Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction among Career Changers in Korea: The Influence of Leaders’ Vision of Talent and Organizational Culture

Eun-Jee Kim

Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST), Korea

Sunyoung Park

Louisiana State University, Louisiana, USA

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Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction among Career Changers

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of organizational culture and the leaders’ vision of talent on organizational commitment and job satisfaction of employees who have experienced a career change. The research questions guiding the study were: (a) What are the relationships among leaders’ vision of talent, organizational culture, career changers’ organizational commitment, and job satisfaction? and (b) Does the organizational culture mediate the relationship among leaders’ vision of talent, career changers’ organizational commitment, and job satisfaction? Based on data obtained from the 2013 Human Capital Corporate Panel (HCCP) survey in Korea, 484 responses were analyzed. The findings indicated that organizational culture significantly affected career changers’ organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and leaders’ vision of talent positively influenced organizational culture. Although leaders’ vision of talent had no direct effect on career changers’ organizational commitment and job satisfaction, it indirectly affected their organizational commitment and job satisfaction by mediating organizational culture. Discussion, implications, and recommendations are elaborated.

Keywords: Leaders’ Vision of Talent, Organizational Culture, Organizational Commitment
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Introduction

In the workplace, people face many choices and options when considering a career change (Obodaru, 2012). Compared to previous decades, changing careers has become more common and typically is a necessary part of a person’s career progress (Carless & Arnup, 2011). Diverse factors influence the career change decision. For instance, the motivational force and work environment are important factors in a career change decision (Rhodes & Doering, 1983). Organizational transformation (e.g., downsizing and mergers) and individual orientation (e.g., motivation and needs) could force a career change. Individuals who have developed transferable skills and competences have more control over their careers and can make a voluntary career change according to their best interests (Muja & Appelbaum, 2012). In addition, employees are more likely to feel prepared for different career options when the labor market does not offer employees the prospect of a longer-lasting employment relationship, such as in the Korean labor market (Grubb, Lee, & Tergeist, 2007).

Career change is broadly defined as moving to either a new occupation or a similar job in the same or different organization, including voluntary turnover, involuntary turnover, and intra-organizational transfer (Rhodes & Doering, 1983). According to Heppner, Multon, and Johnston (1984), the types of career change can be categorized into task change (a shift from one task to another within the same job and same location), position change (a slight shift in job duties regardless of employer or location), and occupation change (a transition from one type of task or duty to a different one which may include a new work setting). In this study, career change refers to movement from one organization to a different organization both voluntarily and involuntarily.
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regardless of the job, position, or occupation.

To retain these career changers, leaders and organizations should provide enough support to appreciate and respect them as valuable talent so they can commit to and be satisfied with their new organizations and work. However, little empirical research has focused on the impact of leaders’ vision of talent on organizational culture and organizational commitment, and on job satisfaction, in particular, for career changers. More research on understanding career changers and supporting them in their new organizations needs to be conducted.

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of organizational culture and leaders’ value of talent on organizational commitment and job satisfaction of employees who have experienced a career change. The research questions guiding the study are: (a) What are the relationships among leaders’ vision of talent, organizational culture, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction? and (b) Does the organizational culture mediate the relationship among leaders’ vision of talent, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction?

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

In this section, we review the literature about leaders’ vision of talent, organizational culture, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and their relationships.

Leaders’ Vision of Talent and Organizational Culture

Leaders’ vision, including caring about and respecting organizational culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Jaskyte, 2004; Kavanagh & Ashkanasy, 2006; Ke & Wei, 2008; Ott, 1989; Schein, 1996). Leaders can create, maintain, and change organizational culture by transferring their beliefs, values, and basic assumptions to organizational members (de Poel, Stoker, & van der Zee, 2012; Schein, 1996). During this process, leaders transform organizational culture by realigning the culture with their vision of talent and a revision of the
shared assumptions, values, and norms (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

When linking leaders’ vision of talent and organizational culture, leaders’ vision of talent can be shared among employees to create cultural consensus (Jaskyte, 2004). Leaders can demonstrate their vision of talent through staff selection, socialization, removal of deviating members, and modeling appropriate behaviors, all of which affect organizational culture (Kavanagh & Ashkanasy, 2006; Ott, 1989). Leaders who emphasize employee development and participation can also create a collaborative and connected organizational culture (Kim, 2014).

The relationship between leaders’ vision of talent and organizational culture leads to the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1:** Leaders’ vision of talent is related to organizational culture.

**Leaders’ vision of talent and organizational commitment.** Leaders’ behaviors that reflect their vision of talent have been reported as positive antecedents of organizational commitment (Jaskyte, 2004; Kim, 2014; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Top, Akdere, & Tarcan, 2015). Employees are more likely to commit to organizations when their leaders’ vision of talent is based on values and moral justifications that are acceptable to them (Jaskyte, 2004). Leaders’ behaviors related to their vision of talent (such as allowing employees to use their own judgment in solving problems and treating all group members fairly) can enhance organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In particular, leaders who treat employees with consideration and respect increase employees’ level of commitment to their organizations (Hassan, Wright, & Yukl, 2014).

Transformative leaders can particularly influence employees’ organizational commitment by demonstrating charismatic behavior, reflecting a common vision and mission (e.g., the vision of talent), promoting higher levels of employees’ intrinsic value associated with goal
accomplishment, and emphasizing the link between employees’ efforts and goal achievement (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005). The more employees perceive that their leaders have a vision of talent and exhibit supportive behavior for employee development, the greater the effort employees devote to the organization (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). This assumption between leaders’ vision and organizational commitment leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Leaders’ vision of talent is related to organizational commitment.

Leaders’ Vision of Talent and Job Satisfaction

The links between leaders’ behavior demonstrating their vision of talent and job satisfaction are well established (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Avolio et al., 2004; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Callan, 1993; Hassan et al., 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2005). For example, Callen (1993) found that employees presented higher levels of job satisfaction when leaders recognized and appreciated the efforts of employees.

Leaders’ behavior reflecting their vision of talent can also increase the level of job satisfaction (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Dewettinck & van Ameijde, 2011). For instance, Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) found that employees show high levels of job satisfaction when leaders provide frequent opportunities to develop new skills, prioritize continuous learning and skill development, and correct mistakes by coaching. In addition, leaders can positively influence employees’ job satisfaction by recognizing and responding to employees' abilities, needs, and aspirations and ensuring that employees are able to voice their concerns, all of which are related to leaders’ vision and behaviors that motivate and stimulate people in their organizations (Braun et al., 2013; Walumbwa et al., 2005). This assumption between leader’s vision of talent and job satisfaction leads to the following hypothesis:
Hypothesis 3: Leaders’ vision of talent is related to job satisfaction.

Based on the relationships proposed among these constructs, we conceptualize the following research model as illustrated in Figure 1.

![Research model diagram]

**Figure 1. Research model**

**Methods**

**Research Setting and Sample**

The data for this study were obtained from the 2013 Human Capital Corporate Panel (HCCP) survey with support from the Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training (KRIVET), a government-funded research institute. The biennial HCCP survey primarily seeks to investigate organizational efforts in developing human resources and the influence of human resources on organizational performance in South Korea.

KRIVET has collected panel data since 2005. In our study, we used the latest, fifth-round data (2013) given that it included a new set of questions pertaining to employee attitudes and behaviors related to career changes. The panel data analysis for this paper focuses on the responses from the representative sample of the 5th HCCP, comprising approximately 8,041...
individuals in manufacturing industries in 2012-2013. In this study, using listwise deletion of missing cases resulted in a total of 2,934 respondents. Of these remaining respondents, we only used the data from employees who had experienced a career change, resulting in 484 individuals representing diverse manufacturing industries including automobile, electronics, computer, chemical products, and machinery.

**Measures**

All variables were assessed using multi-item measures with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

*Leader’s vision of talent* was measured by three items, based on Gubbins and colleagues’ (2006) work, to assess the top management’s attitude toward talent development in the organization. The measurement items included: “The top management in my company has a clear vision for talent development,” and “This company values talented people.” Cronbach’s alpha of the organizational perspective on talent development was .91, representing a highly reliable scale. *Job satisfaction* was measured by a four-item scale adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1974). In this study, the internal consistency reliability was 0.84. A sample item was, “I am satisfied with my job.” *Organizational commitment* was measured by four items selected from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). The reliability estimate for organizational commitment was .73. Items included: “I feel as if our company’s problems are my own,” and “If I decided to leave this company, I would lose too much in my life.”

**Participants and Procedure**

The sample of this study included employees from the 5th HCCP data who had experienced at least one career change, resulting in 484 individuals. The majority of the respondents had experienced at least one career change (87.4%; 423) and 11.2% of the
respondents reported two career changes. Among them, 25.4% (123) of the respondents were female employees who had experienced career interruptions due to work-life balance issues such as pregnancy and child care. Other reasons for career changes were seeking a better workplace (24%; 116), and a desire to further develop professional competency (21.7%; 105) as shown in the Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20 - 29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50 – 59</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>over 60s</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>College-level degree</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for career changes</td>
<td>Seeking better workplace</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work-life balance issues</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>End of contract</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New enterprise set-up</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competency development</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables are reported in Table 2 including means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and inter-correlations. Significant and moderate correlations were observed among the constructs of this study, as shown in Table 2. All measures demonstrated adequate levels of reliability (.73-.91). The result of skewness and kurtosis shows that there was no serious multicollinearity issues among the variables used in the data (see Table 2).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Age</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Education</td>
<td>.266*</td>
<td>.332**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Organizational culture</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td></td>
<td>(.853)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Vision of Talent</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.71*</td>
<td>(.909)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Organizational commitment</td>
<td>-.151</td>
<td>-.102</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.52*</td>
<td>.50*</td>
<td>(.734)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Job satisfaction</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.58*</td>
<td>.57*</td>
<td>.61*</td>
<td>(.835)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 1.44 2.85 4.32 3.91 3.19 3.18 3.39
Standard Deviation .49 .75 1.91 .543 .883 .691 .690
Skewness .251 .245 -1.35 -.738 -.312 -.184 -.497
Kurtosis -1.94 .43 .375 1.81 -.086 .181 .602

*Note. n=484. Reliability estimates are in parentheses. *p<.05. **p<.01

Measurement Model Assessment

An overall confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to estimate the convergent
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and discriminate validity of the indicators of the four constructs. CFA is most suitable for confirming whether or not construct measures load on their respective a priori-defined constructs (Browne & Cudek, 1993). The goodness-of-fit indices used in this study include: chi-square ($\chi^2$), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the non-normed fit index (NNFI or TLI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). They have been judged as appropriate to examine the strength of the statistical correlations among the measured items in a confirming manner with factor loadings being greater than .60. As a result of the overall CFA, all factor loadings were over 0.60, and the measurement model indicated a good fit to the data, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>RMR</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Measurement model</td>
<td>47.55</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.991</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.994</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fit criteria</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>&gt; .90</td>
<td>&lt; .08</td>
<td>&gt; .90</td>
<td>&gt; .90</td>
<td>&lt; .07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Structural Model Assessment

To determine whether the theoretical relationships specified at the conceptualization stage were supported by the data, structural equation modeling was employed. The adequacy of the structural model was estimated by comparing the goodness-of-fit to the hypothesized model and the additional nested model. Table 4 summarizes the two models’ fit indices. The adequacy of the structural model was determined based on consideration of three criteria: (a) goodness-of-fit to the data, (b) the effect size of the estimated parameters with theoretical relationships, and (c) the law of parsimony (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The research hypotheses in the hypothesized model, except for the direct paths between leaders’ vision of talent and
organizational commitment and between vision of talent and job satisfaction, were supported showing statistically significant path coefficients ($t > 1.96, p < .05$).

Table 4

**Summary of Model Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>RMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesized</td>
<td>47.55</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative</td>
<td>48.48</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hypotheses Testing**

Based on the final model, the results of testing the hypotheses are elaborated in this section. We predicted that leaders’ vision of talent would be related to organizational culture (hypothesis 1), to organizational commitment (hypothesis 2), and to job satisfaction (hypothesis 3).

Figure 2. Final model

Leaders’ vision of talent was found to positively influence employees’ perceptions of organizational culture by indicating a statistically significant result while the direct impacts of leaders’ vision of talent on organizational commitment and job satisfaction turned out to be non-significant. Organizational culture mediated the relationships among leaders’ vision of talent,
organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. All of the research hypotheses in the final model shown below were supported indicating statistically significant path coefficients ($t > 1.96$, $p < .05$).

In addition, we tested the magnitude of the indirect effects using bias corrected 90% confidence intervals around the effects using a bootstrapping method (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The 95% bootstrapped CIs did not contain zero, providing additional support for our hypotheses.

In terms of direct effects, organizational culture was stronger than organizational commitment for job satisfaction ($B = .73$, $p < .01$) while organizational culture showed a smaller direct effect on organizational commitment ($B = .27$, $p < .01$), as shown in Table 5. Based on the comparison between direct and indirect path coefficient estimates, we would conclude that organizational culture plays a significant mediating role in explaining the influence of leaders’ vision of talent on organizational commitment, and on job satisfaction.

Table 5

Hypothesis Testing: Direct and Indirect Effects of Path Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paths</th>
<th>Direct effect</th>
<th>Indirect effect</th>
<th>Total effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 Vision of talent → Org. culture</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.87*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 Vision of talent → Org. commitment</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 Vision of talent → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 Org. culture → Org. commitment</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.70*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5 Org. culture → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.73*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6 Job satisfaction → Org. commitment</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.58*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * $p < .05$

Discussion and Conclusions

The aim of the present study was to assess whether leaders’ vision of talent development significantly and positively anticipates employees’ organizational commitment and job satisfaction, through the mediation of organizational culture. Overall, the results of the present
study provide evidence that high levels of leaders’ vision and more positive perceptions of organizational culture may enhance employees’ satisfaction and job related functioning in the cognitive and affective domains of organizational commitment.

**Implications for Theory and Research**

The findings of this study contribute to the literature in several ways. First, they empirically support the arguments that for employees who have experienced a career change, their perceptions of their leaders’ vision of talent lead to positive job-related outcomes. Our analysis revealed that leaders’ vision of talent, resource investment in talent development, management’s support for talent development, and organizational culture positively affect employees’ job satisfaction and, in turn, affect the level of commitment to their organizations. The results of this study corroborate previous research findings that leaders’ vision of talent and organizational culture may predict organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Belias & Koustellios, 2014; Liou et al., 2014). For example, studies suggest that leaders’ perspectives on talent development including planning strategic goals and investing in and establishing related policies for employee development influence employees’ attitudinal and cognitive aspects of organizational commitment (Jaskyte, 2004; Lok & Crawford, 2004).

The present study also adds to the organizational leadership literature by focusing on the role of the leaders’ vision of talent, compared to the extant literature, mostly emphasizing strategic visioning and expanding new businesses. In this regard, more research is needed to understand how employees’ perceptions of organizational leadership of talent and human resources, in general, are formed as well as the extent to which perceptions of organizational culture influence employees’ performance.

**Implications for Practice**
From the findings of this study, HR practitioners can consider the link between leaders’ vision of talent and HR practices. Because leaders’ vision of talent serves to improve job-related functioning through organizational culture, rather than acting as a direct causal factor, HR practitioners could help create an organizational culture which reflects leaders’ vision and supports talent development. By providing diverse talent development opportunities and exposing employees to various channels of transferring the top management’s vision of talent, HR practitioners could convey leaders’ talent-oriented vision to all employees, including those who have experienced career change.

Drawing upon the key findings of this research, we argue that leaders’ vision of talent development through organizational culture plays a crucial role in predicting employees’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment, particularly for successful labor market transitions of career changers. This study informs both researchers and practitioners in HR in that it sheds light on the critical aspect of leaders’ vision of talent on organizational culture and employees’ attitude. In sum, this study maintains that leaders’ vision in strategic talent development through organizational culture will deliver performance improvement by increasing job satisfaction and, in turn, fostering employees’ commitment to their organizations.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The current findings should be interpreted cautiously, and several limitations in this study could be addressed in future research. First, the data and measures from HCCP constrain the nature of data obtained to a specific moment in time. As it was the first time since the inception of HCCP to collect responses from employees who have experienced career change or interruptions, much would be gained by future research with a time series design analyzing the shift in levels of job satisfaction and factors related to organizational commitment as an
employee’s career evolves over time.

Second, this cross-sectional study collected self-report data, which runs the risk of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), even though the CFA confirmed that common method variance was not an important issue. The nature of the study also could not provide strong support for establishing causality. Additionally, the sample was confined to a specific population who had experienced at least one career change in the Korean manufacturing industry. This may somewhat limit the generalizability of the findings to populations in different industries. The focus of this study is how leaders’ vision of talent influences organizational culture, organizational committeemen and job satisfaction. However, organizational culture could impact leaders’ vision of talent and this logical relationship between two variables could produce different results.

Despite these limitations, the current study offers a contribution to the career and HR literature by demonstrating that career changers’ perceptions of organizational culture are associated with their level of job satisfaction and, in turn, with organizational commitment. The present study also significantly enriches the extant literature by highlighting the important role of leaders’ vision of talent on organizational culture to support employees and HR practices.
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