

A Longitudinal Study of Assimilated Corporate Culture in Mexico

Douglas K. Peterson

Business without Borders, The NGO/NPO Institute, Inc

6101 34th St. West, Suite 4-H

Bradenton, Florida 34210USA

E-mail: Douglas.Peterson@business-without-borders.org

Abstract

The paper explores the evolution of organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1993) among workers in a Mexican administrative and production facility for a Fortune 500 MNC. Over four years, there was a transfer of cultural attributes and commitment attitudes from a parent MNC across national borders to the host subsidiary. While the parent MNC had the goal of raising workers' organizational commitment worldwide, this empirical investigation demonstrated that worker commitment increased in the host country, fell and then rose to a stable level. Simultaneously, there was a convergence to parent company job attitude levels creating host country attitudinal attributes and a disposition to collective bargaining and entitlement elements towards desire for more satisfying work, better supervision, better pay and benefits plan, more promotion opportunities, and more opportunities for work group action and collegiality.

Keywords: Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Mexico

1. Introduction:

This paper reports on a 4 year longitudinal study of organizational commitment and job satisfaction among administrative and production workers in a U.S. MNC operating OEM facilities in Mexico. The company is in the automotive industry and chose Mexico for the benefits offered by NAFTA, as well as access to distribution to the South and Central American markets. The author chose this site in part due to a previous relationship with an executive in the company and the opportunity to collect longitudinal attitude data from the beginning of operations in a new facility. Data collection took place between 2000 and 2004.

The study examines demographic variables as well as those of work satisfaction, leadership behaviors and perceived organizational effectiveness as they relate to organizational commitment in a host national environment and compare with home company job attitudes. To date, few empirical studies on organizational commitment have been conducted longitudinally in host country environments. Generally, studies seem to be either cross sectional, non-longitudinal measures of commitment (for an exception look to Avny and Anderson, 2008 for work on international joint ventures) or comparisons between cultures using common cultural typologies. Yingyan Wang (2004) compares commitment in cross sectional analysis in state and privately owned organizations in China. Al-Qarioti and Al-Enezi (2004) explore commitment among managers in Jordan; and Glazer, Daniel and Short (2004) compare commitment effects in the US, UK, Hungary, and Italy. Finally, Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, and Cropanzano (2005) compare commitment across team environments. Peterson (2007) compares job attitudinal aspects of public, mixed and private sector business in China. Among studies of that type are Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Wilk's (2004) exploration of workplace satisfaction and empowerment; and Wasti's (2003) article on commitment, turnover intentions and cultural values in Turkey.

This article addresses a dilemma of how to address the motivational and commitment needs of host country nationals. Articles that exist often resort to cultural differences as a way to inform and prescribe to the motivational and commitment needs of host country nationals. The most widely used measures of culture differences employ a method of validated regional affiliation and present the idea that national differences on a set of variables can serve as a proxy for cultural differences. This is often presented as the sum of a limited set of explanatory variables. In order to train managers how to manage or enhance satisfaction and commitment, HR needs to present cultural differences independent of cultural typologies as they impact business operations. This is part of the managerial application to this paper.

Of further interest is the notion that national culture isn't dynamic. If culture is unchanging, or only slowly changing, HR managers would be faced with the task of adapting organizational systems on a cultural/national basis. Conversely, if shared typologies of culture are presented as being more fluid then HR managers may seek to transfer corporate culture across borders in order to enculturate host country workforces that are more malleable. My studies seek to identify practices in home and host countries, while bringing in the most useful parts of the home country/company culture in an effort to accentuate value. The

following design helps to synthesize the work of this author (Peterson, 2002; Peterson and Puia, 2001; Puia and Peterson, 2000; Peterson, 2005; Peterson and Xing, 2007) so far:

Figure 1. An Design for Cultural Adaptation, Home Company.

Corporate Culture/ Typological Dynamic	Similar Business Culture	Different Business Culture
Typology Culture is Dynamic	Try to adapt both systems to moderate difference.	Adapt home corporate systems to host culture.
Typology Culture is Static	Impose home company culture and processes	Incremental adaptation of home/host cultural systems.

The potential negative effects of these attempted cultural value transfers are documented (Datta & Puia, 1995). Organizations seeking to enter host country cultures that are fundamentally different than home cultures may find difficulty in managing human resources if they don't alter strategy and human resource practices. There is a tendency for organizations to look at host country operational culture as either a minor or a major variant of home company operational culture. In the minor variant example, managers may seek to adapt cultural systems to the host country, while leaving the cultural core relatively untouched. Here, the objective is to create a home-similar company culture that works in the host culture.

Literature Review

Reviews of our theoretical base in job satisfaction and commitment reveal that most research relates to the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. In definition, organizational commitment is the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Meyer and Allen, 1987; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). Conceptually, it can be characterized by (1) the strong belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982).

2.1 Commitment: Personal Characteristics

Commitment can also be characterized as an attitude of attachment to an employing organization. Commitment researchers frequently focus on the identification of antecedents contributing to the development of organizational commitment and the consequences on job attitudes and behavior they have (Meyer and Allen, 1987); In this way they can address commitment needs from identifiable and measurable factors. According to Angle and Lawson, (1993) there are antecedents to commitment that can be split into components of personal characteristics and situational factors. Personal characteristics include demographic variables like gender, age, and employment length. Situational factors include

variables like job characteristics, organizational characteristics, work situations, and work experiences that employees may have.

Literature on organizational commitment predicts that the personal characteristics of age, length of employment, gender, years of education, and occupation, as either line or staff, will predict levels of commitment among workers (Angle and Lawson, 1993). Personal characteristics have been investigated in relationship to organizational commitment (Matheu and Zajac, 1990). For example, Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) research indicates that women in the USA tend to be more committed to their organizations than men. Explanations for this finding are that jobs are more difficult to find; there are fewer options presented for employment; and that there are obstacles relating to marriage and family that make it more difficult for women to remain organizational members (Aven, Parker, and McEvoy, 1993). Once acceptable employment is obtained, women tend to be more committed to it. This is corroborated in the California Center for Population Research (2007).

Mexicans (both employers and employees) have a different attitude toward women in the workplace than do those in the United States (deForest, 1991). It has been mentioned this is due to traditional cultural assumptions relating to women's role in society. Traditionally, Mexican women are expected to play the roles of wife, mother and home-maker (see Heusinkveld, 1994; Kras & Whatley, 1990). As a result, employers expect that women will place less value on their membership within an organization, and will be less committed to working for a living. This is corroborated within Hofstede's (1980) work on cultural dimensions where Mexican society is typified as masculine, preferring higher power distances, avoiding uncertainty, and showing anti-individualistic tendencies. This is also corroborated in Trompenaars (1996) work where women are characterized as more particularistic, relationship-centered, collectivistic, affective, and external control oriented. In refutation, the Organization of American States (OAS) and the California Center for Population Research reports in 2007 the labor force participation rate among women in general has gone from 23.2% in 1990 to 49.5% in 2007 (Kurtman and Dennon, 2007) California Center for Population Research, 2007). Currently, women work primarily in the services sector (43%), the trade sector (23%) and the domestic services sector (20%). The highest percentage of women working are in the 35 – 44 age bracket; women who are in their teens (21%), and over 65 (23%) are the lowest population percentage among working women. Also according to the OAS, the notion that women are expected to primarily be wives and mothers is somewhat moderated by modern society; on average women work 37.5 paid hours per week and approximately 27 hours in nonpaid capacities. Men on the other hand, work paid hours of 45.3 on average, and 10.6 nonpaid. Because of these cultural tendencies relating to women at work, and the refutation of common stereotypes, this study proposes that men will report approximately the same scores on commitment and satisfaction instruments as women.

Age and time spent in a workplace tend to be positively correlated with organizational commitment in the United States. Generally, it is held that as individuals age, their preference for alternative employment opportunities decreases while personal investments in a firm tend to increase (Allen and Meyer, 1993; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter and Steers,

1982; Gregersen and Black, 1992). If age is highly regarded, it can influence interactions in the workplace (Heusinkveld, 1994). According to Harrison and Hubbard (1998), this position of greater respect is expected to result in more positive experiences, and for the worker who is older and has greater commitment either through respect or from limited mobility potential (see Allen and Meyer, 1993; Schular, Porter and Steers, 1996).

Researchers have found education to be inversely related to commitment in U.S. firms (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). I would propose that workers possessing high levels of education may have higher expectations, and may then be more committed to their professions than to any one organization. Since these workers may have a greater number of alternative work opportunities, they may not develop high levels of commitment to their organizations (Matthieu and Zajac, 1990). Counter to traditional thinking, we would expect the current educational system in Mexico to provide opportunity for managerial development and specific skill training that would qualify persons for varied work assignments. While workers do covet the opportunity to train in their organization and get experience (deForest, 1991) we anticipate a similar relationship between commitment and education in the Mexican organization.

2.2 Commitment: Situational Factors

Situational factors are the second component of organizational commitment and are identified as antecedents to commitment. Typically, situations that affect commitment are those that are related to characteristics of work, characteristics of an organization, and experiences that workers have while on the job.

Job characteristics that are related to commitment are those facets of a job that affect individual affect and job attitudes. One controversy in the literature relates to the role that job satisfaction, as measured through job characteristics, has on commitment in the international arena. Only three empirical studies on international organizational commitment have focused upon Mexico (Harrison and Hubbard, 1998; Peterson and Puia, 2000a; Peterson and Puia, 2000b). In Harrison and Hubbard (1998), there was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and commitment. In Peterson and Puia (2000a and 2000b) there was no relationship found between satisfaction and commitment. Both the Hubbard (1998) and the Peterson and Puia (2000a and 2000b) studies occurred within 1 organization. The Peterson and Puia studies had about 3x as many participants. In the case of Peterson and Puia (2000a and 2000b), the workers studied found their jobs to be jobs; they weren't central to personality or self concept. In this, commitment was related to the workplace in important matters relating to affect of the workplace, acceptable behaviors, ease on continuance, and external options.

Job satisfaction was something else entirely. Job satisfaction was satisfaction with the work, the supervisor, the pay, the ascension possibilities, and coworkers (just like the model we all know). Statistically, there was no significant relationship to a connection between workplace satisfaction and commitment. There is some literature on Mexico that suggests that satisfaction with work itself (McKinniss and Natella, 1994) affects loyalty and retention in

organizations in Mexico. This study indicates that there will be no relationship between job satisfaction and commitment in Mexican organizations.

There are several organizational characteristics that are positively related to commitment (see (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). Organizational effectiveness seems particularly relevant because of the focus on how well an organization is doing. The relationship between organizational effectiveness and commitment may be changing. Harrison and Hubbard (1998) postulated a negative relationship between effectiveness and commitment in Mexican organizations. DeForest (1994) and Schuler et al (1996) suggest that as firms become more efficient workers in Mexico develop lower levels of commitment because they perceive they are working harder for relatively fewer rewards and in an increased risk for workforce reduction. An additional situational antecedent of commitment represents those work experiences that occur while an employee works with an organization. Researchers have cited leader behavior and participative decision making as having significant effects on commitment (Glasson and Durick, 1988; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1993). Leadership behaviors generally are characterized in terms of initiating structure and consideration, both of which show positive correlation with organizational commitment among North American workers (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Initiating structure includes behaviors concerned with productivity, planning, coordination, discipline, clarification, and problem solving (Yukl, 1981). We anticipate these behaviors will be positively related to organizational commitment in Mexican organizations. Consideration includes behaviors concerned with supportiveness, consultation, representation, and recognition (Yukl, 1981). We expect these behaviors are also positively related to organizational commitment in Mexican organizations because employees show affective commitment, show positive behaviors, and find continuing in the employment relationship to be easier when they are appreciated by supervisors who are human relations oriented (Kras, 1989; McKinniss and Natella, 1994; Schular, Porter and Steers, 1996).

2. Methodology

The research was conducted in several stages over the four years, 2000 to 2004. The theoretical base relies upon organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1993) where job satisfaction factors of work, supervision, pay, ascension, and co-workers predicted affective, continuance, and behavioral commitment. In this study, each stage involved a series of interviews with managers, focus groups with employees and the administration of standardized surveys with known reliabilities. Since they were being administered in Mexico, focus groups were extensively conducted with workers to see whether the traits measured in the questionnaires actually had valence in the workforce among both production and administrative employees. Generally the results of these were very positive with few disagreements in translation or interpretation across the instruments. We back translated everything through three iterations. In the job satisfaction measure, we changed the word “hot” to be “high temperature” for people were understanding “hot” as being “popular in an attractive way”. We also changed the word “actualized” to be “informed and able to participate in decisions.” A full listing of the instruments used is as follows: The instruments used were Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, 1982), Job Descriptive

Index (Smith, Kendal and Hulin, 1969), Organizational Effectiveness Scale (Mott, 1972), and the Managerial Behavior Survey (Yukl, 1981). The reason for these questionnaires was that at least one prior study had used them effectively to some advantage (Harrison and Hubbard, 1997).

Prior to measurement, focus group interviews were held, in Spanish, at all facilities with the researcher and his assistants. The purpose of the interview groups was to ascertain nuances involved in worker motivation and to check the content validity of previous research. Questionnaires were coded and summarized according to the literature. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, 1982) tests the affective, continuance and behavioral commitment to organizations. From 1985 to 1997 the meta reliabilities of the instrument have been .82 for affective commitment, .76 for behavioral commitment, and .72 for continuance commitment. This study chose the OCQ for its very broad usage worldwide in cross cultural settings (Peterson and Xing, 2007), and for its historic and effective use in Mexico (Harrison and Hubbard, 1998; Peterson and Puia, 2000a; Peterson and Puia, 2000b). While there has been some pressure to abridge the instrument. Its prime attractiveness for this study was (1) it had been used before in Mexico (Harrison and Hubbard, 1998; Peterson and Puia, 2000a; Peterson and Puia, 2000b), and (2) it had sufficiently simple adjectives to describe work that could be easily translated into Spanish and administered with words accessible across educational levels. Its reliability has been high over time with reported alpha measures around .8 (Stanton et al, 2001). The Job Descriptive Index, JDI (Smith, Kendal, and Holmes, 1969) has been a well used and tested instrument in both the domestic and international environments (Peterson and Xing, 2007). Further, Mott's (1972) organizational effectiveness measure was implemented, as was Yukl's (1981) Managerial Behavior Survey.

In the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) the 15-item questionnaire was used. Because of its psychometric properties, this instrument is accepted in organizational behavior and researchers have used it in a great many published studies, of which 18 have been international in scope (see Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1993). As mentioned, alphas for these instruments have generally been quite high. In our measures the coefficient alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency reliability for the construct within this study. The result was acceptable at .7705. There were however, some missing items in respondent questionnaires. We felt this could have an impact on reliability, but the number of missing answers was very small and the interpretation was that any artifact on reliability was minimal.

Job characteristics were assessed using the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al, 1969), which consists of 72 items. We suggest this index is most psychometrically acceptable as a measure of job satisfaction. To complete the index, subjects were asked to indicate their satisfaction with five job components (work, pay, co-workers, promotion and supervision) by rating whether listed items were descriptive of the respective dimensions. A global job satisfaction measure was formed by averaging the component scores (Porter et al, 1974; Teas, 1983). The resulting reliability analysis yielded an acceptable alpha of .8526.

Organizational characteristics were computed by using an Organizational Effectiveness Measure (Mott, 1972) consisting of eight items, each with five response categories which reflected strong to weak positions on each item. The reliability for this single construct was acceptable at .9103.

Work experiences were assessed through the analysis of 11 additional items on the questionnaire. To determine participation in decision making, a single item was asked as to whether respondents were members of a continuous improvement team. These work teams involved groups of employees that meet once in a while to identify, analyze and solve problems related to safety, quality, and productivity in their work areas. To determine leader behavior, 10 items were used from the Managerial Behavior Survey (Yukl, 1981). There were 6 items reflecting initiating structure and 5 items reflecting consideration. These yielded acceptable alphas of .9427 and .9322, respectively.

Finally, in addition to the measures, the translated questionnaire included demographic variables like gender, age, years of education, years of employment, number of times promoted, and number of months since last promotion.

The parent MNC was committed to developing organizational commitment in its host operations similar to those of the parent company and the researcher was part of this effort. While not a great deal of previous data was given, managers at the corporate headquarters were able to provide confidential verbal confirmation of low, medium and high satisfaction and commitment as well as details on their leadership development. This meeting took place in 2002. As part of this commitment, the parent undertook a series of data based organizational assessments, the results of which had been reported to be relatively low job satisfaction, low affective commitment among industrial workers, but medium high behavioral and continuance commitment. It was postulated this was because workers in the US site lived in a small town with limited other prospects. Interviews with managers in the parent organization suggested that there while organizational commitment at the MNC was high, there were other cultural characteristics of the parent organization they might not desire to transfer. Specifically, interviews suggested an increased concern with pay satisfaction and personal ascension, increased responsibility, and the procedures associated with rewarding performance. According to the first table, this would be easiest if the two work cultures are non-similar. Of course, this isn't the case; we'll see what happens when a cultural distance is needed and not available in the rest of the paper. This is where the assimilation takes place.

3.1 Propositions

Based on a review of the literature and focused interviews with the firm's principals in the parent and host countries a set of research propositions relating to cultural transfer was developed. The literature suggested that the parent company's focus on worker commitment, and its active management of the antecedent conditions noted in the literature, would stimulate the host unit to adopt programs and practices from the parent. This transfer would likely take place even if practices were contrary to traditional norms and culture. The observations and insights we desired to achieve were as follows:

3.1.1 Proposition 1:

Host country workers will adopt cultural characteristics of the parent firm's culture. While the parent company began their Mexican operations 6 years ago; thus, workers should have had ample time to develop processes for the transfer of cultural values such as selection, training, and reinforcement through management action and reward schemes. .

3.1.2 Proposition 2:

Psychological work attitudes of organizational commitment will change over time. A corollary argument is that commitment between home and host organizations will converge over time. These include Meyer and Allen's affective, behavioral and continuance commitment. Commitment levels will be moderated then by time on job, leadership styles, educational levels, job satisfaction, gender and age. In all measures, approximately 90% of workers who represent both line (69%) and staff workers participated in the research. In total 227 employees participated. 151 workers were confidentially tracked in all surveys. The typical subject was a 28 year old female, these samples averaged 60% female, with a high school education and average employment tenure of about 48 months. New hires were excluded if they had less than 6 months of service. Descriptive statistics for the respondents are in Table 1. They are reflective of the workplace demographics of the Mexican economy: mostly female, relatively young with a fairly large number of older women. The educational attainment of the subjects was also typical for the workforce. Most have completed technical high school, could read and write, and some had good knowledge of the English language. Most workers made about USD\$2.10 per day. Workers answered questionnaires and participated in focus groups during their regular shifts.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics.

Demographic Characteristic	Measure 1 (N=162)	Measure 2 (N=151)	Measure 3 (N=167)	Measure 4 (N=181)
Age	Mean = 28.13 SD = 7.01	27.6/6.1	27.51/7.1	28.8/7.1
Gender	58% female	66% female	62% female	67% female
Time in Job	12 months/4.3	23.2 months/5.2	31.2 months/7.1	34 months/4.33
Education Level	Tecnica (most have completed technical high school.	Tecnica	Tecnica	Tecnica

Correlation tables between major variables are presented in Tables 2 through 5.

Table 2. Correlations of Variables, Measure 1.

Variable	J.Sat	Commit	Effect	LB	Age	Tenure	Gender	Edu.
Job Satisfaction (J.Sat)	1 n=162							
Commitment	-.19	1						
Effectiveness	.15	.01	1					
Leader Behaviors	-.004	.15	.33**	1				
Age	-.17	.20	.24	.35**	1			
Tenure	-.22	.14	.07	.37**	.34* *	1		
Gender	-.02	.07	-.40**	-.09	-.05	-.06	1	
Education	.28*	-.15	.49**	.18	.12	.05	-.24	1

* = Sig @.05 level; ** = Sig @ .01 level.

Table 3. Correlations of Variables, Measure 2.

Variable	J.Sat	Commit	Effect	LB	Age	Tenure	Gend	Edu.
Job Satisfaction (J.Sat)	1 n=151							
Commitment	-.17*	1						
Effectiveness	-.19*	.29**	1					
Leader Behaviors	-.32* *	.26**	.51**	1				
Age	.19*	.14	.18*	.23**	1			
Tenure	.04	-.03	-.17*	-.02	.183* *	1		
Gender	-.08	.22**	.21**	.05	.04	-.01	1	
Education	.17	.01	.01	.15	.22* *	.28**	.09	1

* = Sig @.05 level; ** = Sig @ .01 level.

Table 4. Correlations of Variables, Measure 3.

Variable	J.Sat	Commit	Effect	LB	Age	Tenure	Gender	Edu.
Job Satisfaction (J.Sat)	1 n=167							
Commitment	.08	1						
Effectiveness	.11	.29*	1					
Leader Behaviors	.08	.22	.29*	1				
Age	-.17	.20	.26*	.30**	1			
Tenure	-.24	.25*	.08	.36**	.27*	1		
Gender	.14	.14	-.35**	-.05	-.1	-.09	1	
Education	.28*	-.06	.46**	.16	.26*	-.05	-.22	1

* = Sig @.05 level; ** = Sig @ .01 level.

Table 5. Correlations of Variables, Measure 4.

Variable	J.Sat	Commit	Effect	LB	Age	Tenure	Gender	Edu.
Job Satisfaction (J.Sat)	1 n=182							
Commitment	.18**	1						
Effectiveness	.01	.20**	1					
Leader Behaviors (LB)	-.02	.19**	.41**	1				
Age	.08	-.05	.15**	.20**	1			
Tenure	.07	.04	.15**	.22**	.39**	1		
Gender	.13*	-.07	-.14*	-.04	-.06	.06	1	
Education	-.09	-.17**	-.08	.13*	.31**	.19**	-.1	1

*= Sig @.05 level; ** = Sig @ .01 level.

In each year, regression analyses were conducted in order to predict commitment and its components from the independent variables. The analysis typifies the approach taken in the empirical tests of commitment. The results, in tables 6 through 9, illustrate changes in the prediction of commitment over time. Note there are no direct predictors of overall commitment and affective commitment. In Time 1, which is a time when the facility is new, and the employees all have relatively short time in their jobs. Behavioral commitment is predicted by initiating structure, consideration, and overall leadership behaviors. Continuance commitment is predicted by organizational effectiveness, and educational level. The interpretation is that people want to know what to do, and be shown some patience as they learn. To keep going, continuance commitment, persons wanted to perceive that it was a good company. More educated persons wanted to know if there was security for their skills and education. To workers, it was a good job and they were happy with their company. They would communicate this with the phrase “*yo tengo la camiseta*”, or “*I have the shirt on.*” Literally, this is the corporate shirt with the logo or literally agreeing with the company and its policies.

Table 6. Multiple Regression Predicting Organizational Commitment, Mexico, Time 1.

Category/ Variable	Overall Commitment	Affective Commitment	Behavioral Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Job Satisfaction	F=2.26/ Sig.=.13	3.57/.06	.193/.662	.773/.38
Initiating Structure	1.39/.24	1.01/.29	8.2/.006**	1.76/.18
Consideration	1.37/.24	2.42/.12	5.9/.018*	2.46/.122
Leadership Behaviors	1.43/.23	1.7/.19	7.4/.008**	2.14/.14
Age	2.4/.12	2.5/.11	.188/.175	.16/.68
Time with Company (tenure)	1.15/.27	1.4/.23	1.99/.16	.117/.73
Effectiveness	.012/.9	.2/.65	2.7/.1	4.3/.04*
Gender	.312/.57	1.14/.28	.178/.67	.258/.61
Educational Level	1.3/.25	1.18/.28	.95/.34	6.86/.011*

*=sig. @.05 level; **=sig. @ .01 level.

In Time 2, there was some growth in the predictability of commitment. Here, overall commitment was predicted by time spent with the company, and organizational effectiveness. In essence, the more time spent and the better the company seemed as a workplace, the more commitment people seemed to show. Affective commitment was predicted by the leadership behavior of consideration, time with the company, and organizational effectiveness. The interpretation is the longer persons spent with the company, the more

considerate and structure oriented leaders seemed to be and the better the company seemed, the more people liked the company. Remember, this is year two. Finally, behavioral commitment was predicted by the leadership behaviors of initiating structure and consideration, time with the company, and organizational effectiveness. This is the same as affective commitment. Finally, continuance commitment had no significant predictors in year 2. This Effectiveness and educational level dropped out from year one. In practice, focus groups showed that more educated people felt overwhelmed with the workload. They also judged their continuance on their education, not necessarily on their company. This is the first movement in the wall of cultural change. Professional workers in the United States report they aren't as loyal to their organization as they are to their professions. "*Tengo a veces la camiseta*", or "*at times I have the shirt.*"

Table 7. Multiple Regression Predicting Organizational Commitment, Mexico, Time 2.

Category/ Variable	Overall Commitment	Affective Commitment	Behavioral Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Job Satisfaction	F=.45/ Sig.= .505	.00/.991	1.058/.307	.646/.425
Initiating Structure	3.645/.061	3.101/.083	9.918/.002**	.000/.985
Consideration	3.04/.086	4.172/.045*	7.344/.009**	.135/.714
Leadership Behaviors	3.495/.066	3.711/.058	9.051/.004**	.033/.856
Age	2.86/.096	2.984/.089	3.167/.08	.624/.432
Time with Company (tenure)	4.5/.038*	4.718/.033*	5.703/.02*	.677/.414
Effectiveness	5.98/.017*	5.489/.022*	10.933/.002**	.360/.551
Gender	1.4/.240	1.882/.175	.313/.578	1.34/.286
Educational Level	.233/.631	.406/.526	.739/.107	2.664/.107

*=sig. @.05 level; **=sig. @ .01 level

Table 8. Multiple Regression Predicting Organizational Commitment, Mexico, Time 3.

Category/ Variable	Overall Commitment	Affective Commitment	Behavioral Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Job Satisfaction	F=4.303/ Sig.=.04*	1.972/.162	7.467/.007**	.992/.321
Initiating Structure	8.118/.005**	13.736/.00**	12.543/.001**	.210/.647
Consideration	13.012/.00**	14.293/.00**	17.957/.00**	.516/.474
Leadership Behaviors	11.102/.00**	15.336/.00**	16.263/.00**	.005/.942
Age	2.836/.094	.012/.913	.001/.975	.597/.441
Time with Company (tenure)	.093/.761	.012/.913	.001/.975	.597/.441
Effectiveness	14.222/.00**	16.014/.00**	21.787/.00**	.222/.638
Gender	1.4/.24	1.8/.17	.31/.57	1.31/.25
Educational Level	.010/.919	.014/.906	.441/.508	.405/.526

*=sig. @.05 level; **=sig. @ .01 level

In Time 3, the picture grows more complex, and there are more significant predictors of commitment. Overall commitment is now predicted by job satisfaction, leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, and overall organizational effectiveness. Behavioral commitment has the same predictors. At this stage, the work, supervision, pay, promotion potential and coworkers take on greater importance. This is the first time satisfaction becomes tied to commitment. This is also very different than Harrison and Hubbard's (1998) cross sectional findings reporting no connection. Time 3 has some interesting artifacts. First, it is just after the initiation of a certification process on an assembly line where workers were asked to work faster, and to master most of the tasks on the line instead of just one. Here, supervisors were coaching greater participation and work, sometimes negatively. It is the negative perceptions of supervisor behavior that make the measurement of affective commitment and behavioral commitment salient. This is also borne out in the finding that continuance commitment had no significant predictors in year 3. To these workers, it was a job. "*No Tengo la Camiseta.*" At this stage, please note the cultural movement of the metaphorical shirt. Workers are saying, "I have the shirt." "Sometimes I have it." "I don't have that shirt." This is an element of the cultural movement the study proposes. When measured in the United States, workers had a very similar profile, were represented by labor unions, and had more than a few years to decide on their satisfaction and commitment. The experience factor, the time in rank, the access to corporate data, and the interaction with home managers all serve to bring workers to a state of agreement with their home country colleagues whether they know it or not!

In Time 4, the picture grows more complex still. There are more predictors of commitment coming into significance. The directional predictions are also changing. In this period, overall commitment is predicted by job satisfaction, leadership behaviors of initiating structure and consideration, organizational effectiveness and educational level. Note the relative importance of leadership behavior. Structure and consideration are especially important to line workers and their affective and behavioral commitment measures show it. Note also, that satisfaction now predicts all facets of commitment, including one that didn't measure previously: Continuance commitment. At this time, workers began looking around for jobs with a few more pesos. Reports were that workers would move to an extra 10%, from USD\$2 to USD\$2.20 per day! Supervisor behaviors continued to predict affective commitment and behavioral commitment, but not continuance. Affective commitment was predicted by job satisfaction, leadership behaviors, age, time with company, and organizational effectiveness. Behavioral commitment was predicted by job satisfactions, leadership behaviors, effectiveness, and gender. Please note that there were more women in the study, so females tended to be more behaviorally committed at this time. That's probably a function of fewer opportunities and less mobility than men. Finally, continuance commitment was predicted by job satisfaction, age, and educational level. Note the directionality of the predictors this time. It has switched from previous years. At this time, continuance commitment is predicted by job satisfaction – that's understandable and consistent. Continuance commitment however, is now inversely related to age and educational level. This is a reversal of time 1. Essentially, the older the more likely one would be to look around. That's relative: this is a young workforce. The more educated, the more likely one would show overall commitment: there's a job to do. Education, however, only goes so far in terms of employment with one company. More education creates more opportunities. Mexican professionals are far more likely to be mobile. This measurement also reflects the notion that the higher the education, the more likely persons are to take on side bets. This is exactly what is measured in the home company.

Table 9. Multiple Regression Predicting Organizational Commitment, Mexico, Time 4.

Category/ Variable	Overall Commitment	Affective Commitment	Behavioral Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Job Satisfaction	F=12.244/ Sig.=.001**	4.753/.03*	9.353/.002**	12.023/.001**
Initiating Structure	11.166/.00**	27.657/.00**	18.767/.00**	.638/.425
Consideration	14.531/.00**	34.713/.00**	22.291/.00**	.352/.503
Leadership Behaviors	13.087/.00**	33.729/.00**	22.259/.00**	.544/.461
Age	.777/.379	3.73/.05*	.708/.401	-2.941/.003**
Time with Company (tenure)	.651/.420	8.694/.00**	2.790/.096	-.414/.679
Effectiveness	15.328/.00**	25.090/.00**	20.01/.00**	.344/.588
Gender	2.136/.145	5.767/.097	5.428/.02*	.88/.767
Educational Level	11.720/.00**	2.176/.141	.688/.402	-4.874/.00**

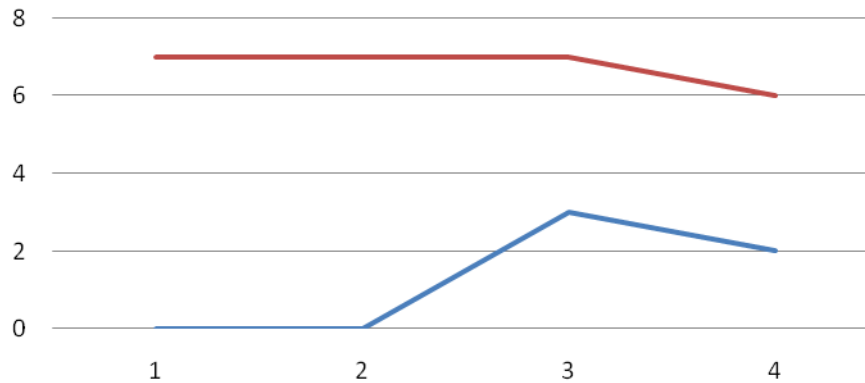
*=sig. @.05 level; **=sig. @ .01 level

Of particular interest is the number of predictors for commitment coming into significance over time. Table 10 shows the increase in predictors. Note that in year 4 there are far more predictors of commitment across the spectrum. As people grow to know the company, the factors that predict commitment grow. Whereas leadership takes on early importance, as does the apparent wellness of the company, later, demographic and satisfaction factors also come into play.

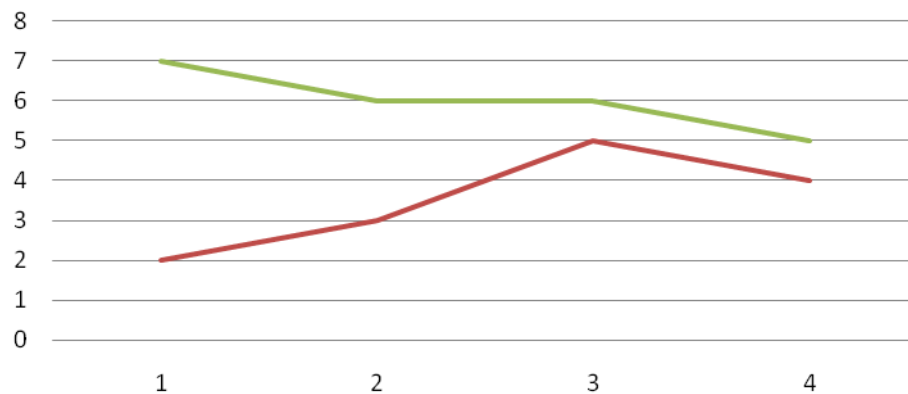
Table 10. Increasing number of predictors of commitment in each year, Mexico/USA.

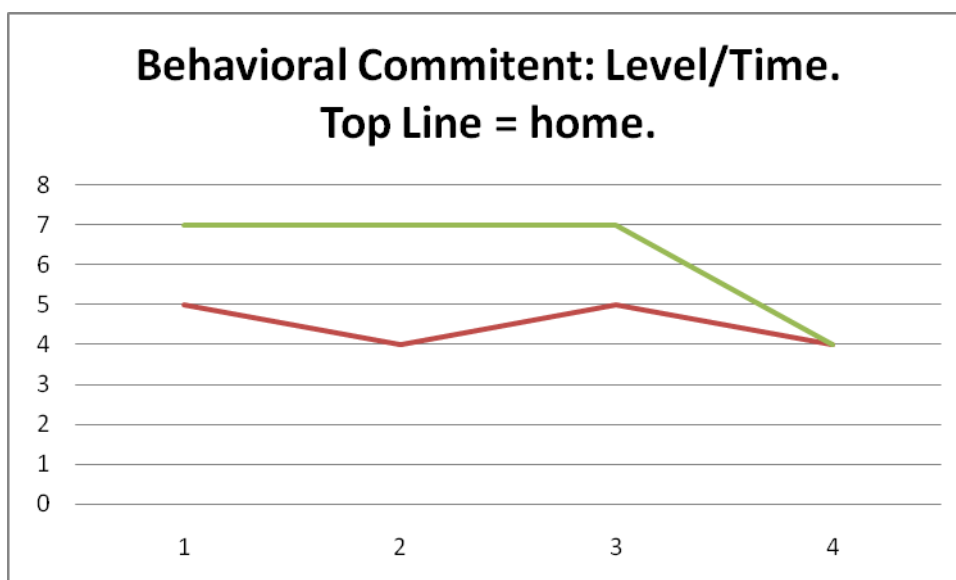
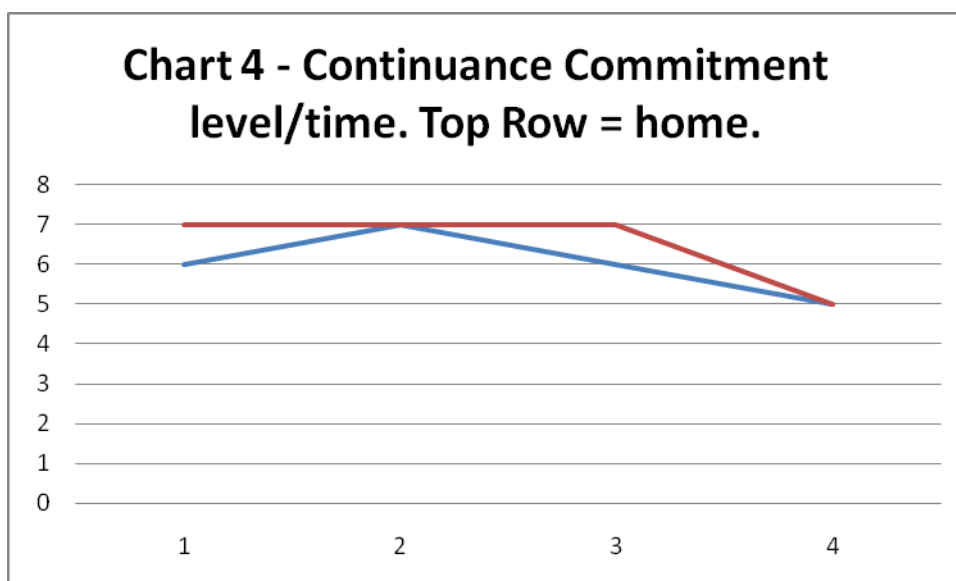
Variable/Year	Overall Commitment	Affective Commitment	Behavioral Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Year 1	0/7	0/7	3/4	2/4
Year 2	2/7	3/7	5/7	0/4
Year 3	5/7	4/7	5/7	0/4
Year 4	6/7	7/7	6/7	3/4

**Chart 1: Overall Commitment/Time
Home & Host: Top Line = Home**



**Chart 2: Affective Commitment:
level /time. Top Row = Home.**





4. Discussion

The purpose of this research was to investigate the predictors and dynamics of organizational commitment among workers in Mexico. The use of widely accepted instruments provides generalize-ability and adds insight to the growing knowledge base of international employee attitude formation. A discussion of the research propositions follows.

4.1 Proposition 1:

Host country workers will adopt cultural characteristics of the parent firm's culture. While the parent company began their Mexican operations 6 years ago; thus, workers should have had ample time to develop processes for the transfer of cultural values.

4.2 Proposition 2:

Psychological work attitudes of organizational commitment will change over time. A corollary argument is that commitment between home and host organizations will converge over time. There were a number of instances where host country nationals did in fact adopt characteristics of the parent culture. Evidence for this exists in at least three formats. First, focus group interviews over time show evidence of host country nationals gaining significant knowledge of the home company's culture and processes. Second, observation of employees shows increasing awareness of collective bargaining tactics that are common in the home situation. Finally, empirical measures show an increasing number of salient job attitude predictors of organizational commitment. To add strength, the research method here was multi-trait and multi-method. Among the data collection techniques utilized were the focus group, the questionnaire, and the direct observation. As mentioned earlier in the paper, focus groups were conducted in each measurement period to align the conceptual space of satisfaction, job attitudes, and commitment as being and remaining germane. Of additional interest in focus group, was information provided relating to work, and the special conditions workers face. Among issues that were frequently heard, were:

- That the home company required ongoing employee development for workers to maintain production certification.
- That overtime was frequently used to meet a production quota, without the typical overtime pay that United States' based employees earned.
- That tools and safety equipment was getting old and needed to be more frequently replaced.
- Supervisors tended to demand a great deal more production than the typical production job in the regions of Mexico where these facilities operated.

The predictors of organizational commitment converge on an annual basis. There is a plausible explanation for this. In this particular instance, the home company was establishing new operations in Mexico. Since this is a multinational corporation in the automotive industry, and a valued addition to the employment base in the regions where it opened, employees were looking for cues regarding how to behave, and reasons to like or not like the company as an employer. In this regard, general commitment isn't predicted, but behavioral commitment is shown. Leadership behaviors like consideration and initiating structure give cues regarding how to act in a "good company", in this case, a multinational corporation. Continuance commitment is also of interest. Educational level and company reputation as an effective organization predict whether someone will develop continuance commitment early.

The development of psychological work attitudes in relationship to organizational commitment in this case are moderated by the number of years a worker spends on the job. In fact, over time, commitment levels and predictors converge where Mexican employees develop approximately the same predictors of commitment as home country nationals do. If we examine measures over time, there are increasing predictors of commitment over time. The portfolio of predictors rounds out from a prediction of behavioral and continuance

commitment early to prediction of overall commitment (please see tables 6-10, plus charts 1 – 4). Year four measures mirror aggregate commitment measures in domestic operations for the home company. In essence, the Mexican employee becomes more like the employee in Iowa, Nebraska, New Mexico, or California. Are there explanations? Possibly. One could use a maturity explanation, and indicate that the more time one spends employed, the more one learns and acts in manners consistent with corporate culture. This is an interesting argument for the multinational manager. If their plans are to utilize a host country workforce and assume that productivity will stay the same, due to cultural reasons, even though pay doesn't differ, those plans may have to be re-examined. In this case, commitment is a "moving target", a "tarjeta movil". Higher rents from cultural differences only last for a period of time, predictable by the state of the culture, the relative dynamic and cross cultural influences, and the reliability of the measures. In this case, the parent focused primarily on policies that would increase worker commitment and satisfaction. This action was taken in the belief that they would be able to transfer pieces of its corporate culture to the host rather than transferring its culture whole. The expected outcome was that the positive parts of culture would transfer and mesh with positive parts of Mexican culture. The unintended consequence was that Mexican employees became more like their American counterparts. Instead of creating parts of the parent company culture in Mexico, over time they created a more unified workforce resembling parent company culture.

Educational level predicted continuance commitment early. The predictive ability of educational level fell out of the equations in years two and three, and came back in year four as a predictor of overall commitment, and continuance commitment. Please note the relationship and directionality of this predictor. Educational level predicts overall commitment in year four. The higher the educational level, the more committed the workforce was overall. This is explained in focus interviews, where over time, employees realize that the employment relationship isn't that bad, and feel overall that they are committed to the organization. In fact, educational level takes on increased predictive ability as the years go by. The explanation for this is that for overall commitment, early, the jury is still out in terms of commitment. Later on, however, educational level takes on salience.

The directionality of continuance commitment changed over time. Early, the more education a person had, the more continuance commitment they showed. The explanation that arose in focus group was that more highly educated persons more willing to "wait and see" before they formulated a judgment regarding job satisfaction and workplace happiness. Four years later, the same persons were more willing to recognize there were other opportunities in the environment. The more education they had, the more likely they were to indicate they would switch jobs if the right opportunity came along. This may also reveal some differences with literature (Harrison and Hubbard, 1998). In the earlier work, Harrison and Hubbard indicated that Mexican nationals were not likely to be job switchers.

Similar to other findings, the study largely found that gender did not play a role in the commitment formation processes. The one counter example was in Time 4 where gender showed a predictive relationship in behavioral commitment. While commitment measures did

change over time with increasing salience of supervisor behaviors, job satisfaction, education, and time on task, gender remained surprisingly out of the picture. This workforce was approximately 58% women, mostly younger women. It may be reasonably explained that in this case, and in these cities, young women find fewer viable alternatives because they have limited education and only general labor skills. Also present are family, church, children, and community. My understanding is that in this particular position, it is likely that women in this facility will work harder and show more consistent desired behaviors when others are developing commitment issues because there is little else to do and their income is necessary for the family.

Measures of commitment did change with age and resemble experience factors. Times 1-3 showed no relationships with age. In Time 4, the relationship seemed to arise where the older workers got, the more affective commitment they showed. This was a weak relationship at best. Perhaps it is an artifact of a fourth year of measurement where employees have all seen this before, although in different formats and orders. What is interesting is that the more a person had experience with the company, the older a person got, the more likely they were to appreciate the job, but be open to changes. This is similar to the old phrase, “if I had a nickel, I’d leave this dump.”

This actually is a very interesting measure. Of all the measures, longitudinally, the organizational effectiveness measure is uniformly the most predictive of overall, affective, behavioral, and continuance commitment. There is an importance of corporate reputation in motivating employees in developing countries. Very little has been done in this area, however, the power of corporate culture and the importance of working for a “good company”, one of which an employee can be proud seems a reasonable explanation. The question, however, is “where does reputation end, and corporate culture take over?” Reputation may be the predictor of early commitment in many organizations. However, later on, “reputation” becomes “realistic job preview”, where reputation impacts become part of the corporate culture transfer.

Group interviews largely reinforced the notions that supervisor behavior, organizational effectiveness, and job satisfaction were important among workers. While the Constitution of Mexico guarantees employment, it was reinforced that it is important to work for a “good company”. Employees in Mexico like to feel that their company is doing well because of their efforts. Of unique interest, however is the report from employees that strongly desire individual achievement recognition, promotions on merit, participation, and strong policies on sexual harassment. This is counter to the notion in Hofstede that Mexican workers are collective, power distance accepting, masculine, and uncertainty avoiding. While it may have appeared this way in the first measure of satisfaction, it certainly changed for the second measure when more people were included, and where employees had greater opportunity to become enculturated in the company.

This is the first longitudinal research on employment attitudes conducted in Central or South America. While others (Harrison and Hubbard, 1998) explore cross sectional data and find no relationship between satisfaction and commitment, this study finds a more mobile set of

findings when data is explored longitudinally. Early, the results closely resembled those of Harrison and Hubbard (1998). There was no relationship between satisfaction and commitment and more situational factors like leadership behaviors and company perception influenced elements of job commitment. The early parts of this study replicated these findings. In the longer term ranging over years that involve the same workers, the findings that job attitude measurement and predictive findings for commitment begin to represent measures of the home company in the United States. Initially this was somewhat surprising, for scholars like Hofstede (1972) postulate a national culture that is relatively unchanging. Perhaps there are two supportable realities here. The first, like that of Hofstede, predict a Mexican culture that is uncertainty avoidant, masculine, power distance accepting, and somewhat collectivistic in nature (Singh and Baack, 2004). This report indicates that is a starting place, and that cultural norms adapt to the work situation. Mexican workers attitudinally represented the Mexican worker portrayed by Harrison and Hubbard (1998). Over time, they adopted the home company culture, complete with corporate language, shared meaning, and job attitudes that resembled those of production and/or professional workers (Avny et al, 2008). It did, however, take time. It was observed that workers, once away from the job, began to attitudinally show cultural and attitudinal traits common in the Mexican family and society. On more than one occasion the researcher had opportunity to observe this through eating common cuisine of a cultural historic nature. These were *Escamoles* or larvae of ants that grow in agave plants. Another dish was the *Chahuis*, or Mexican Beetle. A final two dishes were oxtail marrow and sautéed grasshopper legs. Workers would say “*yo tenemos escamoles.*” The cultural meaning is important here. It reminds people where they came from and reminds persons of their roots. Perhaps this is similar to the Norwegian eating *lutefisk*. Nonetheless, the mobility between cultures, the knowledge of collective bargaining, wage policies, benefits issues and corporate news serves the employee with cultural information that can benefit him or her.

Managerial Implications

For managers, the information is also important. We produce in developing or industrializing countries, in part due to low wages and expectations. Managers need to know their assumptions in relationship to the intractability or culture may be wrong. The attitudes and cultural norms under examination for new employees may resemble national culture. Those attitudes may change and necessitate a re-examination of business goals for that facility. Home country managers may find themselves part of a collective bargaining debate. They may find themselves as part of a work slowdown for higher wages and more benefits (in Mexico this presents a unique challenge because of the constitutional nature of the employment contract). Managers may find that the annual financial targets they desire to meet are increasingly difficult. The choice is to accept a lowering of projected results in the business model, moving the facility, or sticking through some tough times to come. This is partially due to the cultural assimilation that workers have when becoming part of the employment relationship on a multinational basis. My suspicion is this isn't only true for Mexico, but also for China (Peterson, 1997). It is probably true in developing countries like Brazil, India, Russia, South Africa, and most developing nations. As my daughter likes to

read *Give a Mouse a Cookie* (Numeroff and Bond, 1998), I am increasingly aware of the changing expectations of the international workforce which is part a cultural assimilation to the business practices of the home country.

Further research may want to the changing nature of employee satisfaction as it applies to different cultures. Further, one may want to explore how corporate culture affects employee perceptions and standard outlooks that are provided to them from their unique and valuable culture. At stake, is quicker adaptation and better training of managers who are entering the expatriate relationship. Workers in Mexico, when they're committed to their workplace say "*Yo tengo la camiseta*" (Peterson and Puia (2000a and 2000b), which means "I have the shirt on". To get to that place, however, managers must realize that commitment is much more of a moving target in expatriate relationships and in host national commitment than previously was thought. In this case, since the Spanish word for "commitment" is "*Compromiso*", which is instructive to the English language speaker since it has a basic interpretation of "compromise". In fact one may say compromise, on both sides, is important. A stage further, however is the phrase, "*compromiso es una blanco móvil*", which means, that commitment, is a moving target, and it is this moving target, and the changing nature of cultural influence because of the work relationship that makes achieving commitment, "*Difícilito*", or "a wee bit difficult". The results suggest that culture as a construct is much richer and more inter-related than indicated in the common validated regional affiliation model. Culture appears perceived and received as a whole. While the parent firm was successful in transferring certain desirable norms and values, it also inadvertently transmitted values that might lead to lower worker satisfaction or higher worker dissatisfaction. The findings have important implications for multinational practitioners. The results suggest that while managers should determine the relevant factors that contribute to employee satisfaction and commitment and focus upon those, they must also be aware of how their entire culture is perceived by the host workforce. Clearly, practitioners need to develop rigorous and systematic approaches to gathering and interpreting feedback in both their home and host settings.

References

- Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1993). Organizational commitment: Evidence of career stage effects? *Journal of Business Research*, (26), 49-61.
- Angle, H., & Lawson, M. (1993) Changes in affective and continuance commitment in times of relocation. *Journal of Business Research*, (26), 3-15.
- A-Qarioti, M.Q., Al-Enezi, A. (2004) Organizational commitment of managers in Jordan: A field study. *International Journal of Public Administration*, (27), 331-352.
- Aven, F.F., Parker, B., & McEvoy, G.M. (1993). Gender and attitudinal commitment to Organizations: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, (26), 63-73.
- Avny, G., Anderson, A R. (2008) Organisational culture, national culture and performance in International Joint Ventures based in Israel, *International Journal of Business and Globalisation*, 2(2) 133-145.

- Bishop, J.W., Scott, K.D., Goldsby, M.G., Cropanzano, R. (2005). A construct validity study of commitment and perceived support variables: A multifoci approach across different team environments. *Group and Organization Management*, (30), 153-180.
- Rubin-Kurtzman, J.R., and Denman, C.A. (2007). Women's work and women's health in Mexico. California Center of Population Research (May), 1-23.
- Datta, D. and Puia, G.M. (1995). Cross border acquisitions: An examination of the influence of relatedness and cultural fit on shareholder value creation in U.S. acquiring firms. *Management International Review*, (35), 337-359.
- de Forest, M.E. (1994). Thinking of a plant in Mexico? *Academy of Management Executive*, (8), 33-40.
- Glazer, S., Daniel, S.C., Short, K.M. (2004) A study of the relationship between organizational commitment and human values in four countries. *Human Relations*, (57), 323 – 345.
- Glisson, C., & Durick, M. (1988). Predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in human service organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, (33), 61-81.
- Gregersen, H.B., & Black, J.S. (1992). Antecedents to commitment to a parent company and a foreign operation. *Academy of Management Journal*, (35), 61-81.
- Harrison, J. K., Hubbard, R. (1998) Antecedents to organizational commitment among Mexican employees of a U.S. firm in Mexico. *The Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, (138); pg. 609-624.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values*. (Newbury Park: Sage Publications)
- Heusinkveld, P. (1994). *Inside Mexico*. New York: Wiley.
- Kets de Vries, M., and Korotov, K. (2006). The Future of European Business Leadership. *European Business Forum* (24), 36-42.
- Konrad, A.M. (2005) Editorial Comment. *Group and Organization Management*, (30), 127-128.
- Kras, E.S. (1989). *Management in two cultures*. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.
- Kras, E., & Whatley, A. (1990). Using organizational development technology in Mexico: Issues and problems. *International Journal of Management*, (7), 196-204.
- Laschinger, H.K., Finegan, J.E., Shamian, J., Wilk, P. (2004) Longitudinal analysis of the impact of workplace empowerment on work satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (25) 527-545.
- Lloyd, B., Trompenaars, F. (1993) Culture and Change: Conflict or consensus? *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, (14), 17.

- Mathieu, J.E., & Zajac, D.M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, (108), 171-194.
- McKinniss, C.B., & Natella, A. (1994). *Business in Mexico: Managerial behavior, protocol, and etiquette*. New York: Haworth Press.
- Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1984). Testing the “side-bet story” of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, (69), 372-378.
- Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1987). A longitudinal analysis of the early development and consequences of organizational commitment. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science*, (19), 199-215.
- Morris, T., & Pavett, C.M. (1992). Management style and productivity in two cultures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, (1), 169-179.
- Mott, P.E. (1972) *The Characteristics of Effective Organizations*. New York: Harper and Rowe.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Numeroff, L.J., Bond, F. (1997). *If You Give A Mouse A Cookie*. New York: Harper Collins, 1-38.
- Peterson, D.K. Xing, Y.Y. (2007) Correlates and Predictors to Organizational Commitment in China. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*. (1) 30-45.
- Peterson. D.K. & Puia, G.M. (2000a). Yo Tengo La Camista (I have the shirt on): An exploration of commitment and satisfaction among workers in Mexico. *Proceedings of the Southwest Academy of International Business*. 153-171.
- Peterson, D.K., Puia, G.M. (2000b) Compromiso es dificilito (Commitment is tricky): A longitudinal study of multicultural worker commitment in supply chain management. Paper in the *Proceedings of the Pan Pacific Business Association, Annual Meeting in Gold Coast, Australia*. 80-82.
- Randall, D.M. (1993). Cross-cultural research on organizational commitment: A review and application of Hofstede’s value survey module. *Journal of Business Research*, (26), 91-110.
- Schuler, R.S., Jackson, S.E., Jackofsky, E., & Slocum, J.W. (1996). Managing human resources in Mexico: A cultural understanding. *Business Horizons*, (May), 55-61.
- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L. & Hulin, C.L. (1969) *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement*. Chicago: Rand-McNally.
- Teas, R.K. (1983). Supervisory behavior, role stress, and job satisfaction of industrial salespeople. *Journal of Marketing Research*, (20), 84-91.

Triandis, H. (1983). Essentials of studying cultures. In D.Landis & R. W. Brislin (Eds.), *Handbook of Intercultural Training* (Vol.1). New York: Pergamon Press.

Trompenaars, F. (1996). Resolving international conflict: Culture and business strategy. *Business Strategy Review*. (7), 51.

Yukl, G.A. (1981). *Leadership in organization*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Wang, Y. (2004). Observations on the organizational commitment of Chinese Employees: comparative studies of state-owned enterprises and foreign-invested enterprises. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. (15), 649-669.

Wasti, S.A. (2003). Organizational commitment, turnover intentions and the influence of cultural values. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, (76), p. 303-321.