial financial consequences for organizations (Morrel et al., 2008; Hom et al., 2012). This turnover intentions seems to be strongly related to their organizational commitment. This study provides insights in the importance of organizational commitment in preventing employees to leave the organization and these insights are useful to HR managers and managers overall. Managers need knowledge and insight in attitudes and behaviours of employees working under different forms of

employment. This study reveals that the self-evident relationship of organizational commitment and employees' intentions to leave the organization, is not self-evident the same for all employees.

An important finding about turnover intentions of these employees with alternative work arrangements is the fact that their turnover intentions are not based on them having a different contract. Furthermore, the findings show that their intentions to leave the organization are completely caused by their organizational commitment. For organizations this means that the use of different employment forms is not the problem. They, however, should be aware of the fact that they should focus on keeping all employees, with all kinds of employment forms, committed to the organization. It is important to keep your workforce committed by for example good compensation and non-monetary recognition of employee's performance.

5.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

Some limitations of this thesis should be considered, when interpreting the findings. The first limitation is the cross-sectional research design, which means that the data is collected at one point in time. This research design is relatively inexpensive; takes little time to conduct, and a lot of concepts can be assessed (Levin, 2006). However, this research design does have its limitations, like the impossibility to measure causality (Levin, 2006). Attitudes like organizational commitment and turnover intentions change in time and organizational commitment is something that has to grow. Therefore, a longitudinal design would be an opportunity for future research in organizational commitment and turnover intentions. In a longitudinal research, data is collected at more points in time, or over a period of time, making it possible to measure causality, change and explanations of change (Menard, 2007).

Another limitation of the research design is that the respondents scored the items by self-report. The biggest problem with self-reported data is it contains persons' opinions about themselves. These opinions are subjective and can be influenced by what they feel is expected of them. This can lead to socially desirable answers. This could have been the reason for the higher values of organizational commitment and the lower values of turnover intentions, because it is expected of employees to feel attached to the organization. Another problem with self-reports, is the danger of respondents not understanding all the questions accurately. Despite of these limitations, using self-reported surveys was the best and only option in this research, to be able to measure feelings of the respondents.

A third limitation of the design of this research concerns the measurement of the voluntariness of the intentions to leave the organization. Turnover intentions are seen as intentions of employee to voluntarily leave the organization, which is predominately important when including contingent employment forms. It was considered that specifically their voluntary turnover intentions were asked in the survey. Furthermore, this thesis was interested in the organizational commitment and turnover intentions of the contingent employee towards the client organization. This combination appeared to be problematic. In The Netherlands it is not possible to get a permanent contract at the client organization when you are working as a temporary agency or self-employed worker. Because of the way of

questioning, not all temporary agency and self-employed workers answered the questions specified to temporary contract, as discussed in the methodology part. This could have disturbed the results and the findings of this study. In the methodology was a fifth question mentioned, that would control for employees' intentions to leave the organization due to their temporary contract. This item is not included in the analyses, because only for classically hired employees this was consistently reported. However, additional analysis of the frequencies of this item revealed that a small part of the of respondents that responded to this question scored high on this item (3% of classically hired employees and 10% of temporary agency workers). For future research it would be interesting to design a scale or measurement to measure turnover intentions correctly for employees with both permanent and temporary contracts.

Furthermore, the assumption of a normal distribution of the residuals is violated. This is a problem, since a regression analyses assumes and is based on a normal distribution and when this assumption is violated, it is impossible to give accurate and reliable conclusions. The results should thus be taken with consciousness. However, a technique for testing the hypothesis could have been used that prevents non-normality to be a problem: bootstrapping (Adér & Mellenberg, 2008). This technique assumes that the sample distribution is equal to the population distribution. The PROCESS add-on of Hayes (2009) could have been used instead of the normal SPSS output, which may support analysis in such case. Especially for the mediation model the PROCESS output would have given better interpretable results, since mediation is often tested with confident intervals instead of a Sobel test (Field, 2014). The analysis of the mediation was repeated. For temporary agency workers ($B = .245$, $LCI = .0159$, $UCI = .4920$) and self-employed workers ($B = -.282$, $LCI = -.5001$, $UCI = -.0276$), organizational commitment significantly mediated the relation on turnover intentions. An effect is significant when zero is not within the confidence intervals. In this case the effects, were significantly greater than zero, at a significance level of .05. This confirms the mediation of organizational commitment.

There are two other directions for future research, besides the suggestions that are mentioned above. First, as mentioned did social exchange not explain the job attitudes and behaviours of self-employed workers very well. Future research should explore different theories that could provide better insight into the drivers of their turnover intentions, such as social identity theory, which focuses on self-categorisation (Tajfal & Turner, 1979; Ellemers, Kortekaas & Ouwerkerk, 1999) and self-determination theory, which focuses the motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2011) and the amount of autonomy (Gagné & Deci, 2005). The second interesting direction is the possibility to measure multiple foci of commitment with the KUT measure. This study focused on organizational commitment to the client organization, but for temporary agency it would be interesting to include organizational commitment to the temporary agency. For all forms of employment the foci employment form would be interesting, perhaps combined with the voluntariness of being employed in the specific employment form. This would give even more insights in the role of different employment forms for the commitment literature.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: List of items Organizational Commitment

English (original items, Klein et al., 2014).

Number item	Question
1.	How committed are you to the organization?
2.	To what extent do you care about your organization?
3.	How dedicated are you to your organization?
4.	To what extent have you chosen to be committed to your organization?

Dutch, (Workplace commitment survey) Cronbach's alpha = .91.

Number item	Question
1.	In hoeverre voelt u zich verantwoordelijk voor deze organisatie?
2.	In hoeverre hecht u belang aan deze organisatie?
3.	In hoeverre heeft u toewijding naar uw organisatie?
4.	In hoeverre voelt u zich verbonden met uw organisatie?

English, back translation by Dr. Yvonne van Rossenberg.

Number item	Question
1.	To what extent do you feel responsible for the organization?
2.	To what extent do you feel this organization is important to you?
3.	To what extent do you feel dedication/devotion to your organization?
4.	To what extent did you choose to connect with your organization?

Appendix 2: List of items Turnover Intentions

English (original items, Hom et al, 1984).

Number item	Question
1.	I think often about quitting my job.
2.	I am actively seeking an alternative job.
3.	I intend to leave this organization.
4.	If it was up to me, I would like to stay with this organization.

Dutch, Workplace commitment survey.

Number item	Question
1.	Ik denk er vaak aan om te stoppen met werken voor deze organisatie.
2.	Ik ben opzoek naar een andere baan.
3.	In ben van plan deze organisatie te verlaten.
4.	Als het alleen aan mij zou liggen, dan zou ik graag nog lang bij deze organisatie willen blijven werken.

Appendix 3: Introduction online survey

Beste deelnemer,

Hartelijk dank dat u wilt meedoen.

Het doel van dit onderzoek is om inzicht te krijgen in hoe mensen zich verbonden voelen met hun werk. Graag willen wij meer weten over in hoeverre u zich verbonden voelt met bijvoorbeeld uw werkgever, met uw leidinggevende of met uw collega's. Ook zijn er vragen over tevredenheid, stress, carrière, leiderschap en uw activiteiten op het werk.

De vragenlijst bestaat uit 4 onderdelen:

- A. Uw werksituatie
- B. Tevredenheid, verbondenheid en stress
- C. Activiteiten en prestatie
- D. Leiderschap, carrière en de maatschappij

Het invullen van de vragenlijst duurt ongeveer 20 minuten (hoeveel het precies is, hangt onder andere van uw werksituatie af).

De gegevens zullen worden gebruikt voor zowel internationaal wetenschappelijk onderzoek als ook voor Bachelor en Master scripties aan de Management faculteit van de Radboud Universiteit. Er zal door alle onderzoekers en studenten betrokken bij dit project volkomen vertrouwelijk met uw gegevens worden omgegaan en de resultaten worden geheel anoniem verwerkt.

Mocht u nog vragen of opmerkingen hebben over dit onderzoek, neem dan contact op met Dr. Yvonne van Rossenberg (coördinator onderzoeksteam van de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen), via +31 (0)24 3611604 of Y.vanrossenberg@fm.ru.nl.

Nogmaals hartelijk dank voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek.

Appendix 4: Normality tables

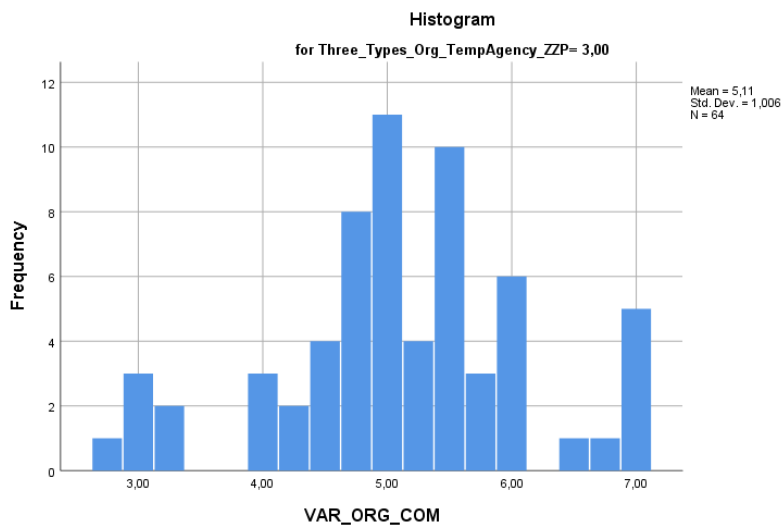
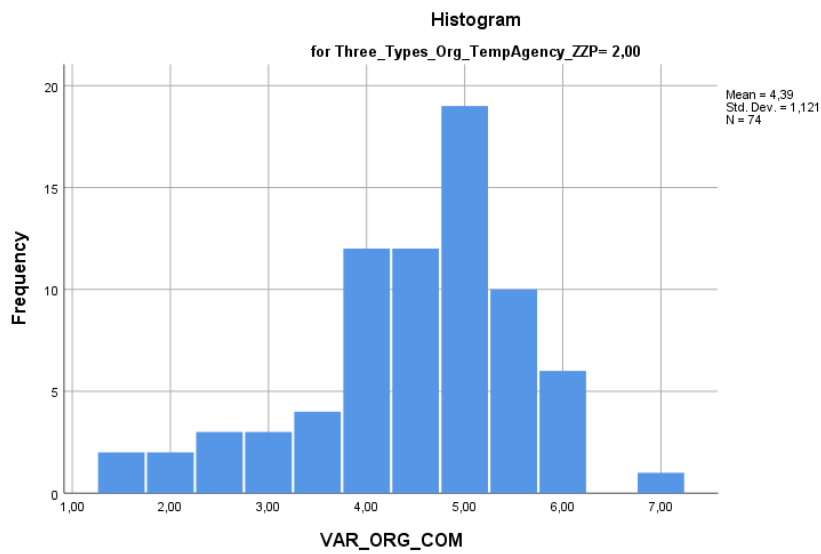
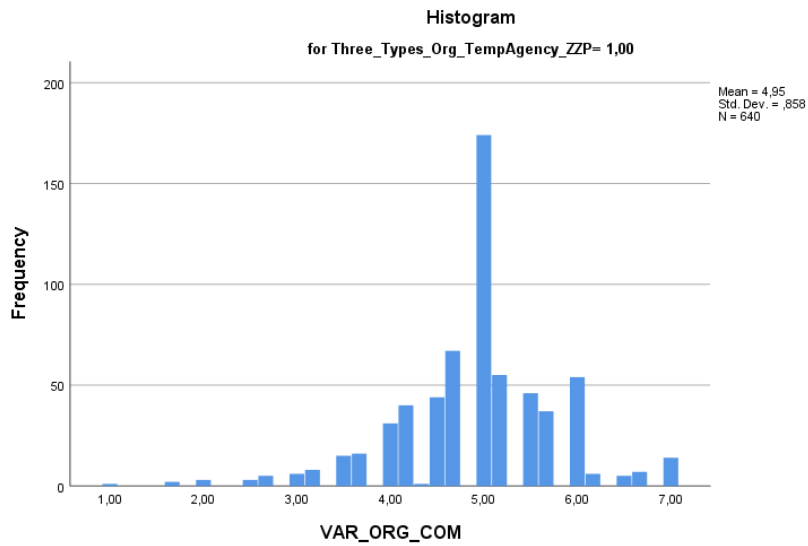
Organizational commitment

Extreme values

Form of employment		No.	Value
1. Classically hired	Highest	1.	7.00
		2.	7.00
		3.	7.00
	Lowest	1.	1.00
		2.	1.75
		3.	1.75
2. Temporary agency	Highest	1.	7.00
		2.	6.00
		3.	6.00
	Lowest	1.	1.50
		2.	1.50
		3.	1.75
3. Self-employed	Highest	1.	7.00
		2.	7.00
		3.	7.00
	Lowest	1.	2.75
		2.	3.00
		3.	3.00

Tests of normality

Form of employment	Statistic	Df	Significance
1. Classically hired	.146	640	.000
2. Temporary agency	.122	74	.003
3. Self-employed	.125	64	.020

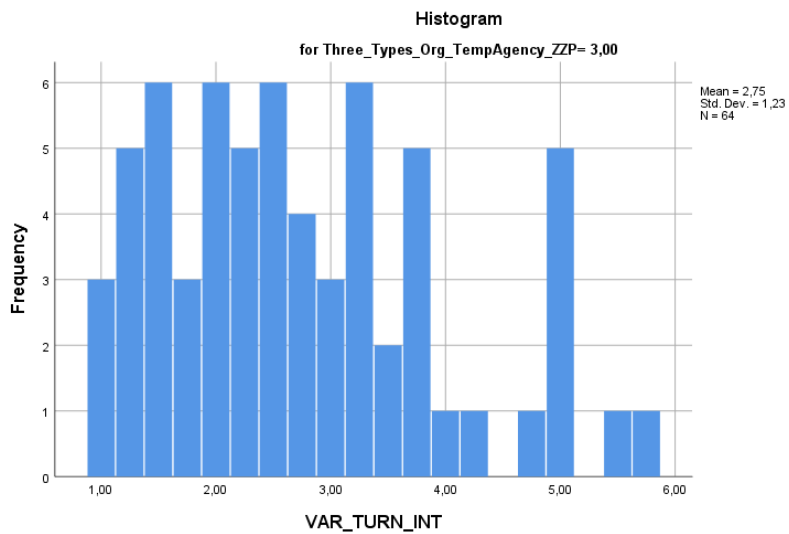
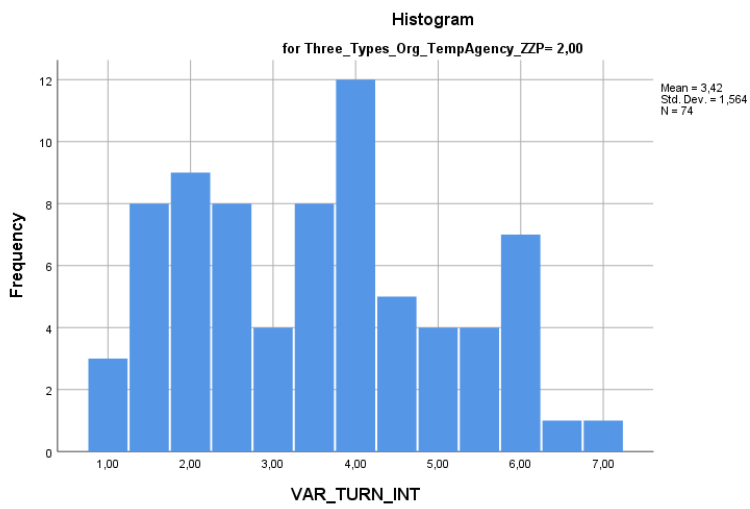
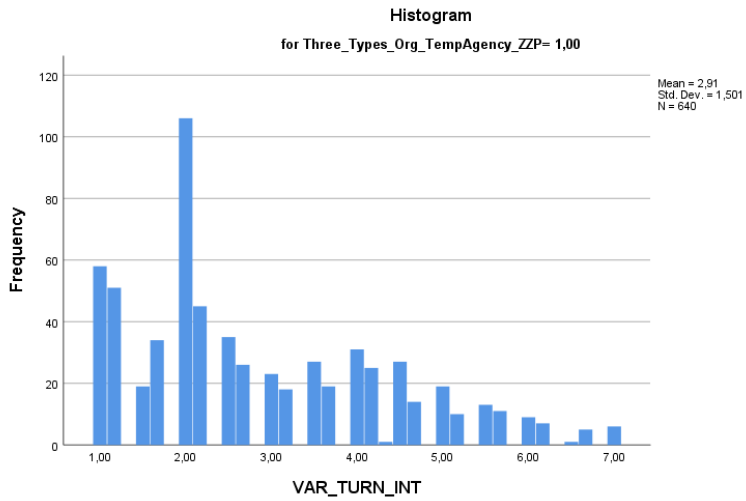


Turnover intentions
Extreme values

Form of employment		No.	Value
1. Classically hired	Highest	1.	7.00
		2.	7.00
		3.	7.00
	Lowest	1.	1.00
		2.	1.00
		3.	1.00
2. Temporary agency	Highest	1.	7.00
		2.	6.50
		3.	6.00
	Lowest	1.	1.00
		2.	1.00
		3.	1.00
3. Self-employed	Highest	1.	5.75
		2.	5.50
		3.	5.00
	Lowest	1.	1.00
		2.	1.00
		3.	1.00

Tests of normality

Form of employment	Statistic	Df	Significance
1. Classically hired	.158	640	.000
2. Temporary agency	.123	74	.009
3. Self-employed	.113	64	.004



Appendix 5: Multicollinearity and VIF values

Variable	VIF	Tolerance
Age	2.261	.112
Men (dummy)	1.127	.887
Low education level (dummy)	1.076	.929
Middle education level (dummy)	1.098	.911
Temporary contract (dummy)	1.745	.573
Part-time contract (dummy)	1.191	.840
Tenure	2.098	.477
Temporary agency (dummy)	1.250	.800
Self-employed (dummy)	2.021	.495
Organizational commitment	1.510	.662
Interaction temporary*organizational commitment	1.394	.717
Interaction self-employed*organizational commitment	1.223	.817

Appendix 6: Heteroscedasticity and plots

