

Examining the Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment:

Study of Higher Education Sector in Northern Cyprus

Dilem Dana

Thesis:	Examining the Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment
Program and/or course:	Strategic Human Resource Management and Labour Relations
Level:	Second Cycle
Semester/year:	Spring Semester/ 2017
Supervisor:	Karin Allard / Kristina Håkansson
Examiner:	
Report no:	

Abstract

Thesis: Examining the Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment

Program: Strategic Human Resource Management and Labour Relations

Level:	Second Cycle
Semester/year:	Spring Semester/2017
Supervisor:	Karin Allard / Kristina Håkansson
Examiner:	
Report No:	
	WFC, FWC, Affective commitment, continuance commitment,
Keyword:	Northern Cyprus

- Purpose: This study examined the impact of work-to-family conflict (WFC) and familyto-work conflict (FWC) on two forms of organizational commitment, namely affective commitment and continuance commitment on full-time academic staff of two universities in Northern Cyprus.
- Theory: Two main theories have been tested in the current study; one for Organizational commitment and one for Work-Family Conflict Concept. The organizational commitment has been operationalized by the Three Component Model by Meyer and Allen (1991) and work-family conflict concept (WFCC) has been operationalized by the integrative model of Gutek et al. (1991). An addition to that, social identity theory has been used as an explanation for the current results.
- Method: 300 random selected academic employees have been reached from five departments in two universities; engineering, health, education, art and science and business and economics. Hard-copy questionnaires have been distributed and in total, 192 of them have been returned with a response rate of 64%.
- Result: Results revealed that the two main independent variables, WFC and FWC have a weak influence on two forms organizational commitment (affective and continuance) in the Northern Cypriot context. Gender did not moderate the relationship between WFCC and organizational commitment. Furthermore, two

control variables, age and perceived organizational support (POS) suggested an additional explanation for organizational commitment. Specifically, age has been found to have a strong negative influence on continuance commitment and POS has moderate positive influence on affective commitment for Northern Cypriot context.

Foreword

Pursuing Masters in Sweden, experiencing a totally new culture and take new challenges were totally memorable and exciting. It was a great two years in my life with a great life experience and with full of amazing people around me. I never regret any challenges that I took and this two years changed the whole path of my life. In this section, I wish to acknowledge and thank all the people who have supported me, guidance to me and be next to me through the entire way of finishing my master degree and pursuing my goals.

First and foremost, I thank my supervisors, Karin Allard and Kristina Håkansson. Thank you so much for all the discussions, guidance and advices. Thanks for your patience and time you spent with me to review my drafts and answering my questions. I am extremely appreciated for all your time and opinions to help to improve my thesis.

Second, thank you mom for all the times you had to listen to me and encourage me when I was feeling down. My dad, thank you for being a great role model for me and teach me how to be strong in every situation.

I also thank Messr Al Zaim, for being next to me in all those times, support me and listen to me when I was moaning, being stressful and make myself miserable. You were always make me feel special regardless of all the distances we had.

Table of Contents

Introduction	6
Background	9
Northern Cyprus and Collectivism	9
Theoretical Framework	. 11
Organizational Commitment	. 11
Social Identity Theory	. 13
The Meaning of Work-Family Conflict	. 13
Previous Research	. 17
Antecedents of Organizational Commitment	. 17
Organizational Commitment among Academic Staff	. 21
Organizational Commitment and Gender	. 22
Organizational Commitment and Work-Family Conflict Concept	. 24
Hypotheses and Conceptual Model	1
Method	2
Research Approach	2
Research Design and Statistics	2
Sample and Procedure	3
Demographic Profile	5
Ethical Consideration	5
Measurements	6
Result	9
Correlation between Measures	. 10
Hypotheses Tests	. 12
Discussion	. 19
Main Findings and Implications	. 19
Impact of Work-family Conflict Concept on Organizational Commitment	. 19
Moderation Effect of Gender	. 22
Strengths	. 26
Limitations and Future Research	. 27
Implications	. 28
Conclusion	. 30
Reference list	. 31
Appendices	. 60
Appendix A – Front Letter	. 60
Appendix B – Consent Form and Debriefing Form	61
Appendix C- Questionnaire	. 63

Introduction

The most significant value of an organization is human capital, as many authors express (Bassi&McMurrer, 2007; Nicholson, 2009). In today's globalized world, competitiveness is increasing rapidly and this brings a lot of pressure on organizations to stay legitimate and assure their place in the market. At this point, it is highly crucial for organizations to consider keeping their employees` performance high. The main argument behind this is that in a lot of cases, the long-term success and sustainable development of an organization are obtained from the employees' competencies and performances (Ricketta, 2002). Therefore, anything which can affect or influence performance should be a matter of issue for organizations. There is a considerable amount of evidence showing the benefits of having strongly commitment workforce (Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Marchiori & Henkin, 2004). Organizational commitment is seen one of the most important antecedents of employee's performance (Robinson, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1998; Ricketta, 2002) and effectiveness (Lashinger, 2002). Meta-analyses demonstrate that committed employees are less likely to leave (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993), perform adequately (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Ricketta, 2002) and be good organizational citizens (Meyer et al., 2002; Ricketta, 2002). Therefore, organizational commitment should be perceived as a business necessity to retain employees, optimize their performances and eventually enhance the success of an organization.

Within this high demanding environment, many individuals also have a family life which requires energy, time and effort. Work-family conflict concept (WFCC) is the topic which came out to understand individuals` different roles as a member of a work life and a family life. The clashes occur due to the effort trying to meet the obligations from both roles and domains with a limited resources (Greenhous & Beutell, 1985). This limitation of time and resources and demands from both life domains can cause many outcomes; increased stress, performance loss, decreased work satisfaction and organizational commitment (Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Frone et al.(1992) underlined that WFCC has a huge influence on employees` attitudes and behaviors towards their organization. WFCC has been gaining lots of attention and connected to one of the important reasons affecting employees` commitment (Kiss, 2013; Rehman & Waheed, 2012; Riaz & Hunjra, 2015; Wiley, 1987; Frone et al.1992). Soon (2005) claim that managing WFCC is a crucial business strategy in order to increase organizational commitment and eventually increase general performance of employees. The main aim of this study is to find the impact of bidirectional work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict

(FWC) on the two forms of organizational commitment; affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Even though organizational commitment has been studied a lot in different settings, very little research has been done in the higher educational settings (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006). According to Neumann and Finaly-Neumann (1990), building a strong commitment in universities is crucial. Universities need committed faculty members who are actively part of research activities, prepare new tools and materials for teaching, develop their academic schedule and programs, participate in important academic seminars and build a close relationship with their students. So, the academic staff has been chosen as a target sample for this study. Furthermore, the study will be conducted in Northern Cypriot context because there is a gap in the field of understanding the relationship between WFCC and organizational commitment. Many previous researches in Northern Cyprus were focused on job satisfaction in the tourism sector (Karatepe & Kilic, 2009; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007). Furthermore, a study which examined the academic employees`job satisfaction in Cypriot universities found that academic staff was moderately satisfied with their job and women displayed higher satisfaction than men (Saner & Eyupoglu, 2011). This single study guided the current study's path by bringing up the question of if the satisfaction level is not high among academic staff, how is their commitment level and how men and women differ in terms of organizational commitment level. Therefore, this study will also examine the difference between men and women in relation to WFCC and organizational commitment.

The major value of this study is the contribution on the field on organizational commitment and provide a further explanation in the Northern Cypriot context. Furthermore, there are selected personal/background (age, education, tenure, faculty, marital status, the number of children) and work-related characteristics (job autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, perceived organizational support (POS) and job security) which will be used as control variables.

This research will also contribute an understanding for organizations on how their employees, in this case, academics feel about their organization and their opinions about work and family balance. This will help universities to map and develop certain strategies to deal with WFC/FWC and how they can enhance their employees` commitment level by providing necessary solutions.

In the next section, Northern Cypriot background, theoretical background of the topic and the relevant literature will be represented which will lead to paper's research hypotheses with a

model. This will be followed by the method and results of the empirical study. It will be concluded the paper with the implications of the results and suggestions for future research.

Background

Northern Cyprus and Collectivism

Cyprus (the 3rd largest island in the Mediterranean) has been considered as one of the conflict zones historically. Therefore, many studies on Cyprus covered mainly political and geopolitical perspectives (Gokdemir & Tahsin, 2014). The dynamics like socio-economic and gender related issues seem as one of the most uncovered fields (Gokdemir & Tahsin, 2014). Also, the division of the island into two parts, namely Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus and Republic of Cyprus, created new socio-economic structures for both sides with different problematic concepts like ethnicity or migration. On top of these, Republic of Cyprus joined the EU in 2004 whereas Northern Cyprus is exempt from EU legislation. At this point, it is crucial to emphasize that Northern Cyprus has a lack of international diplomatic recognition and it is mostly dependent on Turkey in terms of economic development. Therefore, Turkish culture is highly integrated in Northern Cyprus and oriental culture and collectivism are main features of Northern Cypriot culture (Malach-Pines & Baruch, 2008). A collectivist culture means that individuals are interdependent and the emphasis on the relationship with others, value the needs of their group and mainly families whereas individualistic cultures are oriented around the self and being independent, not identifying himself/herself with the group (Wasti, 2002). The cultural differences (being individualistic or collectivist) are suggested to have an important indication of social behavior (Markus & Kitayama, 1991 as cited in Wasti, 2002), including employment relationships and organizational commitment (Randall, 1993; Redding, Norman & Schlander, 1994). In the current Cypriot society, similar to Turkish society, the family factor is the most important domain in the society and the impact of the family can be sensed in all part of the daily life (Anafarta, 2011). Furthermore, the family type in Cyprus can be considered as nuclear families due to its collectivist culture (Triandis et al. 1988), meaning that there is a strong tie towards a bigger family, including parents of couples. This structure becomes even stronger because Cyprus is a small island and distances are quite short.

Since the position of women is perceived as an important determinant of the development status of a country, it is crucial to include gender perspective when investigation Northern Cyprus. According to latest Census Population in Northern Cyprus (SPO 2011), 47% of the population was women and 53% was men. Based on the last statistics from North Cyprus Personnel Office, the overall employment ratio for women is 46% and for men, this ratio is 53,9% (January 2017). Compared to the world average of women's overall employment ratio

which is 48% (OECD, 2015), this number represents a quite close ratio to the world average. Therefore, it can be concluded that Northern Cyprus is a country where employment for women is common as much as men. Furthermore, considering the higher education sector, two selected universities are the biggest universities in Northern Cyprus. The first university consists of 1192 women personnel and 1206 men personnel. 654 of the women personnel belong to academic staff whereas only 506 of men personnel are academics. The second university consists of 320 women academic staff and 223 academic employees who are men. In both cases, women proportion is higher than men proportion.

Interestingly, according to Gokdemir and Tahsin (2014)'s study results, life satisfaction of women has been found quite low and this dissatisfaction found to be highly related to family responsibilities. This brings the question of whether this dissatisfaction is connected to have dual responsibilities from work and family domains. In the literature, it is possible to find studies on WFC/FWC in the individualistic societies (Behan & Drobnic, 2010; Carlson et al., 2010; Calvo-Salguero et al. 2010; Lourel et al.2009; Cohen, 2009; Bruck et al., 2002). However, studies for collectivist societies are considerably less (Baral & Bhargava 2010; Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, & Ismail, 2010; Ergeneli, Ilsev, & Karapınar, 2009; Hassan, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010). Therefore, the current study will add an important perspective for collectivist cultures and look-up at Northern Cyprus's situation in terms of organizational commitment its relation to WFC/FWC.

Theoretical Framework

The literature that investigates the relationship between organizational commitment and WFC/FWC covers different models and theoretical perspectives (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Akinteyo, 2010; Hassan et al.2010). Studies in this field have developed and shaped with an emphasis on constant changes in the workplace and behavioral patterns of working environment, families and gender roles (Fallon, 1997). In the following paragraphs, it will be represented two well-known models; one for organizational commitment and one for work-family conflict concept. The organizational commitment will be operationalized by the Three Component Model which has been developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) and work-family conflict concept (WFCC) will be operationalized by the integrative model of Gutek et al. (1991). Also, social identity theory will be introduced as an addition to two main theories. A literature review regarding the organizational commitment and WFC/FWC.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment as "a relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization" (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p.226). In other words, it can be described as a psychological attitude of employees which refer to a desire to stay in the organization, to put maximum effort and show loyalty (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Organizational commitment is described in several different ways by scholars. Buchanan (1974), one of the earliest theorist, identified organizational commitment with three components; identification (adoption of organization's goals and values, involvement (the psychological adjustment of work role) and loyalty (a feeling of attachment to the organization) (Buchanan, 1974, p.533). Similarly, DeCotiis and Summers (1987) and Eisenberg, Monge, and Miller (1983) addressed that organizational commitment consists of three elements; internalization, involvement and desire to stay in the organization. Finally, Meyer and Allen (1991) introduces a well-known theoretical framework, "Three Component Model", which suggest that commitment is a multidimensional concept which has 3 components; affective, normative and continuance. Each of these components distinguishes a different aspect of commitment in organizational settings. *Affective commitment* describes the emotional

attachment, identification, and involvement of employee to the organization. The normative *commitment* represents the moral obligation to stay in the organization and finally, the Continuance commitment refers to the employee's awareness of the costs of leaving the organization. This can be some personal investment, status, close working relationships or a fear not to find a better job. In other words, an employee with a high affective commitment is willing to stay in the organization, an employee with a strong normative commitment should stay in the organization and an employee with high continuance commitment needs to stay in the organization. It can be assumed that all these three forms of commitment might interact and influence organizational behavior to a certain degree. Many meta-analyses point out that affective and normative commitment are positively correlated with job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance whereas negatively correlated with resignation and voluntary absenteeism (Cooper & Viswesvaran, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al.2002). Additional research also showed that affective commitment has a positive effect on the physical and psychological well-being of employees (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). Furthermore, Eisinga et al.(2010) indicate that affective commitment is crucial to retain a high-performance academic workforce. Only the Affective commitment refers to the psychological attachment to the organization whereas the other two aspects represent the reasons of commitment. Despite these three dimensions, the normative commitment has been found to be highly related to affective commitment (Allen & Allen, 1996) and there is less support for this dimension of commitment (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Therefore, many studies have greatly focused on the other two types of commitment, namely, affective commitment and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Casper et al.2002). Thus, the current study will be focusing only on affective and continuance dimensions of the organizational commitment. These two aspects of commitment are highly crucial to study because affective commitment is highly related to employees' wellbeing and emotional attachment whereas continuance commitment relates to the costs of leaving, benefits of staying (intention to stay) (Kanter, 1968). Therefore, understanding these two aspects give a great source for organizations to deal with their employees effectively and create a stable workforce (Marchiori & Henkin, 2004).

Social Identity Theory

One way of understanding the organizational commitment, it is crucial to understand how attitudes and behaviors are shaped by the psychological relationship between the employee and the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This relationship has been conceptualized by the social identification process (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Haslam, van Knippenberg, Platow, & Ellemers, 2003; Riketta, 2005). The main concept behind social identity approach is the notion of group membership; in other words, individual's sense of who they are based on their group. For organizational settings, when individuals define themselves in terms of the member of the organization, they will feel belong to that organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). It is so beneficial for an organization if more and more employees identify themselves with the organization and its values, norms, and goals. Furthermore, social identity theory has been linked with the role conflicts that individuals experience (Ashworth & Mael, 1989) because depending on the one's identified role, it can cause a certain conflict if that person is given another role or responsibilities from another role. In relation to that, social identity theory can be related to the culture because social identity is the person's awareness of that she/he belongs to a social group (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Based on that, individuals adopt certain features of that social group and behave in relation to their ingroup. Therefore, understanding organizational commitment brings the necessity of involving social identity theory as it might help to understand the underlying reasons of certain aspects of organizational commitment.

The Meaning of Work-Family Conflict

The following paragraph will be explaining the sources of conflicts between family and work domains. It is important to distinguish how the general concept of work-family conflict has been developed and what underlies between these conflicts.

Interrole Conflict and Work-Family Conflict Concept (WFCC)

The role has been defined as a pattern of behaviors that are socially defined characteristics of individuals (Allard, 2007). According to the Role Theory, each role has a specific demands, responsibilities, duties, commitments and expectations (Netemeyer et al.1996). Kahn et al. (1964, p.19) have described role conflict as the "simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets

of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other".

An inter-role conflict is a form of role conflict, referring to clashing responsibilities and expectations from separate roles for an individual. During the individuals' participation in the work life, besides the economical benefits, work life requires a considerable amount of demands such as physical and mental activity, competition and social interaction (Trevor & Enright, 1990 as cited in Nart&Batur, 2013). Demands from work such as overtime or take-home work may create clashes with the family expectations (Greenhous & Beutel, 1985). The conflict occurs when one role's pressure make it harder for an individual to participate in another role (Kahn et al.1964). Traditional gender roles bring certain expectations for men and women. During the 18th century, the perception was that the work life and family life are two separate worlds which were not overlapping. This mentality was mainly due to the single breadwinner family culture where man and woman roles were quite distinct (Chow & Bertheide, 1988). Later, Barnett (1999) suggested that dual-earning couples must integrate the demands of family and work domains.

In the past, gender roles were much distinct and specific where men used to have the role of breadwinner in the family whereas women had the role of taking care of house and children. However, the rise in dual-career in couples has a consequence on work-family and family-work conflict (Aryee et al.2005). Consistent with this perspective, some studies found that specifically women reported higher role tension (Cleary & Mechanic, 1983; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979). Furthermore, Marks (1997) pointed out that when individuals perceive one role more important and invest more time, they are more likely to experience role tension and conflict. Similarly, Greenhaus, Bedeian and Mossholder (1987) found that when people prioritize work, it is more likely they experience higher work-family conflict. For example, checking emails and responding them outside of work takes a considerable amount of time from person's private life. Jerejian et al. (2013) reported that a sample of Australian academic sent 48.8 email messages per day. These radical changes in couples' daily life have gathered a lot of research on work and family issues. Galinsky et al. (1993) indicated that 40% of parents who are employed face with WFCC. Similarly, another study by Galinsky et al. (1993) showed that 83% of working mothers and 72% of working fathers reported experiencing conflict between the demands of work and demands of family. These two important outcomes revealed the importance of inter-role conflict for both organizations and employees to understand, manage and overcome it. Both family and work roles are such roles that a person cannot choose either one; instead, a person should be able to balance both roles to manage his/her life without problem and conflict.

As a form of inter-role conflict, work-family conflict concept (WFCC) has been developed by many authors (Greenhous & Beutel, 1985). Work-family literature (Frone et al.1992; Kelloway et al.1999; Wiley, 1987) has determined two conceptually different but reciprocal forms of conflict; the conflict resulting from work responsibilities interfering with a family domain (WFC) and conflict because of family responsibilities interfering with work domain (FWC). Work- to- family conflict (WFC) is defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family-related responsibilities" and family to- work conflict (FWC) refers to "a form of inter-role conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family related responsibilities" (Netemeyer et al.1996, p: 401).

Work and family can be perceived as two distinct domains of individual's life. WFC is a type of inter-role conflict when individuals experience high work pressure which interferes with their performance in their family domain. On the other hand, FWC is a result of high family demands where individuals' performance at work is affected (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). A study from Edwards and Rothbard (2000) explained these two forms of conflict by "spillover and resource-drain" mechanisms. Spillover mechanism covers the exchange of values, skills, behaviors between two domains whereas resource drain covers the aspect of resources of individual are not infinite and therefore, individuals must transfer their resources between two domains to manage the two domains. However, resources are limited and therefore, when a person has higher responsibilities in one domain, this may affect the discharge of the responsibilities which brings the inter-domain conflicts, in order words, work-to-family or family-to-work conflicts (Schultz & Higbee, 2010).

Several studies pointed out that WFCC result in job dissatisfaction and marital dissatisfaction (Adams et al.1996; Netemeyer et al.1996; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Also, empirical studies indicate that individuals, who have difficulty managing work and family responsibilities, decrease their effectiveness in the workplace, are not satisfied with job and show low levels of affective commitment to the organization (Allen et al.2000; Aryee et al.1999; Karatepe & Baddar,2006; Netemeyer et al.2004). Barnett (1993) describes the men's core role as having paid jobs whereas family role belongs to women. As dual-breadwinner families increase,

couples started to have multiple roles. According to Nordenmark (2002), when individuals show a strong commitment to their family roles and work roles, their well-being becomes better. But, at the same time, this brings another problem that with the limited resources, commitment for both domains equally are quite hard and can cause work overloads and role conflicts (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979).

Previous Research

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an important concept to define and understand. Therefore, it is equally crucial and necessary to understand what factors affect organizational commitment. There are several empirical studies show that there are a lot of factors that influence the employee towards commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Mowday et al. (1982) identified four main categories of antecedents; personal/background characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics and work characteristics. Previous literature mainly focused on personal/background and work-related characteristics for the explanation of organizational commitment (Bar-Hayim & Berman, 1992; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Hellman, 1997; Jans, 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1988; Wiener, 1982). Therefore, in the following paragraphs, only personal/ background and work-related antecedents of organizational commitment will be discussed. Even though gender is a part of personal characteristics, it will be discussed separately than other personal/background characteristics as it is the main moderator in this study.

Personal/Background Characteristics:

Personal/background characteristics involve age, education level, marital status, tenure and they have been linked to organizational commitment by many scholars (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Bruning & Snyder, 1983; Liou & Nyhan, 1994; Mottaz, 1988; Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995; Smith, Gregory, & Cannon, 1996). According to Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), there is a positive correlation between age and organizational commitment. Mathieu & Zajac (1990) suggest that the older employees become, the less alternative jobs are available for them. Therefore, older employees might perceive their current work more favorably which is connected to the organizational commitment, specifically affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) also claim that age is more related to affective commitment than continuance commitment because older employees show higher satisfaction due to their investment and a longer history with their organization (Dunham et al. 1994). However, March & Simon (1958 as cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) suggest that age should be more related to continuance form of commitment due to limited job alternatives which might bring the higher cost for the individual to leave the current job. Also, Cohen & Lowenberg

(1990) claimed that age and tenure are highly connected to continuance commitment because they are related to employee's investment in the organization and therefore, perceived as a cost. Also, Bar-Hayim and Berman (1992) found that less educated employees show greater organizational commitment due to limited job alternatives. Furthermore, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) claim that higher level of education increases the expectation from the organization where the organization is unable to provide and this decreases the organizational commitment. Therefore, education level and organizational commitment have a negative correlation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Another personal characteristic is marital status where married employees show more continuance commitment as they have more financial and family responsibilities than single individuals which enhance their need to stay in the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Finally, the tenure is highly related to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). There is two kind of tenure; one is tenure in that position and one is tenure in the organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggest that tenure in the organization is more likely to relate to commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) pointed out that the development of organizational commitment has three stages; the pre-entry stage, early employment period and middle/late career stage. Some studies showed empirical support for this statement where they found that during the entrance to the organization, people show different levels of commitment compared to later stages at work (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Wiener, 1982). Cohen (1999) suggest that affective and continuance commitment increase in middle/late career stage. It means that the more time people spend in the organization, the more committed they feel toward the organization. Therefore, tenure in the workplace is an important factor affecting organizational commitment.

Work-Related Characteristics:

According to Meyer et al. (2002) 's review, the correlation between work-related characteristics and organizational commitment is much stronger than personal characteristics. The current study will primarily focus on selected factors with a support of empirical studies and theoretical frameworks. These factors are job autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, perceived organizational support (POS) and job security.

The first factor is *job autonomy* which is described as perceived control and independence over the work. It is the most widely studied work characteristic and highly connected to motivation and organizational commitment (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), autonomy is highly related to organizational commitment and motivation. They stated that autonomy is connected specifically with affective commitment because when individuals regulate their work goals autonomously, they value to the organization and feel belong more (Hobfoll, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Also, according to Lawler (1992 as cited in Obi-Nwosu et al.2013), Jernigan and Kohut (2002) and Aube et al. (2007), when employees perceive autonomy over their work, their emotional bond with the organization increases. Furthermore, Hall et al. (1970) found that the level of autonomy in the organization is the strong determinant of organizational commitment.

Secondly, *role ambiguity* and *role conflict* have been suggested to have a negative relationship with affective commitment (Jaros et al.1993; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Singh, Goolsby & Rhoads, 1994; Menguc, 1996; Chang et al.2010; Yousef, 2002). Role ambiguity and role conflict are considered as two important role stressors which are highly related to organizational behaviors, including organizational commitment (Yousef, 2002). According to Gormley (2005), role stress occurs when employees, specifically faculty members, experience challenge to balance their teaching, research, and administrative roles. The role stress phenomenon has been well documented, especially role conflict and role ambiguity (Fain, 1987; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Many role stress researchers have been focused on individual outcomes whereas the effect of role conflict and role ambiguity on organizational level outcomes like commitment has been studied less and conducted in non-academic settings (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Role ambiguity is defined as the lack of clarity in the given roles for an employee. This can lead to misunderstanding of job requirements, procedure, and rules (Judeh, 2011). Employees need to know exactly what they are expected to do at work and role ambiguity is where they do not have a clear image of these expectations (Rizzo et al. 1970). In brief, role ambiguity is the perception of employee's uncertainty about the expectations. Therefore, each role at work should have specific and clear requirements and information to avoid confusion, increase productivity, and decrease organizational commitment. Role ambiguity.

Role conflict, on the other hand, has been defined as competing or conflicting bunch of expectations or demands in the organization (Rizzo et al.1970). Role conflict is a perception of being torn in several directions and unable to please every role partner (Onyemah, 2008). In order to understand any role behavior, it is crucial to keep in mind the fact that employees take multiple roles in the organization. Role ambiguity and role conflict have been a significant

determinant of commitment because when people experience high role ambiguity and role conflict, they start to feel less belong and committed to the organization.

Third factor is *perceived organizational support (POS)* which has been emerged as strong antecedent of affective form organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Cook & Wall, 1980; Eisenberger et al., 1986; French & Rosenstein, 1984; Steers, 1977; Meyer et al., 2002; Rhoades et al., 2002). This is not surprising because affective commitment has been suggested to be a response to positive work experiences in the organization (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998). POS is where organization values the employee's contribution and effort. According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), POS is employees' perception of organization's commitment to them. This support can be perceived in different ways such as promotion, increased salary, approval or job enrichment. According to social exchange theory (Eisenberger et al. 1986) and reciprocity theory (Gouldner, 1960) when employees perceive a high level of organizational support which is considered as a valuable resource, they are more likely to "repay or return" the organization by showing strong affective commitment. Furthermore, organizational support is claimed to fulfill the basic socio-emotional needs like affiliation, approval, and respect (Rhoades et al. 2002). Also, POS triggers the feeling of obligation where encourage employees to behave to support organization's goals and aims. Shore and Wayne's (1993) study proved the positive effect of POS on affective commitment. On the other hand, Meyer et al. (2002), Rhoades et al. (2002) and Shore and Tetrick (1991) state a negative relationship between POS and continuance commitment. The reason might be the fact that POS decreases the feeling of entrapment (which is the part of continuance commitment) when employees are feeling the obligation of stay because of a high cost of quitting (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Furthermore, POS has been also found to moderate the effect of FWC on affective and continuance commitment (Casper et al.2002) because when a person experience high FWC, the supportive organization will help her/him to reduce stress and balance better which will eventually result in higher emotional attachment to the organization and greater cost to leave the organization.

Finally, *Job security* has been found to positively related to organizational commitment (Ramay, 2012). Employees do not like risks and changes; they would like to stay in the same environment (Kirmizi & Deniz, 2009). Jobs in public sector can be perceived as more secure than jobs in private sector because it is harder to terminate an employee from jobs in public sector due to legal matters. Therefore, feeling safe and secure in the organization are expected to affect organizational commitment (Ramay, 2012).

Organizational Commitment among Academic Staff

Academics are the type of employees where they develop and carry on their activities in organizational structures, called universities. Academics have their professional power and autonomy whereas, at the same time, the university has its bureaucratic rules and features. Therefore, Henry Mintzberg (1979 as cited in Musselin, 2004) describes universities as "professional bureaucracies". Universities, in many aspects, have similar features like other type of business and organizations. Therefore, it is expected that universities have similar antecedents of organizational commitment like any other businesses. However, antecedents of organizational commitment for teaching staff have been studied by several authors (Lovakov, 2016; Adkins et al., 2001; Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Fuller et al., 2006; Li, 2014) and these studies found some other university-specific antecedents for organizational commitment. Neumann and Finaly-Neumann (1990) found that commitment to the university is much stronger when career alternatives (academic career or industrial sector) exist in fields like education or electrical engineering. It means that individuals from education faculty or engineering faculty can work outside of the university and find field jobs easier than other sectors. On the other hand, when the career alternatives are restricted (like in physics or sociology), commitment is weaker. They also found that tenure is an important determinant of organizational commitment where commitment reaches its maximal level among senior faculty members. Furthermore, another study by Marchiori and Henkin (2004) measured the antecedents of three forms of organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance). They concluded that tenure has a strong effect on affective commitment, being full-time has an effect on continuance commitment due to salary and benefits and finally, gender has the strongest effect on normative commitment where women showed higher normative commitment than men. This study indicated that tenure, gender, and age are the most important predictors of organizational commitment. Finally, Lovakov (2016) measured three antecedents which are taught be specific features for academic profession and universities (Musselin, 2014); academic inbreeding (when universities hire their own students), academic experience in another university and combination of teaching and administrative positions. The study showed that all three factors predict affective commitment. When individuals got hired from the university that they graduated from, they show more emotional attachment and commitment to the university. Also, combining academic and administrative positions enhance affective commitment. Furthermore, Rothmann and Jordaan (2006) found that job resources (variety, learning opportunities, and autonomy), organizational support and advancement opportunities (like training) play an important role in work engagement of academics in universities.

Organizational Commitment and Gender

Organizational commitment and gender always receive a lot of attention from researchers and some of them showed that gender is one of the antecedents of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Some of them showed that men and women differ in terms of commitment (Aydin et al.2011; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) whereas some other studies found no difference between men and women on organizational commitment (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a significant difference between men and women for the organizational commitment where women tend to have higher commitment than men. Bar-Hayim and Berman (1992) suggest that being women enhance the commitment because they must overcome more barriers than men to achieve their position in the organization Similarly, Wahn (1998) found that women had higher continuance commitment than men whereas Ngo and Tsang (1998) found no significant relationship between organizational commitment and gender. Correspondingly, Joiner and Bakalis (2006) did not find any effect of gender on affective and continuance forms of commitment.

Investigating organizational commitment in terms of gender differences also require to distinguish between job and gender roles perspectives (Marsden et al.1993). Generally, job perspective focus on the different jobs that men and women do to explain gender differences in organizational commitment. Such view makes quite a sense as occupational sex segregation is quite common (Bielby & Baron, 1986). Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) found that several organizational settings foster commitment among the US and Japanese workers. For instance, sense of control, work redesign, cultural symbols, rituals, mobility, and promotion build and enhance commitment among employees. Keeping in mind that men and women jobs differ in terms of occupational prestige, income and promotion aspects, it can be said that jobs held by women have less commitment-increasing features (Giele, 1988, p.301). For example, women are less likely to have supervisory positions (Wolf & Fligstein, 1979 as cited in Marsden et al.1993) or less authority than men (Reskin & Ross, 1992). Based on this argument, it may be expected that women should have less organizational commitment than men. On the other hand,

many other studies found that women generally have higher organizational commitment than men. Grusky (1996) found that women managers reported higher organizational commitment than men. According to Grusky (1996), one of the main reason behind this is the fact that women have to overcome more barriers until they reach to certain positions and this leads to higher attachment to their organization. Furthermore, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) found that women teachers and nurses are highly attached to their organizations and less likely to think to leave their job. Finally, Angle and Perry (1981) reported female bus drivers were more commitment than men drivers. As opposed to these, Aydin et al. (2011) concluded that men can internalize the values and norms of their organization as their own, meaning that men have higher affective commitment than women whereas, in terms of continuance commitment, women had higher level than men, meaning that women's continuance in the organization is necessity than attachment. Therefore, it can be expected to find a difference between men and women in relation to affective and continuance commitments.

Gender also is an important aspect for WFC and FWC because several studies showed that men and women differ in terms of experiencing WFC or FWC (Casper et al.2002; Casper et al.2011; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Higgins et al.1994; Gutek et al.1991) where women are claimed to experience higher FWC and men experience higher WFC. Nevertheless, these studies still are still not convincing as some other studies found no significant gender differences in experiencing WFC or FWC (Frone & Russell, 1992; Bedeian et al.1988). Therefore, including gender as the main moderator will give an insight about its effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and WFC/FWC. Also, this study will be the first study in this field showing the possible relationships for Northern Cypriot context.

To sum up, there are a lot of studies showing the possible antecedents of organizational commitment and the current study included only the ones which have been considered as the most important and relevant to the current context. Altogether, age, gender, marital status, education, tenure, a number of children, faculty, working in the same university, job autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, POS and job security have been selected as main control variables for the current study.

Organizational Commitment and Work-Family Conflict Concept

Work-to-Family Conflict (WFC) and Organizational Commitment

Allen et al. (2000) pointed out that WFC has been associated with work-related and non-work related outcomes. Mainly, work domain is the main reason of WFC conflict; therefore, it is not surprising that negative effect would relate to the source of WFC which is the organization. Thus, people who are experiencing high WFC are expected to be less emotionally attached to their organization and even feel that their job is a necessity rather than a choice. Good et al. (1988) reported a negative relationship between a bidirectional WFC/FWC and affective commitment. Many studies found a negative relationship between WFC and affective commitment (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; O'Driscoll et al., 1992). Studies on WFC and continuance commitment mostly found a positive relationship (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Streich et al.2008). Therefore, it is expected that employees who experience high WFC and remain in their jobs, will perceive commitment as a need, not a desire or attachment (Casper et al.2002).

Allen et al. (2000) and Netemeyer et al. (1996) studied WFC in relation to the three-component model of commitment from Meyer and Allen (1991) and found a negative relationship between WFC and affective form of commitment. Lyness and Thompson (1997) also reported a negative correlation between WFC and affective commitment and positively related to continuance commitment. The reason for the decreased affective commitment is that employees find it difficult to integrate the family and the work domains. When they perceive a lot of pressure from work or long working hours, their organizational commitment decreases due to the perceived conflict in their life. The positive relationship between WFC and continuance commitment can be explained by self-concept theory by Thoits (1991). Self-concept theory means how a person sees oneself in his/her surroundings. Depending on the social and cultural structures, a person can see oneself be highly responsible for family (collectivism) or be more individualistic and focus on work. If the self-concept is family-focused where family welfare is crucial, employees feel obligated to stay at work which creates a strong continuance commitment. Therefore, as Northern Cyprus culture offers more collectivist perspective where the family is a central element for life and anything else is around family, it is expected that academics in Cyprus will experience higher continuance and less affective commitment in the presence of WFC. Taken together, all these represented findings suggest that WFC will be negatively connected to affective commitment whereas it will be positively related to continuance commitment.

Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC) and Organizational Commitment

Compared to WFC, FWC literature offers more contradicting results in terms of its relationship with organizational commitment. Neteyemer et al. (1996) found a negative relationship between FWC and affective commitment whereas Casper et al. (2002) found no relationship at all. On the other hand, O'Driscoll et al. (1992) reported a positive relationship between FWC and affective commitment. The family domain is mostly a cultural aspect and differs from country to country, context to context. Therefore, it is not surprising to find contradicting findings on this side of WFCC. According to the social identity theory, people identify themselves based on their group. So, if the country's culture gives higher value on family, people are more likely to perceive family with higher value and invest on family more. Therefore, when family interferes with work, people put less energy, time and effort on work to create time for family; so, their affective commitment will be low (Casper et al.2011). On the other hand, when family demands are high, people feel obligated not to leave the organization; because, if the family income is dependent on them, without any source of income, they cannot simply quit the job. Therefore, in that case, for these people, continuance commitment will be higher (Meyer et al.2002).

Moderating Effect of Gender on the Relationship between WFC/FWC and Organizational Commitment

Studying organizational commitment in regards to WFCC brings the importance of gender and different gender roles. In the literature, gender is considered as an important determinant both for organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and WFCC (Allen et al.2000) where being woman and man bring different identities and role demands which relate to experiencing different forms of WFCC and an impact on organizational commitment. Previous studies found that gender differences exist in job-related preferences (Mason 1995; Wiersma 1990). The studies investigating gender differences are varying. For example, a study from Rehman and Waheed (2012) showed that there is no significant difference between men and women for the negative relationship between WFC and organizational commitment in Pakistani universities.

Furthermore, Cetin also (2006) reported no difference between genders in relation to organizational commitment in Turkey. However, Akintayo (2010) found a significant difference between men and women when it comes to organizational commitment where men have found to have a higher organizational commitment than women for industrial workers in Pakistan. Similarly, Siu (2014) showed a significant moderator effect of gender in the relationship between WFCC and organizational commitment in the Malaysian context. Nwagbara and Akanji (2012) conducted a study to test the impact of work-life balance on organizational commitment among Nigerian women and found that it has a positive impact on motivation and organizational commitment.

According to Netemeyer et al. (2004), based on the social identity theory, if people identify themselves in family roles, they are more likely to experience higher FWC; whereas if the individual identify himself/herself with work roles, he/she will experience higher WFC. In other words, the meaningfulness of one role will determine how much WFC or FWC a person will experience. Stephen and Sommer (1996) and Gutek et al. (1991) found that women employees experienced higher WFC than men. Posig and Kickul (2004) indicate that there is a stronger relationship between FWC and emotional exhaustion for women employees than men employees. Furthermore, Demerouti et al. (2005) highlight that when partners rate the relationship between WFC and exhaustion, women's ratings were higher than men. The idea behind is that when women may find it hard to trade off work for family or family for work, they tend to choose a family role as they acknowledge it as core role. Therefore, this affects women's performance and possible commitment (Noor, 2003). This perspective supported by Drago (2002) where he suggests that women experience higher FWC whereas men experience higher WFC because of different core identification (Netemeyer et al.2004). Putting all together, men and women have been suggested to have a different level of organizational commitment and different forms of work-family conflict concept. Therefore, considering gender as the main moderator will give an idea of how it might affect the relationship between organizational commitment and WFC/FWC.

Hypotheses and Conceptual Model

Hence, keeping in view the above previous research and theoretical framework, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis1a. There is a *negative* relationship between WFC and affective commitment.

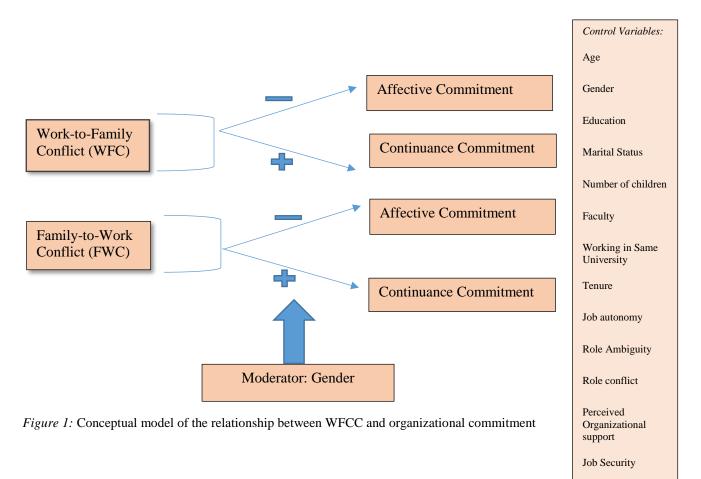
Hypothesis 1b. There is a *positive* relationship between WFC and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 2a. There is a *negative* relationship between FWC and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2b. There is a *positive* relationship between FWC and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 3. There is a *moderating effect* of gender on the relationship between organizational commitment and WFCC.

Conceptual FrameWork: Based on above hypotheses, the proposed research frame work of this study has been represented in Figure 1.



Method

Research Approach

Quantitative approach has been chosen because the current study has hypotheses to investigate. Furthermore, the study is about investigating the effect of WFCC on organizational commitment with a moderator of gender; so, using quantitative study enables to use statistics and check the relationship between variables and provide a cause and effect relationship by controlling certain variables. Also, the quantitative method gives more reliable results because subjectivity of researcher is less (Sale et al. 2002). All the data is obtained from targeted population via questionnaire. The questionnaire that has been used for current study has three sections; the first section is the personal and background information such as their gender, age, tenure, education etc. It has been followed by the second section with WFC and FWC questions and the final section includes questions for affective and continuance commitments and five selected antecedents of commitment; job autonomy, role conflict, role ambiguity, perceived organizational support and job security.

Research Design and Statistics

The nature of the study is explanatory where the research questions and hypotheses have been developed prior to the study and aim is to investigate the hypotheses. The design has been developed based on three main areas. The first one is to determine the bi-directional work-family conflict (WFC) and family-work conflict (FWC) effect on two forms of organizational commitment (affective and continuance). These two forms of commitment will speak whether an employee wants to (affective) or because they have to (continuance) stay in the job. The second objective is to investigate the degree of difference in the relationship between WFC/FWC and organizational commitment among men and women. This objective is specifically important because gender is one of the important aspects of both organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and WFC/FWC (Eby et al.2005). It has been suggested that men and women experience WFC and FWC differently and especially women have higher conflicts due to extra family and mothering roles. Therefore, the current study will show the moderation effect of gender for academic staff in Northern Cyprus. The final objective is to find out the degree of difference in the relationship between WFCC and organizational commitment when controlling for personal/background and work- related characteristics.

Personal and background characteristics include age, gender, tenure, marital status, educational level, faculty and number of children, whether working in the same university that they graduated from whereas work-related characteristics cover job autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, perceived organizational support (POS) and job security. Based on the literature review which will be discussed in Previous Research section, these control variables hypothesized to decrease or increase the impact of WFCC on organizational commitment. Correlation will be used to see the relationships between variables and Multiple Regression statistics will be used to test the hypotheses of this study.

Sample and Procedure

Two universities have been chosen for the current investigation and the target population in this research was defined as full-time academic lecturers. The first university is the largest public organization with 2398 employees in Northern Cyprus. It has a large proportion of women employees (1192 employees). More than a half of this number is from academic personnel (654 women and 506 men). Even though it has been tried to reach as much academic staff as possible, due to busy schedules of academic staff and inappropriate timing, the response rate could not be as desired. Therefore, the second university must be involved in this study. The second university consists of 320 women academic staff and 223 men academic staff.

In both universities, with the help of human resource department of universities, certain departments have been selected based on the certain features as discussed in the literature review for organizational commitment among academic staff. So, the departments have been chosen intentionally whereas the academic staff did not, meaning that the sample of this study was the departments, not the individuals. These departments were engineering department, health department, education department, art and science department and business and economics departments.

The participants for this study were made up of random selected 300 academic staff of two these two universities; 100 from the first university and 200 from the second university. Academic employees have been chosen randomly and only the academic employees who had a working day on that visiting day, have been given the questionnaire. To ensure a high response, appointments were made to collect the questionnaires. Questionnaires were distributed to academic staff either directly to them or the faculty secretary. Each department has been visited personally and arranged a date to collect the questionnaires back. There was

no reminder which has been used and that might be one reason why the all 300 questionnaires could not manage to be collected back. 84 out of 100 questionnaires have returned in the first university with a response rate of 84% and 106 out of 200 questionnaires have been collected from the second university with a response rate of 53%. In total, this study used 192 questionnaires in the analysis with a response rate of 64%. All the data from two universities have been analyzed together.

The questionnaire was available as a hard copy only. The advantage of using hard copy questionnaire was to manage to get a response or return of questionnaire directly if the participant was available to fill it in. Also, additional time has been given to complete the questionnaire in their own time. To provide confidentiality, questionnaires have been returned inside an envelope which has been also provided for them. After the questionnaires were handed out to participants, they were collected back within the next 15 days after distribution. The questionnaire was available only in one language which was English because even though speaking language in Northern Cyprus is Turkish, academic language of selected universities is English. Therefore, all academic staff should know English very well. A front page (see Appendix A) was included to inform participants of the main aim of the study and the approximate time required to complete the questionnaire. In the end of the questionnaire, participants were thanked for their contribution and were informed on how they can receive a summary of the findings if they were curious.

All questionnaires from two universities were entered together and analyzed by using SPSS 23.

Demographic Profile

Table 1 below represents the demographic and professional profile of the total 192

participants.

Table 1:							
Respondents'							
demographic							
and							
professional							
profile							
Gender Distribution Te		Tenure:		Children under	Children under 18		
Female:	58.3%	Average Ten	ure: 8.4 years	No Children:	62%		
Male:	40.6%	Median:	6 years	1 Children:	22%		
		Range:	1-32 years	2 Children:	14%		
				3 Children:	1%		
Age Distributi	on	Marital stat	us:				
Average Age:	40.9	Married:	71.4%				
Median:	38.5	Single	28.6%				
Range:	23-73						
Education:	ucation: Working Partner						
Doctoral:	75.4%	Yes	85.9%				
Post-Graduate:	23%	No:	14%				
Undergraduate	: 1.5%						

Ethical Consideration

This study is conducted by considering several ethical aspects. First of all, the anonymity was guaranteed both for the university names and participants. All the ethical procedures have been completed before starting survey distribution. To conduct this study in the public university several ethical considerations have been taken through. After the approval from the ethical commission, with their suggestion, consent form and debriefing form have been added to the questionnaire and these forms can be found in Appendix B. This procedure and forms have been only used in the public university. For the private university, only the original front letter has been introduced to the participants. The ethical approval letter is excluded from the Appendices because it is non-anonymous, meaning that the name of the university is shown in the letter which is out of ethical consideration of this study.

The debriefing form was requesting participant's signature and this might have made participants to answer with a little cautious. However, as it was the university's regulation and they might have completed several other surveys with the same procedures, it has been thought that this did not affect their answers. Participations` willingness to participate in the study for was covered in the front letter or in the debriefing form which has been provided to them. Therefore, they were informed about the study`s aim, a brief background of the topic, estimated duration and information about the writer. Furthermore, considering the fact that faculty members are quite busy during the day with lectures, meetings, researches and supervision, they did not force to complete the survey straight away. They decided when they had free time and when the survey could be collected back. Therefore, there was no pressure or obligation on them. Also, many participants commented next to some questions and mentioned their feelings. This showed that many of participants have been engaged with the questionnaire and were willing to share their true feelings and perceptions.

Measurements

Primary data was collected by using surveys with 56 questions in total. The questionnaire has three sections; personal/demographic section, WFC/FWC section and organizational commitment and its antecedents. All the items were measured by five points Likert scale with a range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores on the composite measures indicate higher commitment, WFC/FWC, job autonomy or etc. The questionnaire is given in Appendix C.

Organizational commitment was measured with 16 items taken from the Allen and Meyer (1990). As this study only focused on two forms of organizational commitment, only affective commitment and continuance commitment questions have been used. Example item for affective commitment was "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own" and for continuance commitment, example item was" I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving the organization". Three items from affective commitment scale and three items from continuance commitment scale were reversed items. Therefore, they re-coded before the analysis. The range for affective commitment is between 14 to 35 and Cronbach`s alpha is 0.68. Even though this value is close to 0.7, this value can be increased if the second item of affective commitment scale is removed. So, in order to increase the efficiency of this study, the second item has been removed and Cronbach`s alpha value became 0.73. The second item was "I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it". It can be argued that this question might be perceived as a negative thing by the participants, meaning that the word "discuss" might give

some negative sense to individuals where they can think discussing with negative aspects. Therefore, even though this scale is very well known and accepted scale by many scholars, in Northern Cypriot context, this question did not work well. In order to obtain better analysis and result, this question will not be included in the analysis. The Cronbach's alpha for continuance commitment scale is 0.64. This value indicates that this scale is not a really reliable scale to use and analyze. However, continuance commitment is one of the main independent variables and it plays an important role to understand the research hypotheses. Therefore, this scale will be included in the analysis but results will be interpreted with caution. The continuance commitment scale ranges between 14 and 38.

Work- family conflict concept was measured with 8 items taken from Gutek et al. (1991). This measure is consisting of four items measuring Work-to-family conflict (WFC) and four items measuring family-to-work conflict (FWC). An example of items measuring WFC was "after work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I d like to do" and "on the job, I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests". The range for WFC is between 5 and 20. Examples of items measuring FWC were "I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home" and" my personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work". The range for FWC is 4 to 17. The Cronbach's alpha for WFC scale is 0.79 and for FWC, the value is 0.72. This shows that this scale's reliability is considerably high and can be used without any caution.

Job autonomy scale was consist of 9 items from Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) and the range was 9 to 45. Job autonomy was measured with three interrelated aspects which are freedom in work schedule, freedom in decision making and freedom in work methods. Therefore, there are three sub-scales which have been measured which are work scheduling autonomy, decision-making autonomy, and work methods autonomy. Each sub-scale has three items and example items were as followed; " the job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work(work-scheduling autonomy), " the job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work" (decision-making autonomy) and " the job allows me to make decisions about what methods" (work methods autonomy). The reliability test showed that job autonomy scale has Cronbach's alpha value of 0.91 which is a really high reliability score.

Role ambiguity scale was measured with 6 items from Gonzalez-Roma and Lloret (1998). An example of items was "I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job" and "I know what

7

my responsibilities are". The role conflict ranges from 10 to 30. Role conflict scale was measured with 8 items from Gonzalez-Roma and Lloret (1998). Examples of items were "I have to do things that should be done differently under different conditions" and" I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently". The range for role conflict is between 11 and 33. Cronbach's alpha score for role ambiguity is 0.78 which means that scale is highly reliable. Cronbach's alpha score for role conflict is 0.62 which is smaller than 0.7. this score indicates that this scale is not as reliable is the others. However, this shows that context and other cultural aspects have some kind of impact.

Perceived organizational support (POS) was measured with 8 items from Eisenberg et al. (1986). Examples of items were "the organization values my contribution to its well-being" and "the organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (reverse)". Two items in this scale were reversed, so they re-coded separately. The range for POS is 9 to 35. The Cronbach`s alpha score is 0.861 which indicates as a reliable measurement.

Finally, job security has been measured with a single item from Gaertner and Nollen (1989) which is "the organization has done all it can to avoid layoffs". The range for job security between 1 to 5. Job security is measured by a single item, the reliability test could not be conducted.

Control Variables

In order to help control the possible effect of personal differences and work-related variables, age, education level, tenure, marital status, faculty, whether working in the same university, number of children under the age of 18, faculty, job autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, perceived organizational support and job security were used as control variables. In order to conduct a Regression analysis, certain variables have been coded as a `dummy variable`. These are; gender, education level, marital status, faculty, whether working in the same university and children under the age of 18. The presented data in the regression analysis is women, postgraduate level, married, belong to engineering, medicine and education faculties, working in the same university and having children under the age of 18.

Result

This chapter reports the data analyses of the study. Descriptive statistics for main variables; affective commitment, continuance commitment, WFC and FWC, are reported in the first part of the chapter. The next part reports the results of the *correlations and regressions* analyses between dependent and independent variables.

Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 reports the mean, standard deviations and skewness of the main measures that have been used in this study. On a 5-point scale, the mean score of affective commitment is slightly higher than continuance commitment. The mean score of WFC is higher than FWC, supporting the previous research (Aryee et al.1999; Hassan et al.2010). This means that participants reported higher WFC than FWC. Standard deviations for all four measures were smaller than 1, indicating that scores for these measures were close to the mean values.

 Table 1 Mean, Standard Deviation, Skewness & Range

 Maan
 Std Daviation

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Range
Affective Commitment	3.7	0.51	-0.6	2 - 5
Continuance Commitment	3.1	0.53	-0.1	1-5
WFC	3.5	0.78	-0.5	1-5
FWC	2.3	0.74	0.5	1-4

One sample t-tests were conducted only for WFC and FWC scales because affective and continuance commitments did not use the same scales. Table 2 reports the t-test result for WFC and FWC. The result showed that there is a significant difference on mean WFC and mean FWC between the sample and the overall population (p<0.01).

	t	df	Sig	Mean Difference
WFC	62.8	191	p<0.05	0.06
FWC	42.7	191	p<0.05	0.05

Correlation between Measures

Affective Commitment and Independent Variables

Table 3 reports the correlations between all fifteen measures with main dependent and independent variables, moderator and control variables. Two main independent variables (WFC and FWC) have a negative correlation with affective commitment. It means that when work interferes with family (WFC), the employees` affective commitment towards the organization would decrease. Similarly, more family interfering with work (FWC), affective commitment will decrease. Comparing these two variables, it is obvious that FWC has a stronger correlation with affective commitment than WFC.

Interestingly, even though previous studied found that personal characteristics relate to affective commitment, in the current study, there is no significant relationship between any of personal characteristics and affective commitment. On the other hand, all the work-related characteristics are significantly correlated with affective commitment. Job autonomy, role ambiguity, POS and job security have positive correlation with affective commitment whereas role conflict has a negative relationship with affective commitment. Role ambiguity has been found to be positively correlated with affective commitment. Within all these variables, POS represents the strongest correlation with affective commitment (0.43**).

Continuance Commitment and Independent Variables

FWC has a significant positive correlation with continuance commitment. It means that when family interfering with work, this increases individuals` continuance commitment. This finding is consistent with the literature review where it suggests that family responsibilities bring the necessity to individuals to stay in the organization. There is no significant correlation between

continuance commitment and work-related characteristics and for personal characteristics, only age is negatively and significantly correlated with continuance commitment. This suggests that the older the employees get; their continuance commitment would decrease. This negative effect is relatively weak (Blaikie, 2003) and it should be kept in mind that continuance commitment's measurement reliability was under 0.7. Therefore, these results should be considered with a little caution.

Table 3 Bivariate Correlations between
dependent and independent variables

	1	2
Dependent Variables		
1. Affective Commitment		
2. Continuance Commitment		
Independent Variables		
3. WFC	200**	0.036
4. FWC	342**	.192**
Personal Characteristics		
5. Gender	0.001	0.002
6. Age	-0.01	317**
7. Education	-0.034	-0.047
8. Tenure	0.065	-0.06
9. Marital status	0.091	0.035
10. Number of children	-0.014	0.107
11. Faculty	-0.04	-0.14*
12. Working in same University	0.135	0.12
Work-related Characteristics		
11. Job Autonomy	.329**	0.093
12. Role Ambiguity	.247**	0.07
13. Role Conflict	226**	-0.024
14. POS	.433**	0.039
15. Job Security	.171*	-0.073

Note: *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

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

Hypotheses Tests

Five hypotheses have been tested by using multiple regression analysis with affective and continuance commitment as the dependent variables. In the model 1, only main independent variables have been tested; WFC and FWC. Personal characteristics have been added in Model 2 as control variables. Finally, in the model 3, work characteristics have been added as final set of control variables. The multicollinearity between WFC and FWC has been checked before the regression analysis in order to check if these two measures are correlated with each other. The VIF values are smaller than 3, indicating that these two measures are not close and correlated (Blaikie, 2003).

The following five hypotheses were posed:

Hypothesis1a. There is a *negative* relationship between WFC and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1b. There is a *positive* relationship between WFC and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 2a. There is a *negative* relationship between FWC and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2b. There is a *positive* relationship between FWC and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 3. There is a *moderating effect* of gender on the relationship between organizational commitment and WFCC.

The table 4 below presents the summary for affective commitment which has been tested with main independent and control variables. The Beta values and the adjusted r square (r^2) values have been used to present the result.

According to the Model 1, WFC has no significant effect on affective commitment. On the other hand, FWC has a significant negative impact on affective commitment. The Beta value indicates that this is a moderate influence (Beta= -0.3) (Blaikie, 2003) and with each increase in FWC, affective commitment would decrease. This shows that when family interfering with work, this causes a significant decline in affective commitment of employees. From the adjusted r square value, only 12% of variation in affective commitment could be explained by this model.

According to the Model 2, personal characteristics have been added in order to control the effect of them. Here, some changes have been emerged. When we controlled the personal characteristics, the beta value for WFC changed but only slightly from - 0.117 to -0.147 and both values indicate a very weak influence. None of the personal characteristics are significant but still have a weak controlling effect. Therefore, it can be concluded that, personal characteristics have a weak controlling effect on the relationship between WFC and affective commitment. In this case, the hypothesis 1a should not be fully rejected as we found a weak support that WFC decreases the affective commitment only when personal characteristics are controlled. It means that when individuals will experience WFC, their affective commitment will decrease with personal and background characteristics that they have. On the other hand, the FWC value is almost the same after adding the personal characteristics. So, it can be assumed that personal characteristics do not have any controlling effect on the relationship between FWC and affective commitment where FWC will decrease the affective commitment with or without the personal characteristics. Altogether, 13% of variation in affective commitment could be explained by this model which is an increase compared to previous model.

According to the Model 3, work-related characteristics have been added as a final step of control variables. After adding these variables, the significant effect of WFC disappeared. This indicates that the effect of WFC on affective commitment is not controlled by work-related characteristics but only with personal characteristics. For FWC, adding work-related characteristics did not make any changes in the Beta value of FWC where the value is almost the same as in the Model 3 and it is still a weak influence. However, perceived organizational support (POS) has a significant and moderate effect on affective commitment. Therefore, POS suggests an explanation for affective commitment (Beta=0.38). This finding is in line with previous studies as it was a strong antecedent of organizational commitment. From the adjusted r square, 32% of the variation in affective commitment could be explained by this model which is a better model compared to previous ones.

I	U ,	0	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
WFC	-0.117	-0.147*	-0.052
FWC	-0.311*	-0.323*	-0.316*
Personal			
Characteristics			
Age Women		-0.082	-0.130
		-0.006	-0.018
Postgraduate		-0.006	-0.086
Tenure		0.047	0.133
Married		0.118	0.084
Having Children		-0.051	0.023
Faculty Working in Same		-0.079	-0.041
University		0.107	0.042
Work-related			
Characteristics			
Job Autonomy			0.145
Role Ambiguity			0.004
Role Conflict			-0.063
POS			0.381*
Job Security			0.013
n = 192			
	(Adj.R ² = .12)	(Adj.R ² = .13)	(Adj.R ² = .32)

Table 4 Multiple Linear Regressions, factors affecting the affective commitment

Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment *= p < 0.05 Table 5 below presents the summary of regression results for continuance commitment.

Before start talking about results for this table, it should be reminded that continuance commitment scale did not receive a good reliability results. Therefore, all the results will be interpreted with a little cautious.

From the Model 1, it can be observed that WFC has no significant effect on continuance commitment. On the other hand, FWC has a significant positive effect on continuance commitment. It means that when individuals experience FWC, their continuance commitment will increase towards the organization. Although, the beta value for the influence is quite weak (Beta=0,196), this can give some support to the hypothesis 2b. All together this model can account for only 3% variation in continuance commitment.

Model 2 includes the personal characteristics as control variables. Here, there are some changes appeared. Personal characteristics controlled the effect of FWC on continuance commitment where they ceased the FWC's significant effect. Also, age is found to be the most important explanation for continuance commitment as its moderate/strong influence (beta=0.378) is much stronger than FWC (beta=0.129). Therefore, this indicates that, age is a strong additional explanation for continuance commitment where the older employees get, their continuance commitment will decrease towards their organization. This model accounts for 10% of the variation in continuance commitment.

According to Model 3, after adding the work-related characteristics, the effect of FWC on continuance commitment became significant again with a beta value of 0.149 which is still a weak influence. This is not a big change and therefore, it can be said that work-related characteristics have a weak controlling effect on the relationship between FWC and continuance commitment. Age, on the other hand, still has the strongest beta value and became an additional explanation for continuance commitment (beta=0.378). Also, the model still accounts 10% variation in continuance commitment which is the same as the Model 2.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
WFC	-0.017	-0.058	-0.017
FWC	0.196*	0.129	0.149*
Personal			
Characteristics			
Age Women		-0.372*	-0.378*
		-0.100	-0.089
Postgraduate		0.086	0.064
Tenure		0.045	0.058
Married		0.009	-0.006
Having Children		0.052	0.075
Faculty		-0.059	-0.041
Working in Same University	e	0.032	0.003
-		0.032	0.003
Work-related			
Characteristics			
Job Autonomy			0.075
Role Ambiguity			0.002
Role Conflict			-0.097
POS			0.074
Job Security			-0.089
N = 192			
	(Adj.R ² = .03)	(Adj.R ² = .10)	(Adj.R ² = .10)

Table 5 Multiple Linear Regressions, factors affecting the continuance commitment.

Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

*= p<0.05

After controlling for certain variables and test main independent variables, it might be the case that the moderator of this study which is gender, has an influence on the relationship between dependent and independent variables. Therefore, a new regression analysis has been conducted by selecting men and women participants seperately and run the regression analysis again. This analysis only focused on the Model 3 where all the independent and control variables are present. The table 6 below presents the results of these regression analysis by showing the Beta values and adjusted r square values. More specifically, the following analysis has been tested the third hpothesis of this study which was the "There is a *moderating effect* of gender on the relationship between organizational commitment and WFCC".

When the analysis has been conducted for affective commitment among men and women, the negative significant effect of FWC on affective commitment is so similar for men (-0.35) and for women (-0.33). This shows that the effect of FWC did not change for men and women, meaning that the gender is not moderating the relationship between FWC and affective commitment.

Furthermore, for continuance commitment, adding gender as a moderator only explained continuance commitment for women but not for men as the model did not suggest any significance (p>0.05) and the adjusted r square value is so close to zero, meaning that the model for men cannot explain continuance commitment. On the other hand, this model only explains for women with a weak significant value (beta=0.16)

Altogether, this results revealed that hypothesis 3 should be rejected as gender did not moderate the main independent and dependent variables in this study. However, gender moderated some of the control variables in the model. For women, job autonomy suggested an additional explanation for affective commitment. This means that in the presence of gender, this control variable is influencing the affective commitment. The more job autonomy the women will get, their affective commitment would increase. Also, for continuance commitment, age, having children under the age of 18 and job security have been found to influence continuance commitment toward to the university would decrease. Also, the female participants who have children under

the age of 18 have higher continuance commitment and finally, the more job security they feel, their continuance commitment would decreases

As a difference to women participants, for men, different control variables have been emerged as significant and these are faculty and role conflict. All these three variables create an additional explanation for affective commitment for men participants.

Table 6 Linear Regression to test the moderator effect

	Commitment (Women)	Affective Commitment (Men)	Continuance Commitment (Women)	Continuance Commitment (Men)
WFC	-0.006	-0.21	-0.016	0.07
FWC	-0.328*	-0.35*	0.16*	0.12
Personal Characteristics				
Age	-0.104	-0.12	-0.455*	-0.24
Postgraduate	-0.152	0.093	0.144	-0.14
Tenure	0.167	0.137	0.069	0.06
Married	0.096	-0.008	-0.095	-0.05
Having Children	0.014	0.111	0.244*	-0.02
Faculty	0.045	0.262*	0.058	-0.11
Working in Same University	0.039	-0.036	-0.066	0.06
Work-related Characteristics				
Job Autonomy	0.217*	0.041	0.175	0.09
Role Ambiguity	0.025	-0.01	0.132	-0.12
Role Conflict	-0.013	-0.24*	0.005	-0.13
POS	0.327*	0.312*	0.026	0.19
Job Security	-0.016	0.102	-0.228*	0.11
	n=110	n=77	n=110	n=77
ⁱ = p<0.05	(R ² = 0.34)	$(R^2 = 0.26)$	(R ² = 0.30)	(R ² = 0.016)

Discussion

The aim of this research was to examine the impact of work- to- family conflict/ family- towork conflict on organizational commitment (affective and continuance) with gender as a moderator. The research was conducted among full-time academic staff from two universities in Northern Cyprus. Participants were required to complete a questionnaire measuring their levels of bidirectional work-family conflict concept and organizational commitment and control measures.

The following chapter will discuss the main findings of the study together with their implications, and the limitations of the research. Also, it will be included some suggestions for future research, practical implications and a conclusion to summarize the study and its findings.

Main Findings and Implications

The study had five hypotheses in total. Overall, two (2a, 2b) hypotheses were supported as relationships and moderation effect were significant. This study found a support for hypothesis 1a as well but this support is weak and only significant in the presence of certain control variables. Gender, as a moderator, did not moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and WFCC in the Northern Cypriot context. The remaining hypotheses were rejected due to non-significant relationships.

Impact of Work-family Conflict Concept on Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment and Work-to-Family Conflict (WFC)

The current study did not find any significant effect of WFC on organizational commitment. This result differs from the many previous researches because many of them found that WFC has a negative relationship with affective commitment (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Thompson et al., 1999) and positive relationship with continuance commitment (Akhtar & Malik, 2016; Casper et al.2002). Although current findings differ from previous studies, so did the sample and context, meaning that none of the previous studies on this field conducted in the Northern Cyprus context. Rehman and Waheed (2012) studied faculty members in Pakistan; Casper et al. (2011) studied Brazilian professionals and Hatam et al. (2016) focused on nurses. Casper et al. (2011) suggested that cultural context matters a lot in

studying organizational commitment in terms of WFC because the cultural context is what shapes the individuals` living and mentalities. So, the cultural and social context of Northern Cyprus can be possible explanations for the current results.

Collectivist culture brings some "informal" relationships at work which mean that people who know each other from their social life might be also working together or sharing the same organization (Wasti, 2002). Wasti (2002) suggested that in collectivist cultures, most of the work-related relationships are based on loyalty, trust, and informal communication. This might be creating some obligated attachment to the organizations and regardless of perceived conflicts, the commitment will not be affected. Therefore, being committed and attached to an organization might be a part of the social relationship that people have. This might be the case of current study where WFC did not affect the organizational commitment.

Furthermore, close relationships bring some benefits for work life. For instance, leaving job earlier to pick up children, or ask extra help when the workload is high or even take holidays when it's needed. This flexible working life might be helping employees to balance their life and this might be the reason why WFC did not affect their organizational commitment. A study from Lu et al. (2008) found that work flexibility alleviated the effect of WFC for Taiwan culture. The discussion behind this is when employees are given autonomy over deciding when to start work and when to finish, freedom to take holidays for family matters, they are less likely to feel work-to-family conflict. Flexibility was not measured in the current study and it might be an interesting aspect for future studies to consider as it might be affecting commitment directly.

Also, Hassan et al. (2010) mentioned that Eastern cultures are more likely to report less WFC than Western cultures. The idea behind this is that people from collectivist cultures work to live which means that working is a kind of necessity instead of social improvement and socialization. Work is also seen as a provider for family demands. Therefore, family members mostly support the work life and do not see work as a barrier for social and private life. Thus, work obligations are not perceived as a disturbance for family life and individuals can focus on their work which might explain the no effect of WFC conflict on continuance and affective commitments (Aryee et al.2005).

No relationship between WFC and continuance commitment shows that work pressures do not influence individual's continuance commitment. This can be explained by the social identity theory in terms of one's position in the social structure in the community. When the individuals identify themselves with certain roles and responsibilities, they behave and make choices

depending on that. In this case, participants might have a role for the welfare of the family, so, they might not perceive work pressure as something to decrease their obligation to work, and instead, they are focused on their responsibilities for family welfare. Once again, the cultural aspect of Cyprus plays a crucial role where work activities are a necessity to provide a better life for family and increase social status of the family (Bagger, Reb & Li, 2014; Lu et al.2006). One final possible

As WFC did not suggest any significant effect on organizational commitment directly. It could be the case that the control variables of the study had an impact on WFC which could then explain organizational commitment. Therefore, in the analysis stage, WFC has been tested with all the control variables and their effect on WFC. However, none of the control variables have a significant effect on WFC or FWC. Therefore, this study could not find any strong support for the effect of WFC on the organizational commitment like many other studies did.

Organizational Commitment and Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC)

The only significant result of the current study was the effect of FWC on organizational commitment. The moderate effect of FWC was negative for affective commitment and for continuance commitment, the effect was relatively weak and positive. The previous studies on FWC were generally contradicting with each other. Wiley (1987) and Riaz and Hunjra (2015) found that FWC has a negative impact on organizational commitment. On the other hand, Amstad et al. (2011) found FWC only affects family-related outcomes, not work-related outcomes, like organizational commitment. Casper et al. (2002) found no significant effect of FWC on any forms of commitment. While the findings for FWC were so different from each other, this study added a further understanding for FWC in Cypriot context by presenting a significant impact. The effect of FWC on organizational commitment is not surprising for Northern Cyprus. Cyprus has a collectivist culture which means that family is the priority in individuals` lives and family always come first. According to Hassan et al. (2010), experiencing higher FWC may be explained by having collectivist culture because, in collectivist cultures, family members are extended by including aunty, uncle and grandmother, and grandfathers. It means that it is more likely that more family issues and responsibilities may occur and all these are requiring more time, energy and resources from individuals which is connected to experience higher FWC. Thus, experiencing higher FWC might be due to embracing collectivist values and norms which lead individuals to take their family responsibilities very serious which eventually decrease the attachment to the organization.

Furthermore, the effect of FWC is also consistent with the social identity theory. The theory suggests that individuals identified themselves depending on their social surroundings. As the Northern Cypriot's culture is more focused on families, it is expected from individuals to adapt to this perspective and prioritize their families, not their jobs. The negative relationship between FWC and affective commitment can be interpreted as having family roles and demands would decrease the level of affective commitment of employees towards the organization. Therefore, when individuals are putting more effort and energy on their family responsibilities, this might end up with a decreased attachment to the organization. Furthermore, FWC and continuance commitment' positive relationship is consistent with the findings from Casper et al. (2002). When family responsibilities are high, especially for a country like Northern Cyprus, where the family has the priority and alternative job opportunities are limited, individuals may feel obligated to the organization. Also, a new job means that person must prove himself/herself which require high performance whereas this might be impossible due to high family demands. These might bring the `necessity` to carry on the current job and this can explain the higher continuance commitment. Additionally, it is possible that individuals` continuance commitment may be because of the certain benefits that they have from the organization including high salary, flexible working hours.

Moderation Effect of Gender

Further analysis tested the relationships between work-family conflict concept and organizational commitment, with gender as a moderator. Results revealed that gender did not moderate the relationship between WFCC and organizational commitment.

First, the negative relationship between FWC and affective commitment does not change for men and women as there is no big difference between men and women. This means the effect of FWC on affective commitment does not change for men and women and both genders perceive the negative effect of FWC on affective commitment similarly. This can be explained by the collectivist culture of Northern Cyprus again. Many couples live under the joint family system based on the statistics that presented in the background section; where women take part in the working life. Therefore, both men and women may show priority to their family demands and get affected by family demands almost equally. Some studies suggested that women are more likely to dedicate maximum amount of time for family because of expected gender role and because of this when the demands from family are high, they may tend to trade of their work responsibilities and obligation (Barnes et al.2012; Gutek, Searle and Klepa, 1991). However, this study could not support this statement where both men and women showed an equal decline in their affective commitment in the presence of FWC. Another explanation might be the social identity theory where individuals adopt their cultural norms and expectations. In Northern Cyprus, it might be the case that family's importance and priority is vital for both men and women. So, both men and women perceive their family demands and responsibilities as a priority and it might be decreasing their attachment towards to the organization. As it has been discussed in the theoretical section, individuals acknowledge certain roles and adapt their lives based on these roles and when two different roles create conflict, individuals tend to choose one role more important than the other role depending on their priorities and this might be affecting the attachment and behaviors from the other responsibilities (Greenhous & Beutell, 1985). Based on this, the current results are not surprising where family responsibilities won over the work attachment. However, the current study did not aim to investigate the level of embracement of collectivist culture among men and women. Therefore, it brings an interesting question about how men and women in collectivist culture embrace their roles and how this might affect their organizational commitment. This might guide the future studies in terms of understanding and investigate this aspect as well.

Furthermore, the gender also did not moderate the relationship between FWC and continuance commitment for men and women as both values are quite low even though it is significant for women (Beta=0.16). This suggests that being men or women does not change the relationship between FWC and continuance commitment. This result suggests that both men and women may feel equally responsible for providing for their families and take care of the family needs in the presence of family role demands. Due to the perceived obligation, both men and women may report a similar increase in their continuance commitment when FWC presents.

Apart from the main results, gender moderated some control variables` effect on affective commitment and continuance commitment. These are faculty and role conflict for men and job autonomy, age, children and job security for women. All these control variables are already well-studies antecedents of organizational commitment. Therefore, they will not be discussed again why they affected organizational commitment but the contribution of the current study is to show that these certain control variables affect organizational commitment differently for

men and women. This difference might due to the different perceived gender role of men and women where Gutek et al. (1991) suggested or it might be because of the cultural context of the Northern Cyprus. For men, being part of the certain departments (engineering, health, and education) have a positive impact on their affective commitment. This result is in line with the previous studies which found that when individuals have a chance to work outside of university but still prefer to work at a university, this enhances their affective attachment to the university (Neumann and Finaly-Neumann, 1990). This is what the current study also showed but only for male participants. Role conflict is another control which has been moderated by gender and showed a negative significant influence on affective commitment only for men. The one possible reason might be the case men do not overtake as many obstacles as women overtake to get a career as suggested by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). So, losing their attachment might be easier for men in this case. Another possible explanation might be that organizations generally have expectations for men to trade off their family responsibilities with work responsibilities and this is making it more complicated for men to balance their work and family demands which in return increase role conflict and may decrease their attachment to the organization (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991).

For women, job autonomy is an important factor influencing affective commitment and the age, job security and having children are important factors influencing continuance commitment. Job autonomy has a positive impact on an affective commitment for women. Lu et al. (2008) suggest that job flexibility is an important determinant for affective commitment. Even though this study did not measure flexibility, the importance of job autonomy for women can be interpreted in line with this statement. Also, the reason might be that men are generally experiencing higher levels of job autonomy compared to women (Fagan & Burchell, 2002); so, this might not be an important determinant for them to feel attached to the organization but for women, this might be a "need" to enhance their attachment to the organization.

According to Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), when employees have younger children, their obligation or need to carry on working would be higher. The reason why this is only valid for women might be because of women have been found to have higher continuance commitment as the absence of alternatives or benefits that they have (Wahn, 1998). So, this may be the reason for women with children under the age of 18 to have a higher obligation. Furthermore, age is influencing continuance commitment negatively for women and this might be in line with the effect of having children smaller than 18 because when women get older, their children become older too and this might be eliminating the obligation feeling towards the organization.

Finally, job security suggests decreasing continuance commitment for women. When women perceive less secure, they may not want to carry on working in the workplace and they lose their feeling of obligation towards the organization. So, maybe for women, job security is an important aspect of working life and even though they got that career by overcoming several obstacles, without security, they may not feel a need to be part of that organization.

Relationship between Work-family Conflict Concept (WFCC) and Organizational Commitment with Number of Control Variables

The relationship between WFCC and organizational commitment has been tested by controlling certain personal and work-related characteristics based on the literature review. Here, certain interesting results have emerged;

First, personal/background characteristics have been found to have a weak influence on the effect of WFC for affective commitment, meaning that personal characteristics are slightly controlling the negative effect of WFC on affective commitment but none of the personal/background characteristics were significant. Also, this effect has been disappeared when the work-related characteristics have been introduced. Therefore, it can be concluded that the effect of WFC on affective commitment is slightly depending on the personal/background characteristics and it is hard to make a general strong conclusion from that result. Even though it is a well-documented and studied area that certain personal and background characteristics affect organizational commitment (Meyer et al.2002; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), this study did not find any strong influence from these variables.

Another important finding is that the perceived organizational support (POS) suggests an additional explanation for affective commitment. This finding is consistent with previous studies where they found that POS is an important determinant for affective commitment (Bycio et al.1995; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberg, 2001; Meyer et al.2002). Souten (2003) found that affective commitment of employees is highly connected to POS because when employees perceive support from their organization and supervisor, they feel like that the organization care about their values, well-being, and opinions which create an obligation to care about the organization. POS is highly important for organizations because high POS is also connected with employees' satisfaction and increased performance which eventually leads to organization's well-being. The one possible explanation on why POS only explained affective commitment and not the continuance commitment in the current study is that affective

commitment is the most affected dimension of organizational commitment by the work experiences that a person has (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This finding is important from the organization's perspective in Northern Cyprus because this shows that academic employees in universities consider POS as an important determinant for their affective commitment and by understanding this, universities can apply certain policies to enhance POS and eventually enhance the performance of their academic staff.

The final important finding of this study was the significant influence of age on the continuance commitment. This finding reveals two important aspects of continuance commitment. First one is that age explains continuance commitment better than FWC, meaning that the older employees get, their continuance commitment will decrease towards the organization. Second, this finding differs from studies from Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) and Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf (1994) who found a positive relationship between continuance commitment and age. One could expect that an individual's costs related to leaving the organization would increase by getting older due to fears of the competitive job market, years and effort spent within the organization, etc. These costs related to leaving the organization would lead to raising in continuance commitment (Soulen, 2003). Therefore, it is expected that the more investments have been done, their continuance commitment should be higher. However, the present study found the opposite. The one possible explanation might be that academic employees may not be perceiving that their investments to the universities are quite high which decreases their continuance commitment. The second explanation might be that currently new universities are opening in Northern Cyprus and this might create a perception of new job alternatives for experienced academic employees (Lovakov, 2016). Therefore, when they become older, their necessity to work might be decreased due to the availability of other alternatives in the society. With an average age of 40, the participants can easily carry on working in the society as the retirement age in Northern Cyprus is 60 years old. Therefore, age may not be a barrier for the academic staff but more an advantage in terms of seniority and more experiences. So, there is less necessity they feel to carry on their current employment as their age becomes older.

Strengths

The main strength of this study is that it may appear to be the very first study to focus on workfamily conflict concept and organizational commitment in Northern Cypriot's academic staff. This study has contributed to the gaps in the literature by focusing on a collectivist culture as many previous studies conducted in Western cultures (Casper et al.2011). Furthermore, studying academic staff was important because many studies on organizational commitment were mainly focused on other sectors like hospitals, nurses, industrial workers (Akintayo, 2010), banking sector (Abdullah & Ramay, 2012). Using quantitative method one of the strengths of this study because it allows to include a larger sample and tests hypotheses. Statistical analyses increase the reliability of study and subjectivity. Finally, this study's findings could be useful for universities and other organizations in Northern Cyprus to develop family-friendly policies and enhance employees' organizational commitment.

Limitations and Future Research

Although this study enhances the knowledge of organizational commitment and work-family conflict in academic staff in Northern Cyprus, certain limitations exist in this study.

The first set of limitations covers the design, method and sample size of the study. Self-report measures were used in this study to assess the variables. Individuals completed the questionnaire based on their own opinions and perceptions. Self-perceptions can be subjective, inaccurate or lead to response bias (Breakwell et al.2006). Even though the quantitative method was a good choice for this study due to its construction and model, it might lead to some weaknesses for the study. As the desired response rate could not be obtained, the result could not be generalized for all population. Also, using quantitative method might ignore the in-depth understanding of human behavior. Interviews could give a deeper understanding of what employees think about their organization and how their work and family lives are interfering with each other. This might guide some future studies to conduct a qualitative study on a similar topic to investigate the individuals' own opinions from their own words. As the original measures are designed using the context of origin, applying the same questions in different context might create some issues in terms of social, cultural and language-based differences. Another possible limitation of the study is the language of the questionnaire, even though it is expected from academic staff to understand English very well, the native language in Northern Cyprus is Turkish and this might cause some misunderstanding of questions and statements. Future studies may pay attention to this and design a study with Turkish-translated questionnaires.

Second limitation is the weak reliabilities for both forms of organizational commitment where both were less than desirable and this might be the reason of attenuated relationships between organizational commitment and WFC/FWC. Even though highly recognized scales have been used for organizational commitment, for Northern Cypriot context, affective commitment and continuance commitment scales did not fully receive reliability. So, the current study's findings interpreted carefully when it comes to generalization. Future studies might need to use improved measures to enhance the understanding of the impact of WFCC on organizational commitment.

The third limitation might be the sample features which comprise only certain faculties. Therefore, the current results may not be held for all academic employees in Northern Cyprus which is a lack of generalization. So, further researches should consider to include a bigger sample with all academic employees in the universities. Due to limited time and resources, current study failed to expand for whole Northern Cypriot universities.

Finally, additional investigation is needed to link the variables in the current study with other important organizational outcomes and moderators. Future studies should develop more comprehensive models including the relationships between these variables and other important concepts. For example, the affective commitment has been linked to citizenship behavior (Shore et al.1995), suggesting that future research might cover citizenship behaviors as one related concept. Also, future studies might consider to include other moderators like organizational trust (Yilmaz, 2008), family responsibilities (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006), perceived competence and salary (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and work flexibility (Lu et al.2008).

Implications

As this study was focused on Northern Cyprus, organizations could utilize these findings as a guideline to develop family-friendly policies. Northern Cyprus is still a developing country in terms of work-family policies and therefore, not very common in the country. There is still a gap in understanding the practical needs of employees in terms of work-family initiatives. These findings play an important role in terms of universities in Northern Cyrus and open a new perspective and understanding. These findings can guide the universities in terms of working on advancing their management policies to retain their academic staff and enhance their organizational commitment. Altogether this study reveals that FWC, age, and POS are the main variables to affect organizational commitment in the current investigation and context. The POS and age are already well-documented and understood antecedents of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) whereas the current investigation has been added a new

explanation where WFC and FWC have some effect on organizational commitment. Furthermore, it has been revealed that FWC has a significant negative effect on affective commitment both for men and women. Therefore, universities should start to consider including flexible working policies or improve the current ones to help employees to balance their work and family lives and introduce environments where individuals can handle family responsibilities better and focus their job performance easier. This study was important to raise questions on how collectivist cultures might experience the relationship between WFC/FWC and organizational commitment. In today's world, multinationals companies should be aware of different cultures and social norms to act effectively in the given context and increase their legitimacy. One way for this is to help individuals to balance their family and work responsibilities, especially in collectivist cultures. By this way, both individuals and organizations will benefit with increased commitment, satisfaction, and general performance.

Conclusion

In the last twenty years, the construct of organizational commitment has acknowledged many empirical studies both as a consequence and an antecedent of several other work-related outcomes. A range of organizational commitment models has been attempted to explain how several work-related variables and personal variables influence organizational commitment and how, in turn, commitment influence certain organizational outcomes like performance, turnover, satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors. As organizational commitment has been studied with different angles, the current study aimed to investigate the possible impact of workto- family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC) on two forms of organizational commitment, namely, affective and continuance commitments. This study conducted in Northern Cypriot context by focusing on full-time academic staff in Northern Cyprus, with gender as the main moderator and certain control variables. It was found that the two main independent variables of this study did not strongly affect both forms of organizational commitment due to weak Beta values. Even though the weak influence, both WFC, and FWC can be two explanations of organizational commitment. More specifically, a negative relationship existed between FWC and affective commitment while the relationship between FWC and continuance commitment was positive. On the other hand, there was no significant relationship between WFC and both affective and continuance commitments.

Gender did not moderate the relationship between FWC and affective commitment in this study but moderated the effect of certain control variables on affective commitment and continuance commitment. Furthermore, findings of this study revealed that the personal/background and work-related have a weak controlling effect on the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

Apart from these, age and POS have been found significant determinants of affective and continuance commitments. They indicated additional explanations for organizational commitment. In the literature, age and POS have been already well-studied antecedents for organizational commitment. Therefore, it was not surprising to find their significant effect. However, finding some support for WFC and FWC is the main contribution of this study in explaining the organizational commitment. This study can be a guideline for future studies which will aim to study Northern Cypriot context and academic staff with the presented results and suggested improvements.

30

Reference list

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (1988). Comments on the motivational status of self-esteem in social identity and intergroup discrimination. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *18*(4), 317-334.

Adams, G. A., & Jex, S. M. (1999). Relationships between time management, control, work-family conflict, and strain. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *4*, 72-77.

Adams, G. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1996). Relationships of job and family involvement, family social support, and work–family conflict with job and life satisfaction. *Journal of applied psychology*, *81*(4), 411.

Adkins, C. L., Werbel, J. D., & Farh, J. L. (2001). A field study of job insecurity during a financial crisis. *Group & Organization Management*, 26(4), 463-483.

Adler, N. J., & Jelinek, M. (1986). Is "organization culture" culture bound? *Human Resource Management*, 25(1), 73-90.

Ajiboye, S. O. (2008). Analysis of causal factors of work-family role conflict among male and female workers. *Journal of Sociological Studies*, *4*(2), 93-104.

Akhtar, S., & Malik, M. F. (2016). Effect of Boredom and Flexible Work Practices on the Relationship of WFC with Procrastination and Affective Commitment: Mediation of Non-Work-Related Presenteeism. *Global Journal of Flexible Systems Management*, *17*(4), 343-356.

Akintayo, D. I. (2010). Work-family role conflict and organizational commitment among industrial workers in Nigeria. *International Journal of Psychology and Counselling*, 2(1), 1-8.

Allard, K. (2007). Toward a Working Life. Solving the work-family dilemma. Geson.

Allen, N. J., & Allen, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An exploration of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *49*, 252–276.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 63(1), 1-18.

Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: a review and agenda for future research. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 5(2), 278.

Ambrose, M. L., & Cropanzano, R. (2003). A longitudinal analysis of organizational fairness: An examination of reactions to tenure and promotion decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 266–275.

Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes with a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations.

Anafarta, N. (2011). The relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction: A structural equation modeling (SEM) approach. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *6*(4), 168-177.

Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. *Administrative science quarterly*, 1-14.

Aryee, S., Fields, D., & Luk, V. (1999). A cross-cultural test of a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of management*, 25(4), 491-511.

Aryee, S., Srinivas, E. S., & Tan, H. H. (2005). Rhythms of life: antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of applied psychology*, *90*(1), 132.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*, 20–39.

Aubé, C., Rousseau, V., & Morin, E. M. (2007). Perceived organizational support and organizational commitment: The moderating effect of locus of control and work autonomy. *Journal of managerial Psychology*, 22(5), 479-495.

Aydin, A., Sarier, Y., & Uysal, S. (2011). The Effect of Gender on Organizational Commitment of Teachers: A Meta Analytic Analysis. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, *11*(2), 628-632.

Bagger, J., Reb, J., & Li, A. (2014). Anticipated regret in time-based work-family conflict. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(3), 304-320. Baltes, B. B., & Heydens-Gahir, H. A. (2003). Reduction of work-family conflict through the use of selection, optimization, and compensation behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(6), 1005.

Baral, R., & Bhargava, S. (2010). Work-family enrichment as a mediator between organizational interventions for work-life balance and job outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(3), 274-300.

Bar-Hayim, A., & Berman, G. S. (1992). The dimensions of organizational commitment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *13*(4), 379-387.

Barnes, C. M., Wagner, D. T., & Ghumman, S. (2012). Borrowing from sleep to pay work and family: expanding time-based conflict to the broader nonwork domain. *Personnel Psychology*, *65*(4), 789-819.

Barnett, R. C. (1993). Multiple roles, gender, and psychological distress. Free Press.

Barnett, R. C. (1999). A new work-life model for the twenty-first century. *The annals of the American academy of political and social science*, *562*(1), 143-158.

Barnett, R. C., & Baruch, G. K. (1985). Women's involvement in multiple roles and psychological distress. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 49(1), 135.

Bassi, L., & McMurrer, D. (2007). Maximizing your return on people. *Harvard Busines Review*, 85(3), 115-123.

Bateman, T. S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27, 95-112.

Bedeian, A. G., Burke, B. G., & Moffett, R. G. (1988). Outcomes of work-family conflict among married male and female professionals. *Journal of management*, *14*(3), 475-491.

Bedeian, A. G., Ferris, G. R., & Kacmar, K. M. (1992). Age, tenure, and job satisfaction: A tale of two perspectives. *Journal of Vocational behavior*, *40*(1), 33-48.

Beham, B., & Drobnič, S. (2010). Satisfaction with work-family balance among German office workers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(6), 669-689.

Benligiray, S., & Sönmez, H. (2012). Analysis of organizational commitment and work–family conflict in view of doctors and nurses. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(18), 3890-3905.

Bielby, W. T., & Baron, J. N. (1986). Men and women at work: Sex segregation and statistical discrimination. *American journal of sociology*, *91*(4), 759-799.

Blaikie, N. (2003). Analyzing quantitative data: From description to explanation. Sage.

Breakwell, G., Hammond, S., Fife-Schaw, C., & Smith, J. (2006). *Research methods in psychology* (3rd Ed.). London, England: Sage.

Bruck, C. S., Allen, T. D., & Spector, P. E. (2002). The relation between work–family conflict and job satisfaction: A finer-grained analysis. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *60*(3), 336-353.

Bruning, N. S., & Snyder, R. A. (1983). Sex and position as predictors of organizational commitment. *Academy of management journal*, *26*(3), 485-491.

Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative science quarterly*, 533-546.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, 80(4), 468.

Calvo-Salguero, A., Carrasco-Gonzalez, A. M., & De Lecea, J. M. S. M. (2010). Relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction: The moderating effect of gender and the salience of family and work roles. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(7), 1247.

Carlson, D. S., Grzywacz, J. G., & Michele Kacmar, K. (2010). The relationship of schedule flexibility and outcomes via the work-family interface. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(4), 330-355.

Casper, W. J., Harris, C., Taylor-Bianco, A., & Wayne, J. H. (2011). Work–family conflict, perceived supervisor support and organizational commitment among Brazilian professionals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *79*(3), 640-652.

Casper, W. J., Martin, J. A., Buffardi, L. C., & Erdwins, C. J. (2002). Work--family conflict, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment among employed mothers. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 7(2), 99.

Cetin, M. O. (2006). The relationship between job satisfaction, occupational and organizational commitment of academics. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 8(1), 78-88.

Chang, W. L., Lu, L. C., Su, H. J., Lin, T. A., & Chang, K. Y. (2010). The mediating effect of role stressors on market orientation and organizational commitment. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *38*(10), 1431-1440.

Chow, E. N. L., & Berheide, C. W. (1988). The interdependence of family and work: A framework for family life education, policy, and practice. *Family Relations*, 23-28.

Chughtai, A. A., & Zafar, S. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment among Pakistani university teachers.

Cleary, P. D., & Mechanic, D. (1983). Sex differences in psychological distress among married people. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 111-121.

Cohen, A. (1999). Relationships among five forms of commitment: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 285-308.

Cohen, A. (2009). Individual values and the work/family interface. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(8), 814-832.

Cohen, A., & Lowenberg, G. (1990). A re-examination of the side-bet theory as applied to organization commitment: A meta-analysis. *Human Relations*, *43*, 1015–1050.

Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfilment. *Journal of occupational psychology*, *53*(1), 39-52.

Cooper-Hakim, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). *The construct of work commitment: testing an integrative framework.*

DeCotiis, T. A., & Summers, T. P. (1987). A path analysis of a model of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Human relations*, *40*(7), 445-470.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B. and Schaufeli, W.B. (2005), "Spillover and crossover of exhaustion and life satisfaction among dual-earner parents", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), pp. 266-89.

Drago, F. A. (2002). Emotional labour at workplace: An examination of turnover intentions of the workforce. *Journal of Social and Health Psychology*, 23(1), 34-45.

Dunham, R. B., Grube, J. A., & Castaneda, M. B. (1994). Organizational commitment: The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of applied psychology*, *79*(3), 370.

Duxbury, L. E., & Higgins, C. A. (1991). Gender differences in work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology*, 76(1), 60.

Eby, L. T., Casper, W. J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980–2002). *Journal of vocational behavior*, *66*(1), 124-197.

Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (1999). Work and family stress and well-being: An examination of person-environment fit in the work and family domains. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 77, 85–129.

Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of management review*, *25*(1), 178-199.

Eisenberg, E. M., Monge, P. R., & Miller, K. I. (1983). Involvement in communication networks as a predictor of organizational commitment. *Human Communication Research*, *10*(2), 179-201.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, *86*(1), 42.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 500-507.

Eisinga, R., Teelken, C., & Doorewaard, H. (2010). Assessing cross-national invariance of the three-component model of organizational commitment: A six-country study of European university faculty. *Cross-Cultural Research*, *44*(4), 341-373.

Ergeneli, A., Ilsev, A., & Karapınar, P. B. (2010). Work–family conflict and job satisfaction relationship: The roles of gender and interpretive habits. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *17*(6), 679-695.

Fagan, C., & Burchell, B. (2002). Gender, Jobs and Working Conditions in the European Union.

Fain, J. (1987). Perceived role conflict, role ambiguity, and job satisfaction among nurse educators. *Journal of Nursing Education*, *26* (6), 233-238.

Fallon, B. J. (1997). The balance between paid work and home responsibilities: personal problem or corporate concern? *Australian Psychologist*, *32*(1), 1-9.

French, J. L., & Rosenstein, J. (1984). Employee ownership work attitudes, and power relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27(4), 861-869.

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of applied psychology*, 77(1), 65.

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Prevalence of work-family conflict: are work and family boundaries asymmetrically permeable? *Journal of organizational behaviour*, *13*(7), 723-729.

Fuller, J. B., Hester, K., Barnett, T., & Relyea, L. F. C. (2006). Perceived organizational support and perceived external prestige: Predicting organizational attachment for university faculty, staff, and administrators. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *146*, 327–347.

Gaertner, K. N., & Nollen, S. D. (1989). Career experiences, perceptions of employment practices, and psychological commitment to the organization. *Human relations*, *42*(11), 975-991.

Galinsky, E., Bond, J. T., & Friedman, D. E. (1993). *The changing workforce: Highlights of the national study*. Diane Publishing.

Giele, I. Z. (1988). Gender and sell: roles. In N.J. Smelser (Ed.), *Handbook of sociology*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage

Gokdemir, O., & Tahsin, E. (2014). Factors that influence the life satisfaction of women living in the Northern Cyprus. *Social indicators research*, *115*(3), 1071-1085.

González-Romá, V., & Lloret, S. (1998). Construct Validity of Rizzo et al. 's (1970) Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scales: A Multisample Study. *Applied Psychology*, *47*(4), 535-545.

Good, L. K., Sisler, G. F., & Gentry, J. W. (1988). Antecedents of turnover intentions among retail management personnel. Journal of Retailing, 64, 295–314.

Gormley, D. K. (2005). Organizational Climate, Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Nurse Faculty Work Role Balance: Influence on Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Cincinnati).

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American* sociological review, 161-178.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of management review*, *10*(1), 76-88.

Greenhaus, J. H., Bedeian, A. G., & Mossholder, K. W. (1987). Work experiences, job performance, and feelings of personal and family well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *31*(2), 200-215.

Grusky, O. (1966). Career mobility and organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 488-503.

Gutek, K. A., Searles, A. A., & Klepa, H. O. (1991). Work-family role conflict: Evaluation study. *Journal of Social Work*, *16*(3), 88-96.

Hackett, R. D., Bycio, P., & Hausdorf, P. A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of applied psychology*, *79*(1), 15-23.

Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. *Administrative science quarterly*, 176-190.

Haslam, S. A., van Knippenberg, D., Platow, M. J., & Ellemers, N. (2003). *Social identity at work: Developing theory for organizational practice*. New York and Hove, UK: Psychology Press.

Hassan, Z., Dollard, M. F., & Winefield, A. H. (2010). Work-family conflict in East vs Western countries. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, *17*(1), 30-49.

Hatam, N., Jalali, M. T., Askarian, M., & Kharazmi, E. (2016). Relationship between Family-Work and Work-Family Conflict with Organizational Commitment and Desertion Intention among Nurses and Paramedical Staff at Hospitals. *International journal of community based nursing and midwifery*, 4(2), 107.

Hellman, C. M. (1997). Job satisfaction and intent to leave. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *137*, 677-689.

Higgins, C., Duxbury, L., & Lee, C. (1994). Impact of life-cycle stage and gender on the ability to balance work and family responsibilities. *Family relations*, 144-150.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of general psychology*, 6(4), 307.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 121–140.

Holahan, C. K., & Gilbert, L. A. (1979). Interrole conflict for working women: careers versus jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(1), 86.

Hrebiniak, L. G., & Alutto, J. A. (1972). Personal and role-related factors in the development of organizational commitment. *Administrative science quarterly*, 555-573.

Iverson, R.D. and Buttigieg, D.M. (1999), "Affective, normative, and continuance commitment: can the 'right kind' of commitment be managed?", *Journal of Management Studies*, *36*(3), p. 307.

Jackson, S. E. & Schuler, R. S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *36*, 16-78.

Jans, N.A. (1989). Organizational commitment, career factors and career/life stage. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *10*, 247-266.

Jaros, S. J., Jermier, J. M., Koehler, J. W., & Sincich, T. (1993). Effects of continuance, affective, and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of management Journal*, *36*(5), 951-995.

Jerejian, A. C., Reid, C., & Rees, C. S. (2013). The contribution of email volume, email management strategies and propensity to worry in predicting email stress among academics. *Computers in human behavior*, 29(3), 991-996.

Jernigan III, I. E., Beggs, J. M., & Kohut, G. F. (2002). Dimensions of work satisfaction as predictors of commitment type. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *17*(7), 564-579.

Jernigan, I. E., & Beggs, J. M. (2005). An examination of satisfaction with my supervisor and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *35*(10), 2171-2192.

Joiner, T. A., & Bakalis, S. (2006). The antecedents of organizational commitment: the case of Australian casual academics. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 20(6), 439-452.

Judeh, M. (2011). Role ambiguity and role conflict as mediators of the relationship between socialization and organizational commitment. *International Business Research*, 4(3), 171.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). Organizational stress.

Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American sociological review*, 499-517.

Karatepe, O. M., & Baddar, L. (2006). An empirical study of the selected consequences of frontline employees' work–family conflict and family–work conflict. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 1017-1028.

Karatepe, O. M., & Kilic, H. (2009). The effects of two directions of conflict and facilitation on frontline employees' job outcomes. *The Service Industries Journal*, 29(7), 977-993.

Karatepe, O. M., & Uludag, O. (2007). Conflict, exhaustion, and motivation: A study of frontline employees in Northern Cyprus hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(3), 645-665.

Kelloway, E. K., Gottlieb, B. H., & Barham, L. (1999). The source, nature, and direction of work and family conflict: A longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *4*, 337–346.

Kırmızı, A., & Deniz, O. (2012). The organisational commitment of IT professionals in private banks. *International Journal of Logistics Systems and Management*, *11*(2), 175-197.

Kiss, C. (2013). Organizational Commitment and Work-Family Conflict in Customer Service Centres.

Lambert, S. J. (1990). Processes linking work and family: A critical review and research agenda. *Human relations*, 43(3), 239-257.

Li, C., Lu, J., & Zhang, Y. (2013). Cross-domain effects of work-family conflict on organizational commitment and performance. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *41*(10), 1641-1653.

Li, Y. (2014). Building affective commitment to organization among Chinese university teachers: The roles of organizational justice and job burnout. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability, 26,* 135–152.

Lim, D. H., Song, J. H., & Choi, M. (2012). Work–family interface: Effect of enrichment and conflict on job performance of Korean workers. *Journal of Management & Organization*, *18*(03), 383-397.

Lincoln, J. R., & Kalleberg, A. L. (1990). *Culture, control and commitment*. A Study of Work Organization and Work Attitudes in the United States and Japan, Cambridge.

Liou, K. T., & Nyhan, R. C. (1994). Dimensions of organizational commitment in the public sector: An empirical assessment. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 99-118.

Lourel, M., Ford, M. T., Edey Gamassou, C., Guéguen, N., & Hartmann, A. (2009). Negative and positive spillover between work and home: Relationship to perceived stress and job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *24*(5), 438-449.

Lovakov, A. (2016). Antecedents of organizational commitment among faculty: an exploratory study. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 22(2), 149-170.

Lu, L., Gilmour, R., Kao, S. F., & Huang, M. T. (2006). A cross-cultural study of work/family demands, work/family conflict and wellbeing: the Taiwanese vs British. *Career Development International*, *11*(1), 9-27.

Lu, L., Kao, S. F., Chang, T. T., Wu, H. P., & Cooper, C. L. (2008). Work/family demands, work flexibility, work/family conflict, and their consequences at work: A national probability sample in Taiwan. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *15*(1), 1.

Lyness, K. S., & Thompson, D. E. (1997). Above the glass ceiling? A comparison of matched samples of female and male executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*, 359–375.

Malach-Pines, A., & Kaspi-Baruch, O. (2008). The role of culture and gender in the choice of a career in management. *Career Development International*, *13*(4), 306-319.

Malik, M. S., & Awan, A. G. (2015). Role of Work Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment and Organizational Effectiveness. *Nigerian Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, *3*(1), 115-126.

Marchiori, D. M., & Henkin, A. B. (2004). Organizational commitment of a health profession faculty: dimensions, correlates and conditions. *Medical Teacher*, *26*(4), 353-358.

Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American sociological review*, 921-936.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological review*, *98*(2), 224.

Marsden, P. V., Kalleberg, A. L., & Cook, C. R. (1993). Gender differences in organizational commitment influences of work positions and family roles. *Work and Occupations*, *20*(3), 368-390.

Mason, E. S. (1995). Gender differences in job satisfaction. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *135*(2), 143-151.

Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological bulletin*, *108*(2), 171.

Mayer, R. C., & Schoorman, F. D. (1998). Differentiating antecedents of organizational commitment: a test of March and Simon's model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15-28.

Md-Sidin, S., Sambasivan, M., & Ismail, I. (2010). Relationship between work-family conflict and quality of life: An investigation into the role of social support. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(1), 58-81.

Mengüç, B. (1996). Evidence for Turkish industrial salespeople: Testing the applicability of a conceptual model for the effect of effort on sales performance and job satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing*, *30*(1), 33-51.

Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of workto-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 67(2), 215-232.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the "side-bet theory" of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of applied psychology*, *69*(3), 372.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1988). Links between work experiences and organizational commitment during the first year of employment: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *61*, 195-209.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human resource management review*, *1*(1), 61-89.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). Commitment in the workplace. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., & Maltin, E. R. (2010). Employee commitment and well-being: A critical review, theoretical framework and research agenda. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 77(2), 323-337.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Some methodological considerations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 538–551.

Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: a conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(6), 991.

Meyer, J. P., Irving, P. G., & Allen, N. J. (1998). Examination of the combined effects of work values and early work experiences on organizational commitment. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, 29-52.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *61*(1), 20-52.

Morgeson, F. P., & Humphrey, S. E. (2006). The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ): developing and validating a comprehensive measure for assessing job design and the nature of work. *Journal of applied psychology*, *91*(6), 1321.

Mottaz, C. J. (1988). Determinants of organizational commitment. *Human relations*, 41(6), 467-482.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover.* San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *14*(2), 224-247.

Musselin, C. (2013). Redefinition of the relationships between academics and their university. *Higher Education*, 65(1), 25-37.

Nart, S., & Batur, O. (2014). The relation between work-family conflict, job stress, organizational commitment and job performance: A study on Turkish primary teachers. *European Journal of Research on Education*, 2(2), 72-81.

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work– family conflict and family–work conflict scales. *Journal of applied psychology*, *81*(4), 400.

Netemeyer, R. G., Brashear-Alejandro, T., & Boles, J. S. (2004). A cross-national model of job-related outcomes of work role and family role variables: A retail sales context. *Journal of the Academy of marketing Science*, *32*(1), 49-60.

Neumann, Y., & Finaly-Neumann, E. (1990). The reward-support framework and faculty commitment to their university. *Research in Higher Education*, *31*(1), 75-97.

Ngo, H. and Tsang, W. (1998), "Employment practices and organizational commitment: differential effects for men and women?", *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*,6(3), pp. 251-66.

Nicholson, W. M. (2009). Leadership Practices, Organizatonal Commitment, and Turnover Intentions: A Correlational Study in a Call Center. Dissertation. Phoenix: University of Phoenix. Noor, N.M. (2003), "Work-and family-related variables, work-family conflict and women's well-being: some observations". *Community, Work and Family, 6*(3), pp. 297-319.

Nordenmark, M. (2002). Multiple social roles—a resource or a burden: Is it possible for men and women to combine paid work with family life in a satisfactory way? *Gender, Work & Organization, 9*(2), 125-145.

North Cyprus Personnel Office. Retrieved May 12, 2017, from http://personel.gov.ct.tr

Nwagbara, U., & Akanji, B. O. (2012). The Impact of Work-Life Balance on the Commitment and Motivation of Nigerian Women Employees. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(3), 38.

OECD. Retrieved May 12, 2017, from http://www.oecd.org/

O'Driscoll, M. P., Ilgen, D. R., & Hildreth, K. (1992). Time devoted to job and off-job activities, interrole conflict, and affective experiences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 272–279.

Obi-Nwosu, H., Chiamaka, J. A. O., & Tochukwu, O. M. (2013). Job characteristics as predictors of organizational commitment among private sector workers in Anambra state, Nigeria. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, *3*(2), 482-491.

Onyemah, Vincent. (2008). Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict, and Performance: Empirical Evidence of an Inverted-U Relationship, *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management* 28(3), pp.299–313.

Pleck, J. H., Staines, G. L., & Lang, L. (1980). Conflicts between work and family life', *Monthly Labor Review*, *103*, 29-32.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of applied psychology*, *59*(5), 603.

Posig, M. and Kickul, J. (2004), "Work-role expectations and work family conflict: gender differences in emotional exhaustion", *Women in Management Review*, *19*(7), 373-86.

Powpaka, S. (2006). How market orientation affects female service employees in Thailand. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(1), 54-61.

Ramay, I. M. (2012). Antecedents of organizational commitment of banking sector employees in Pakistan. *Serbian Journal of Management*, 7(1), 89-102.

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*(1), 91-110.

Redding, S. G., Norman, A., & Schlander, A. (1994). The nature of individual attachment to the organization: A review of East Asian variations. *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, *4*, 647-688.

Rehman, R. R. & Waheed, A. (2012). Work-family conflict and organization commitment: a case study of faculty members in Pakistani universities. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *9*(2).

Reskin, B. F., & Ross, C. E. (1992). Jobs, authority, and earnings among managers the continuing significance of sex. *Work and Occupations*, *19*(4), 342-365.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 698–714.

Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: the contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, *86*(5), 825.

Riaz, T., & Hunjra, N. A. (2015). Evidence of organizational commitment and work-life conflict. *Journal of Business Management and Economics*. 6(143), 012-016.

Ricketta, M. (2002). Attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance: a metaanalysis. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 23(3), 257-266.

Riketta, M. (2005). Organizational identification: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 358–384

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative science quarterly*, 150-163.

Robinson, D. (2003). Defining and Creating Employee Commitment: a review of current research. *Institute for Employment Studies*.

Rothmann, S., & Jordaan, G. M. E. (2006). Job demands, job resources and work engagement of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *32*(4), 87-96.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist*, *55*(1), 68.

Saner, T., & Eyupoglu, S. Z. (2012). Have gender differences in job satisfaction disappeared? A study of Turkish universities in North Cyprus. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(1), 250.

Schultz, J. L., & Higbee, J. L. (2010). An exploration of theoretical foundations for working mothers' formal workplace social networks. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 8, 87–94.

Shore, L. M., & Tetrick, L. E. (1991). A construct validity study of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of applied psychology*, *76*(5), 637.

Shore, L. M., & Wayne, S. J. (1993). Commitment and employee behavior: Comparison of affective commitment and continuance commitment with perceived organizational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, 78(5), 774.

Shore, L. M., Barksdale, K., & Shore, T. H. (1995). Managerial perceptions of employee commitment to the organization. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 1593-1615.

Singh, J., Goolsby, J. R., & Rhoads, G. K. (1994). Behavioral and psychological consequences of boundary spanning burnout for customer service representatives. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 558-569.

Smith, K., Gregory, S. R., & Cannon, D. (1996). Becoming an employer of choice: Assessing commitment in the hospitality workplace. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 8, 3-9.

Soon, A. (2005). *Studies on the Impact of Work-Life Initiatives on Employee and Firm Performance* (Doctoral dissertation, Nanyang Technological University).

Soulen, S. K. (2003). Organizational commitment, perceived supervisor support, and performance: a field study.

Spence Laschinger, H. K., Finegan, J., & Shamian, J. (2002). The impact of workplace empowerment, organizational trust on staff nurses' work satisfaction and organizational commitment. In *Advances in Health Care Management* (pp. 59-85). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

State Planning Organization (SPO) (2011). http://www.devplan.org/. Accessed May 12, 2017.

Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. *Administrative science quarterly*, 46-56.

Stephens, G. K., & Sommer, S. M. (1996). The measurement of work to family conflict. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 56(3), 475-486.

Streich, M., Casper, W. J., & Nicole Salvaggio, A. (2008). Examining couple agreement about work-family conflict. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *23*(3), 252-272.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel psychology*, *46*(2), 259-293.

Thoits, P. A. (1991). On merging identity theory and stress research. *Social psychology quarterly*, 101-112.

Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Lyness, K. S. (1999). When work–family benefits are not enough: The influence of work–family culture on benefit utilization, organizational attachment, and work–family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *54*, 392–415.

Triandis, H. C., Bontempo, R., Villareal, M. J., Asai, M., & Lucca, N. (1988). Individualism and collectivism: Cross-cultural perspectives on self-ingroup relationships. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 54(2), 323.

Wahn, J.C. (1998), "Sex differences in the continuance component of organizational commitment", *Group & Organization Management*, 23(3), pp. 256-67.

Wasti, S. A. (2002). Affective and continuance commitment to the organization: Test of an integrated model in the Turkish context. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *26*(5), 525-550.

Wiener, Y. (1982). Commitment in organizations: A normative view. *Academy of management review*, 7(3), 418-428.

Wiersma, U. J. (1990). Gender differences in job attribute preferences: Work—home role conflict and job level as mediating variables. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *63*(3), 231-243.

Wiley, D. L. (1987). The relationship between work/nonwork role conflict and job-related outcomes: Some unanticipated findings. *Journal of Management*, *13*(3), 467-472.

Wolf, W. C., & Fligstein, N. D. (1979). Sex and authority in the workplace: The causes of sexual inequality. *American sociological review*, 235-252.

Yılmaz, K. (2008). The relationship between organizational trust and organizational commitment in Turkish primary schools. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 8(12), 2293-2299.

Yousef, D. A. (2002). Job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between role stressors and organizational commitment: A study from an Arabic cultural perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *17*(4), 250-266.

Zhao, X. R., Qu, H., & Ghiselli, R. (2011). Examining the relationship of work–family conflict to job and life satisfaction: A case of hotel sales managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30*(1), 46-54.

Appendices

Appendix A – Front Letter



Dear Participant:

Most of human life is spent at work. We sometimes spend more time with our organization and colleagues than we spend with our families. Therefore, feeling belong towards our organization is crucial. Organizational commitment has been an important issue for many years and received a lot of attention from researchers because of its key role between organization and employee. Despite the fact that many factors have an influence on organizational commitment, work-family conflict has been suggested to be an important determinant of organizational commitment. Work-family conflict happens when imbalance occurs between work and family responsibilities. This study will map out the academic staff s opinions regarding work-family conflict and organizational commitment. Therefore, this study plays a crucial role in brighten the current situation for academic staff in this university.

I am a currently master student in Strategic Human Resource Management and Labour Relations degree at Gothenburg University, Sweden. For my master thesis, I am examining the <u>relationship between work-family conflict (WFC) and organizational commitment among</u> <u>academic staff in Cyprus.</u>

Because you are current full-time academic in the university, you are invited to participate in this study by completing the attached survey.

The following questionnaire will require approximately 20 minutes to complete. In order to ensure that all information will remain confidential, please do not include your name. I am conducting this study with the help of Human Resource Management Department of EMU. However, it is an independent study. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible. I will collect them physically. **Participation is voluntary**. Completion and return of the questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in this study.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavours. If you would like a copy of my master thesis, please send me email. If you require additional information or have questions, please contact me at the number or email address listed below.

Sincerely,

Dilem Dana

+4672 0214489 / +90 533 8752546

dilemd_92@hotmail.com

Appendix B – Consent Form and Debriefing Form



Examining the Relationship of Work-Family Conflict and Organizational Commitment

Please take a few minutes to read the following information on this research carefully before you agree to participate. If at any time you have a question regarding the study, please feel free to ask the researcher who will provide more information.

This study is being conducted by Dilem Dana. It aims to investigate the relationship between Workfamily conflict and organizational commitment. The study should take no more than 20 minutes to complete.

Of course, you are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason. In this case, all of your responses will be destroyed and omitted from the research. If you agree to participate in and complete the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your identifying information will be kept securely from the rest of your questionnaire.

To signify your voluntary participation, please complete the consent form below.

CONSENT FORM

Research Title: Examining the Relationship of Work-Family Conflict and Organizational Commitment

Name of Researchers:

Dilem Dana

dilemd_92@hotmail.com

Please tick the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation.
- 3. I agree to take part in this study.

Date

Signature



Participant Debrief Form

Thank you very much for participating in this study with the title Examining the Relationship of Work-Family Conflict and Organizational Commitment. Please take a few more minutes to read the following information, which will explain the aims and purpose of the research further. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask the researcher whose contact details are stated below.

This research is investigating the relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment. Organizational commitment has been an important issue for many years and received a lot of attention from researchers because of its key role between organization and employee. Despite the fact that many factors have an influence on organizational commitment, work-family conflict has been suggested to be an important determinant of organizational commitment. Work-family conflict happens when imbalance occurs between work and family responsibilities. This study will map out the academic staff s opinion regarding work-family conflict and organizational commitment. Therefore, this study plays a crucial role in brighten the current situation for academic staff in this university.

If during the completion of this questionnaire you felt any distress or discomfort and you would like to speak to, please contact me (dilemd_92@hotmail.com).

Once again thank you for your valuable contribution to this research. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Dilem Dana

Appendix C- Questionnaire



	Background Questions						
A	How old are you?						
В	Gender Man Woman						
C	What is the highest level of education that you have completed? Undergraduate Post-graduate Doctoral Other, Specify:						
D	What position/positions do you have in the university?						
E	How much percentage do you work with; Teaching: % Research: % Administration: % Other: %						
F	Do you work in the same university where you graduated from lastly? Yes No						
G	Which faculty do you belong to?						
Н	How many years have you been working in this university?						
Ι	Marital Status						
	Married Single						
J	If you are married;						

	Does your partner currently work? Yes No
K	How many children do you have under the age of 18?

	About your work and family responsibilities							
	well do the following ments describe you?	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree		
1	After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I`d like to do.							
2	On the job, I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.							
3	My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.							
4	My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.							
5	I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.							
6	My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.							
7	My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.							
8	My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.							

About your Feelings to Your Organization					
How well do the following statements describe you?	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

Г

1

9	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation.			
10	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it.			
11	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.			
12	I think I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.			
13	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation.			
14	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.			
15	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me			
16	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.			
17	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.			
18	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.			
19	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation right now.			
20	It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organisation in the near future.			
21	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.			

22	I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving the organisation.			
23	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.			
24	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here.			
25	The job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work.			
26	The job allows me to decide on the order in which things are done on the job.			
27	The job allows me to plan how I do my work.			
28	The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.			
29	The job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.			
30	The job provides me with significant autonomy in making decisions.			
31	The job allows me to make decisions about what methods I use to complete my work.			
32	The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.			

33	The job allows me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work.			
34	I feel secure about how much authority I have.			
35	I have clear planned goals and objectives for my job.			
36	I know that I have divided my time properly.			
37	I know what my responsibilities are.			
38	I know exactly what is expected of me.			
39	Explanation is clear of what has to be done.			
40	I have to do things that should be done differently under different conditions.			
41	I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.			
42	I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.			
43	I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.			
44	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.			
45	I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not by others.			

46	I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.			
47	I work on unnecessary things.			
48	The organization values my contribution to its well-being.			
49	The organization would ignore any complaint from me.			
50	The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.			
51	The organization really cares about my well-being.			
52	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.			
53	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.			
54	The organization shows very little concern for me.			
55	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.			
56	The organization has done all it can to avoid layoffs.			

This is the end of this survey. Thank you for your time and for your patience.