

DO FEAR OF SUCCESS AND WORK FAMILY CONFLICT ADVERSELY IMPACT AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT: THE ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

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Abstract

As key organisational theme, affective commitment has for decades attracted substantial research endeavours encompassing myriad disciplinary angles. Based on 260 respondents from wide-ranging Israeli industries, and employing SEM, we explore the direct and adverse effect of work-family conflict (WFC) and fear of success (FoS) on affective commitment. We employ self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation as mediators aimed at attenuating the direct-adverse effects. We find that indeed, self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation mitigate significantly the adverse effects of FoS and WFC on affective commitment. We show that contrary to the hypothesised negative effect of WFC on affective commitment this association was positive but corroborated the direct and negative effect of FoS on affective commitment. Practical and theoretical implications are drawn concerning the pivotal role self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation play as potential facilitators in offsetting the negative impact of WFC and particularly FoS on affective commitment in work organisations.

Introduction

Commitment, and primarily affective commitment, has been the focus of research in wide-ranging behavioural domains. The realisation that committed employees are crucial to organisational success (Schneider, Gunnarson, & Niles-Jolly, 1994) requires no additional corroboration. However, that which essentially engenders, enhances and further develops affective commitment remains a pivotal challenge for hands-on managers and scholars alike (Shore & Wayne, 1993). *Affective commitment* refers to employees' level of identification with and involvement in the organization (Burton, Lee, & Holtom, 2002), and it is considered most beneficial in enhancing organizational effectiveness. Employees with high levels of affective commitment are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour and are less likely to resist changes (Eisenberger et al. 2001; Wright, Christensen, & Isett, 2013). Outcomes of affective commitment have also been found to be positively related to in-role job performance and extra-role behaviours (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989). An individual with high affective commitment is more likely to consider the best interests of the organisation than one with only high continuance or normative commitment (Meyer et al., 1989). Factors that impede affective commitment (Meyer et al. 2002) are largely well understood, and have been extensively studied (cf. Breitsohl & Ruhle, 2013; Jönsson & Jeppesen, 2012). We empirically investigate two aspects that have received only marginal scholarly consideration as potentially hindering affective commitment; work-family conflict and fear of success (hereafter WFC and FoS, respectively). FoS has been studied from many diverse angles in various disciplines, and is widely regarded as a disorder that often hinders 'organisations' endeavours to effectively realise employees' vocational potential (Bélanger et al. 2013). The rapidly changing nature of vocational loci, chiefly concerning the ascendance of women in workplaces worldwide, necessitates further in-depth analysis of women-specific occupational phenomena. That said, WFC and FoS do not invariably relate to women and research often treats both phenomena equally between genders (cf. Byron, 2005; Heilman et al. 2004). Our model posits that WFC and FoS influence affective commitment through the mediating effects of generalised self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. Numerous studies investigated the myriad relationships amongst self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. We offer a novel model in which we postulate that although both WFC and FoS constitute a-priori negative antecedents to affective commitment, the incorporation of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation as mediators is likely to attenuate this negative effect such that, in the end, self-efficacious and intrinsically-motivated employees would be affectively committed to their organisations. Our rationale is that WFC is a relatively enduring or 'given' phenomenon, typifying most married employees (Lobel, 1991; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Likewise, FoS is inherent in many employees' psyches, primarily women (Cavenar & Werman, 1981). Therefore, organisations nurturing and sustaining self-efficacious employees should expect them to be more intrinsically motivated; this would be potentially helpful in mitigating the expected negative impact of both WFC and FoS on affective commitment.

Theory

WFC and Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is one's belief in one's aptitude to succeed in specific circumstances (Ormrod, 2006). Self-efficacy is critical to the way employees tackle goals, tasks, and challenges (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2005). Psychologically, self-efficacy includes the dynamics of this attribute, and its absence (Yeo & Neal, 2013); interactions between self-concept and self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2014), and habits of attribution that contribute to, or detract from self-efficacy (Hsieh & Kang, 2010). Determining the beliefs people hold concerning their power to influence situations strongly inspires the power a person fundamentally has to confront challenges adeptly and the choices one is most likely to make. People are most inspired to encounter challenging tasks and gain experience when the optimum level of self-efficacy is slightly above their ability (Phillips & Gully, 1997). Highly efficacious individuals strive to accomplish tasks and to persevere longer in these efforts than those with low self-efficacy (Yeo & Neal, 2013). Employees' ability to endure in the face of discrimination is elucidated by their belief that they can accomplish broadly across circumstances, epitomised as *generalised self-efficacy (GSE)* (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). GSE differs from specific self-efficacy in that the latter applies to the ability to achieve in task-specific situations, whereas the former denotes the conviction in one's aptitude to achieve across a broader range of circumstances (Betz & Klein, 1996).

WFC falls within the wider domain of Role Conflict Theory (*cf.* O'Neil & Crapser, 2011). Commonly, WFC is defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the family and work domains are reciprocally incompatible in some respect (Amstad et al. (2011). Meaning, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985: 77). Interrole conflict occurs when the existing energy to assign to each role is compromised by the role demands of the other (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001). Interrole conflict is bidirectional (Frone, 2003), because work and family roles are mutually interfering. Consequently FWC transpires when family-role responsibilities 'impede upon' work activities (Noor, 2004: 390). In this reciprocally recurrent process, an increase of work duties would obstruct household chores and, in an inadequately managed household, an increase in household chores would amplify the burden of workplace duties (Schaubroeck, 1990). Predicated on the Social Cognitive Theory, self-efficacy may be useful in better comprehending how individuals manage WFC (Hennessy & Lent, 2008). Indeed, Cinamon (2006) found high levels of WFC to be positively associated with low self-efficacy aimed at managing the conflict. Since participation in work roles is made more difficult owing to burdens emanating from familial chores (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), we may expect employees typified by high WFC to be less self-efficacious because their coping resources naturally dwindle when they encounter severe WFC which, in turn, enfeebles self-efficacy at work. However, the contrary is also possible because WFC may enhance self-efficacy at work, owing to the learning opportunities it presents (Chen, Powell, & Cui, 2014: 300). Largely, research addressing the interrelatedness between WFC and self-efficacy views the latter as an antecedent of the former and highlights the role played by self-efficacy in managing WFC (Clayton et al. 2014). Allen et al. (2012: 22) indicate that such dispositional characteristics as self-efficacy may help shield individuals from WFC by averting conflicting work and family demands. Self-efficacy, in this vein, enhances psychological resiliency (Bandura, 1990), required to cope with challenges of opposing work and family burdens (Glaser & Hecht, 2013). Surprisingly, few previous works have investigated why and how WFC affects employees' self-efficacy at work, even though the effects of WFC on myriad job-related facets have been studied extensively (*cf.* Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996) were amongst the few who studied and found that two inter-role conflicts (WFC and FWC) negatively affect such on-the-job attitudinal and behavioural (salespersons) self-efficacy. Intuitively, one may deduce that given limited coping resources, when the level of WFC is high, employees' strength in their belief in their own ability to complete tasks and reach goals declines. Hence, we propose our first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Higher levels of WFC diminish workplace self-efficacy.

FoS and Self-efficacy

FoS constitutes an innate state of mental stress, which curbs ambition and progress, commonly found amongst women (Horner, 1972). FoS surfaces when individuals question their capabilities, and is often accompanied by a lack of self-confidence and of disappointment (Nagel, 1990). FoS resembles fear of achievement intensified by fear of failure. This stems from the inability to accomplish one's chores and is accompanied by low self-esteem and fear of social isolation or ostracism (Griffone, 1977). Individuals who fear success would be dissatisfied with attaining their personal objectives. Worse, FoS weakens one's belief in one's abilities to appropriately carry out tasks and goals owing to past failure, which often exacerbates this syndrome (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Horner (1972)

assumed that FoS stems from stereotypes and biases that inhibit individuals from pursuing careers. Irrespective of external evidence of their aptitude, individuals fearing success remain convinced that they are frauds and do not merit the success they have accomplished (De Vries, 2003).

Proof of success is dismissed as timing, luck or as a consequence of misleading others into thinking they are more competent and intelligent than they consider themselves to be, much like the dismissal of others' positive affirmations (Ferrari & Thompson, 2006).

Intuitively, higher self-efficacy results in decreased FoS (Nelson, Newman, McDaniel, & Buboltz, 2013). Nonetheless, the reverse relationship is also plausible; meaning, individuals characterised by FoS tend to be less self-efficacious. In the context of achievement motivation, the passive avoidance mode is understood as a type of FoS (Fleming & Horner, 1992). Individuals typified by FoS learn to avoid negative incentives by deterring any achievement-related activity that augments goal fulfilment (Sorrentino & Short, 1974). A person motivated by FoS may have been reprimanded for doing well at an achievement task or for displaying any instrumental activity towards goal achievement. Hence, these individuals learn to inhibit future goal-directed behaviour in order to avoid facing similar adverse repercussions (Pang, 2010). Avoiding goal attainment has been related to lowered satisfaction, decreased self-esteem and satisfaction with life (Elliot & Sheldon, 1997). Whilst self-esteem and self-efficacy are regarded as distinct constructs, the former may be regarded as the aggregation of self-efficacy perceptions (Gist, Schwoerer, & Rosen, 1989). Thus, we hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 2: Individuals typified by high FoS will display lower levels of self efficacy.

WFC and FoS

Whilst extant research exists concerning the adverse effects of WFC and how they can be mitigated, few if any prior studies have explored the effect of WFC on the FoS syndrome. This is despite the fact that WFC and FoS are mainly associated with women, and the ascending role of women in contemporary workplaces has attracted multidisciplinary scholarly interest (Davidson & Burke, 2012; Karoly & Panis, 2004). According to Berglas (1986), successful individuals are self-handicappers. Since they are uncertain as to why they are successful and how to sustain the position they have acquired through their success, they are exceptionally cautious in defending themselves from being stripped of their achievements. Though men and women afflicted by FoS have sufficient reasons to believe they are capable of producing quality performance, which guarantees successful outcomes; their apprehension scuttles goal achievement once success appears to be at hand. Women and men alike demonstrate avoidance of gender-inappropriate activities and anticipate negative consequences for individuals who violate sex-role norms (Cherry & Deaux, 1978). Women, however, are more motivated to avoid success e.g. are pre-disposed to become anxious about achieving success, since they expect adverse consequences (Alper, 1974), chiefly with respect to fear of rejection and loss of femininity (Hoffman, 1974). Horner's (1972) premise is that women are more prone to FoS, due to concerns that success in certain areas (e.g., academic-intellectual) represents deviance from the prescribed social norms and results in social disapproval. Yet, Metzler and Conroy (2004) show that negative consequences of success could affect men and women alike, and are inclusive of many professions. FoS involves anxiety about engaging in culturally-oriented inappropriate gender tasks (Stein & Baily, 1975). FoS is a steady latent disposition, acquired early in life as part of sex-role socialisation (Zuckerman & Wheeler, 1975). Oftentimes, women lack the will to adjust to the conflicting demands emanating from unremitting household chores and taxing job duties; hence, not only does depression result (Verma, 2007), but the sheer conflict is liable to engender or aggravate the FoS syndrome. This is because the resultant anxiety and symptoms of depression thereof (Watson & Clark, 1984) are liable to further exacerbate expectations of unfavourable consequences, which lies at the origin of FoS. Consequently, we propose our third hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Individuals typified by high WFC will display higher levels of FOS.

Self efficacy and Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation refers to processes that affect the arousal, strength and direction of behaviour (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Commonly, work motivation is a set of dynamic forces that originate both within and beyond individuals' being(?) to initiate work-related behaviour and to delineate its configuration, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 2008). Intrinsic motivation transpires when people act without any tangible external rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000), such that we merely enjoy an activity or see it as an opportunity to explore, learn, and fulfil our potential (Coon & Mitterer, 2010). Intrinsic motivation refers to behaviours driven by internal rewards (Barto, 2013). In other words, the motivation to engage in a given behaviour surfaces from within because it is intrinsically rewarding (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013). Deci (1980) theorised intrinsic interest as 'the need for competency and self-determination', following which Bandura and Schunk (1981) identified self-efficacy to relate positively to intrinsic

interest. Pertinently, Bandura (1984) specified that self-efficacy is comprised of such factors as coping abilities under stress or diverse internal motivational states.

Perceived self-efficacy inspires employees' motivational processes, in general (Moulton, Brown, & Lent, 1991), and constitutes an effective predictor that causally affects learning and motivation (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-efficacy beliefs have also shown convergent validity in influencing such vital indicators of motivation, as level of effort, choice of activities, and persistence (Zimmerman, 2011). In this vein, intrinsic motivation diminishes when extrinsic rewards are offered, contingent on performance, since they reduce individuals' sense of personal causation and feelings of competence (Pritchard, Campbell, & Campbell, 1977). Self-efficacious individuals work more enthusiastically and persevere longer when they face difficulties, compared to their counterparts, who question their own competences (Zimmerman, 1995). Consequently, we propose our fourth hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Self-efficacious individuals will be intrinsically motivated.

Intrinsic Motivation and Affective Commitment

Affective organizational commitment is conceptualised as an individual's attitude towards the organisation, consisting of a strong belief in the organisation's goals, readiness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, and a desire to stay with the organisation (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). *Intrinsic motivation* is defined as the propensity to engage in some activity for no obvious reward, except the activity itself (Zuckerman et al. 1980: 504). Motivation and commitment are two separate theoretical constructs that share certain similarities (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). The three bases for developing commitment are personal involvement, identification with the relevant target, and value congruence (Meyer et al., 2004). These three factors are supported by intrinsic motivation as well; thus, motivation could be one of the primary bases through which commitment develops (Galletta, Portoghese, & Battistelli, 2011). Galletta et al. (2011) found that intrinsic motivation promotes affective commitment; a relationship created through identification and internalisation processes which, in turn, are perceived as the foundations of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Others have found associations between variables comparable to intrinsic motivation (e.g. autonomous motives for accomplishing work objectives, self-determined work motivation, autonomous motivation) and affective commitment (*cf.* Bono & Judge, 2003; Lam & Gurland, 2008; Millette & Gagné, 2008). Chalofsky and Krishna (2009) developed a conceptual framework of the relationship between commitment and a deeper level of intrinsic motivation - meaningful work. This is predicated on the premise that highly productive and fulfilled individuals are intrinsically motivated by the work itself, and are professionally committed to the organisation. Likewise, Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance (1999) explain the relationship of intrinsic motivation and commitment by suggesting that the two concepts are interrelated through the motivation-competency link. Individuals develop a sense of competency by working in potentially motivating jobs. This leads to positive work conditions that lead to intrinsic motivation which, in turn, engenders affective commitment and general job satisfaction (Van Scotter, 2000). Indeed, Eby et al. (1999) found a direct positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.

Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Intrinsically-motivated individuals will be typified by high affective commitment.

WFC and Intrinsic Motivation

According to the Self-Determination Theory, for intrinsic motivation to be facilitated, employees need to be both interested and challenged (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For this to transpire, employees should be involved in and engaged with the job. Walker, Greene and Mansell (2006) found a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and engagement. In addition, intrinsic motivation was found to be associated with job involvement (Park & Rainey, 2012). *Job involvement* constitutes a source of intrinsic motivation that prompts individuals to invest time and effort in their job (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005). Increased investment in the job, engendered by involvement, leads to enhanced work role performance and positive moods. This positive mood then spills over into the family domain, enhancing performance in that domain and thereby fostering work-family facilitation (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Similarly, Grzywacz and Marks (2000) reported on what they called *decision latitude*, a source of intrinsic motivation, to be related to work-family facilitation. Yet, whilst within-domain involvements are positively related, cross-domain involvements are negatively related (Frone & Rice, 1987). Aryee et al. (2005) assume a negative influence of family involvement on work-family facilitation (Aryee et al., 2005), and WFC was found to be negatively related to job involvement (Tharmalingam & Bhatti, 2014), and hence negatively related to intrinsic motivation.

Thus, a person confronting WFC experiences more intense psychological strain (O'Driscoll et al., 2003), is less psychologically available to be involved and engaged in his/her job (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004), and is therefore less intrinsically motivated. Camgoz (2014) suggests training programs for creating a sense of intrinsic motivation for employees to cultivate positive affect, so as to savour positive experiences and provide inner resources for employees to better handle WFC. Employees could learn to enjoy and become more receptive to positive experiences, and thus become more resilient to work stressors by replacing negative thoughts with more constructive interpretations, beliefs, behaviours and values (Lin et al., 2011). Such strengths could attenuate the impact of demands from different domains on employees' well-being (Camgoz, 2014).

Hence, we posit:

Hypothesis 6: WFC will be negatively related to intrinsic motivation.

FoS and Intrinsic Motivation

Deci, Cascio and Krusell (1975) alleged that failure on a puzzle-solving chore or negative feedback results in lower intrinsic motivation, as opposed to positive reinforcement, which generates higher intrinsic motivation. However, for high FoS individuals, success has lukewarm or negative implications; hence, it should not enhance the attractiveness of the task. Additionally, as high FoS individuals do not ascribe success outcomes to themselves (Zuckerman & Allison, 1976), their sense of aptitude, and subsequently their intrinsic motivation, should not be augmented under success circumstances. Therefore, both arguments imply that success amplifies intrinsic motivation amongst low, but not amongst high, FoS individuals (Zuckerman et al. 1980). These argumentations may be further interpreted by Fleming (1978), who argued that high FoS women were typified by an emphasis on lack of focus on inner-directedness. These findings suggest that these women are inclined to take their cues from external sources rather than their own intrinsic inclinations. For these intrinsic inclinations to be effectuated, these subjects necessarily need intrinsic motivation.

Consequently, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: FoS decreases intrinsic motivation.

Self-efficacy and Affective Commitment

Commensurate with Schyns and von Collani (2002), it can be presupposed that self-efficacious individuals feel committed to the organisation that provides the job they feel competent to do (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008: 240). However, individuals who feel inept on the job are less likely to be emotionally attached to their jobs and their organisation, at large. Thus, we conjecture that self-efficacy and affective commitment are essentially interrelated. This association has been empirically corroborated (Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum, & Mathieu, 2001). Tracey et al. (2001) found that pertaining motivation moderates the relationship between pre-training self-efficacy and employees' affective reactions, including affective commitment. Bozeman, Perrewe, Hochwarter and Brymer (2001) identified the opposite relationship, where organisational commitment affects job self-efficacy. Predicated on earlier research, in which self-efficacy was found to be significantly related to individuals' motivation to master challenges (Locke & Latham, 1990) and task-related coping efforts (Bandura, 1991), Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) used a proxy for self-efficacy (demand-ability fit) and found it to be positively associated with (affective) commitment. Chen and Chung (2014: 628) indicate that self-management, a construct related to self-efficacy (Prussia, Anderson, & Manz, 1998), is positively associated with affective commitment - primarily when leaders engage in the development of employee self-management. Although Strauss, Griffin and Rafferty (2009) did not posit self-efficacy and affective commitment directly in their model, they found role-breadth self-efficacy to be positively related to individuals typified as being in a proactively motivational state, or affectively committed to their organisations. Based on the aforementioned theoretical and empirical evidence, we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 8: Self-efficacy enhances employees' organisational affective commitment.

WFC and Affective Commitment

The conflicting expectations associated with work and family demands result in unfavourable effects on individuals' well-being (*cf.* Cohen & Kirchmeyer, 2005; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) and they negatively affect various intra-organisational facets (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). One such key such facet is *affective commitment*. Previous research suggests that a potential consequence of work and family demands' spillover is a diminishing level of organisational commitment (*cf.* Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007; Lu, Kao, & Chang, 2008). Although researchers have postulated that the relationship between WFC and organisational commitment should be negative, the findings remain inconclusive. Netemeyer et al. (1996) found WFC to be negatively associated with organisational commitment. Likewise, Wiley (1987) and Lu et al. (2008) show that employees have lower organisational commitment when experiencing higher FWC. Shahnawaz and Ali (2007) also found notably lower organisational commitment amongst dual-career women characterised with high WFC. Casper et al. (2002) identified no significant association between affective commitment and FWC. Indeed, no significant effect has been recently identified (Chang, Chin, & Ye, 2014) between working mothers' perception of WFC and affective commitment. These inconsistent results imply contingencies, upon which the association between WFC and organisational commitment is dependent. Despite previous inconsistent findings, and given the ever-growing volatility of contemporary workplaces, we hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 9: WFC will negatively influence affective commitment when the association is unmediated.

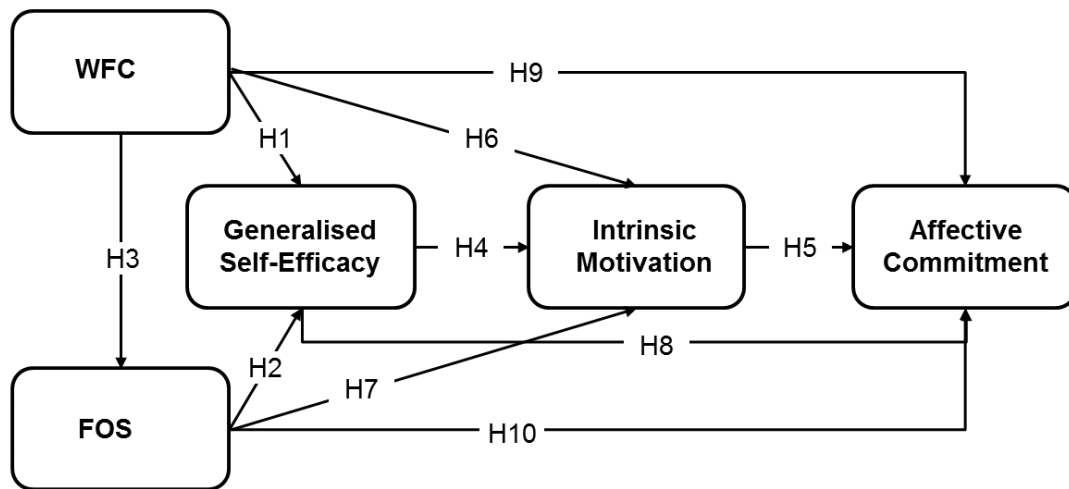
FoS and Affective Commitment

Surprisingly, the relationship between FoS and affective commitment is only indirectly and addressed by the extant OB literature. Studies, primarily in the wider domain of education, allude to teachers' emotional anxiety being negatively associated with long-term commitment to the teaching profession (Daniels et al. 2006), stating that emotional anxiety *including* FoS, augments circumstances where teachers' commitments, at large, are unsustainable (Yorimitsu, Haughton, & Taylor, 2014: 452). In this vein, FoS is known to be positively related to fear of commitment, in general (Leong & Chervinko, 1996), but no known studies have thus far investigated how FoS influences affective commitment, despite the latter's centrality in employees' satisfaction and the resultant individual and organisational output. Meyer and Allen's (1997) model of organisational commitment denotes that affective commitment is affected by a variety of factors including role and goal clarity, equity, receptiveness by management, and personal importance and dependability. Whilst psychological states are excluded from these lists Lowman (1994), indicated that FoS is amongst the reasons for 'under commitment'; however, he falls short of specifically pointing at affective commitment. Compliance, identification and internalisation phases, through which organisational commitment develops (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990), are bound to also be affected by such disorders as FoS. This is because FoS is liable to inhibit processes that facilitate success and since compliance, identification and internalisation would, in the end, lead to a higher order of affective commitment (Cohen, 2014). Therefore, innately embedded (personal) fears necessarily thwart the attainment of affective commitment. Hence, we propose our last hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10: FoS will negatively affect affective commitment when the relationship is direct and unmediated.

The suggested model

Based on the above discussion, we formulate the study's conceptual model (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Conceptual model and hypotheses

Methodology

Procedure and sample

Data were collected from employees of twelve firms in wide-ranging Israeli industries. Questionnaires were distributed by students, who were instructed to obtain formal approval from the firms' management. Following approval, employees received a personal request to participate. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured. Key criteria for inclusion in the sample was being a company employee - temps were excluded - and being married or divorced with children. These requirements are mandatory for observing work-family conflict and employees' prospective feelings of identification with the company. The final sample consisted of 261 usable responses out of the 905 distributed questionnaires (29%). Most (63%) respondents were from large firms, 21% were from medium-sized firms and 16% were from small firms. Most (65%) were from the private sector. A total of 48% of the respondents were male and 52% female. Most respondents were in the 25-54 age brackets (91%), and average age was 36 (SD 9.6). A total of 90% were married, 38%, and 10% were divorced or single with children. Most respondents had tertiary education (66%), with an average or above-average income (61%). Mean tenure in the organisation was eight years (SD 7.9).

Measurement

The survey instrument consisted of validated questionnaires pertaining to the study's theoretical constructs. Affective commitment was measured using items based on Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli's (2001) scale, aimed at assessing the individual's positive feelings of identification with his/her organization. Intrinsic motivation items were based on Grant's (2008) scale. Generalized self-efficacy items were taken from Chen, Gully and Eden (2001), and work-family conflict from Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996). Fear of Success (FOS) items were based on Ray's (1985) scale. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements based on the aforementioned scales. A seven-point Likert scale was used ('1' = strongly disagree; '7' = strongly agree) throughout. Demographic and workplace-related information was also recorded.

Results

Validity and reliability

First, all variables' items were subjected to an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with Varimax rotation. Items with low internal validity were excluded. Then, factor analysis was run using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation, for the remaining items. Next, measurement items were validated employing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The results confirm the constructs (χ^2 value (426) = 705.76, $p > .05$ ($\chi^2/df < 2$); Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .953; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .891; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .050) and their distinct character. CFA shows that scale items loaded satisfactorily on the relevant latent variables and the items only loaded on the scales they were designed to measure.

All loadings were statistically significant and above .5, providing support for the scales' reliability and content validity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Convergent validity, discriminant validity and internal consistency were examined using Cronbach's Alpha, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR). All displayed acceptable validity and reliability of the measurements. Table 1 illustrates the items' standardised loading, AVE, α 's and CR for the model components. Their internal reliabilities range from .84 to .95. The relationships between constructs are presented in Table 2. Comparing the square of the correlation estimate between any pair of these constructs with the AVE values reveal greater values for AVE in all cases, which further verifies the discriminant validity of the constructs. Means were then calculated and examined for each factor.

Pointing to self-reported data, Chan (2009) suggests that many alleged problems associated with self-reports are overstated. Nevertheless, awareness concerning self-report limitations necessitated several remedies. First, scale reordering (Sprangers & Schwartz, 1999) was employed to decrease consistency artefact effects. Second, a Common Method Bias (CMB) test was conducted to determine if a method bias was affecting the results of our measurement model. Following Podsakoff et al. (2003), Harman's one-factor test was used (Richard, Ismail, Bhulan, & Taylor, 2009) to ensure that no common method variance was present. We also factor analysed all items in this study to guarantee that no single factor emerged from this procedure (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Results show that the single factor accounted for only 27.37 of the total variance and not all items satisfactorily loaded. Indeed, the items loaded onto thematic factors. Next, the effects of CMB were assessed by using the CFA of alternative model structures. The results of the one-factor model yielded a poorer fit with the data; other two-factor, three-factor and four-factor models also failed to show a better fit with the data, whereas the hypothesized structure model exhibited a good (better) fit. Finally, an "unmeasured latent factor" method, which was recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) for studies that do not explicitly measure a common factor, was used. Comparing the standardized regression weights, before and after adding the Common Latent Factor (CLF), shows that none of the regression weights are dramatically affected by the CLF, i.e., the deltas between loadings are less than .20. These sets of procedures provide some indication that the common method variance may not be a severe problem and indicate that CMB is of low concern.

Model testing

Based on the proposed theories and the hypothesised relationships, path analysis was conducted using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), based on the maximum likelihood approach. We followed Bagozzi and Edwards' (1998) procedure and compared several alternative models. The model with the best fit was retained as the final model. The model's overall fit statistics (goodness of fit) show an acceptable level of fit (χ^2 value (3) = 3.82, $p > .05$ ($\chi^2/df < 2$); Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .997; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .987; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .032), indicating that the path model is valid. The path model, regression standardised coefficients and significance levels are illustrated in Figure 2. The model demonstrates the variables' direct and indirect effects on affective commitment. The model's variables accounted for 60 percent of the total variance of PCP ($R^2 = .60$). Parameter estimates and structural relationships are displayed in Table 3.

In the final model, FOS was negatively associated with generalized self-efficacy ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$) supporting hypothesis H2, and was negatively associated with intrinsic motivation ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$) supporting hypothesis H7. WFC was positively associated with FOS ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$) supporting hypothesis H3. However, contrary to the proposed hypothesis, WFC was positively associated with affective commitment ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypotheses H9 was rejected. Generalized self-efficacy was positively and directly associated with intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .24$, $p < .01$) supporting hypothesis H4, while intrinsic motivation was positively associated with affective commitment ($\beta = .74$, $p < .01$), corroborating hypothesis H5.

The positive relationship found between generalized self-efficacy and affective commitment was both direct ($\beta=.09$, $p<.05$) and indirect ($\beta=.18$) through intrinsic motivation, showing a total relationship of $\beta=.27$ and supporting hypothesis H8. No significant relationships were found between WFC and generalized self-efficacy, between WFC and intrinsic motivation, and between FOS and affective commitment. Hence, hypotheses H1, H6 and H10 were rejected.

Table 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Items' measurement properties

Variables and items	Std. loading*	AVE ^a	Cronbach's alphas	CR ^b
Affective Commitment		.69	.89	.93
AC1 - I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	.85			
AC2 - I enjoy discussing my organization with others.	.65			
AC3 - I really feel that problems faced by my organization are also my problems.	.92			
AC4 - I am happy that I chose to work in my organization.	.91			
AC5 - I feel personally attached to my work organization.	.79			
AC6 - I am ready to make a lot of efforts for the success of my organization.	.82			
Intrinsic Motivation		.57	.87	.84
WM1 -The job I do is important to me.	.83			
WM2 - I find my job exciting and challenging.	.78			
WM3 - My work enables me to learn new and interesting things.	.79			
WM4 - I am in this job for the money ^C .	.68			
WM5 - My job is uninteresting to me ^C .	.68			
Generalised Self-efficacy		.63	.93	.93
SE1 - I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.	.61			
SE2 - When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	.82			
SE3 - In general, I think I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	.81			
SE4 - I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.	.78			
SE5 - I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.	.86			
SE6 - I am confident that I can effectively perform many different tasks.	.88			
SE7 - Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	.77			
SE8 - Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	.77			
FOS		.40	.85	.87
FOS1 - I feel uneasy being the centre of attention in a group.	.58			
FOS2 - I often keep quiet about good luck I have had, so that others won't have to feel envious.	.60			
FOS3 - I hate having a fuss made over me.	.55			
FOS4 - When I notice that things have been going particularly well for me, I get the feeling that it just can't last.	.52			
FOS5 - I prefer to give in on most issues, rather than get into heavy debates with people.	.63			
FOS6 - I sometimes "play down" my competence in front of others, so they don't think I am bragging.	.58			
FOS7 - If someone calls attention to me when I am	.69			

doing well, I feel awkward or embarrassed.

FOS8 – When I am praised for something, I sometimes wonder if I will be able to do as well next time. .78

FOS9 – I think that to want something very much is a sure-fire way to end up disappointed. .70

WFC .83 .78 .95

WFC1 -The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life. .85

WFC2 - The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities. .95

WFC3 - Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me. .94

WFC4 - Due to work-related duties, I have to changes plans related to family activities. .90

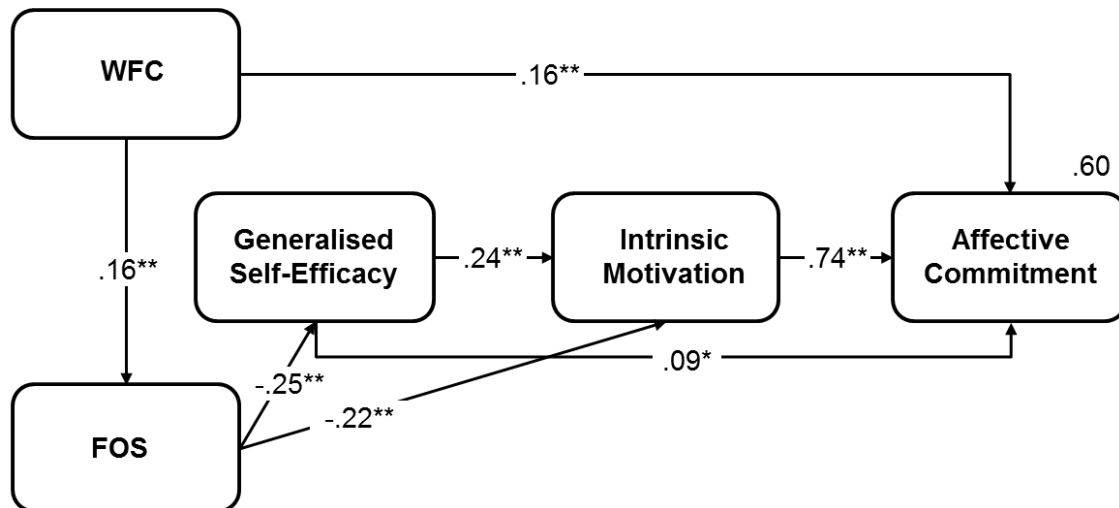
^a Average Variance Extracted, ^b Composite Reliability, ^c Reverse coded
*Standardized Coefficients, p < 0.001

Table 2. Correlational relationships between constructs (Cov)

Variable	2	3	4	5
1. Affective Commitment	.75**	.30**	.07	-.15*
2. Intrinsic Motivation	--	.30**	-.12*	-.28**
3. Generalised Self-efficacy	--	--	-.05	-.25**
4. Work-Family Conflict (WFC)	--	--	--	.16*
5. Fear of Success (FOS)	--	--	--	--

Notes: N = 261; * p< .05, ** p< .01

Figure 2. Structural Model - Path Analysis Results^a



^a Parameters are standardised parameter estimates and only significant paths are shown. R² is shown in the upper right corner. * p< .05; ** p< .01

Table 3. Parameter Estimates and Structural Relationships: Direct and Indirect

Relationships		Accepted	Standardized Effect			Regression	Weights	
			Total	Direct	Indirect	(direct) Estimate	C.R.	p
WFC	→G Self-Efficacy	N	-	.000	-.040			
			.040					
FOS	→G Self-Efficacy	Y	-	-.247	.000	-.171	-	<.001
			.247				4.12	
WFC	→FOS	Y	.160	.160	.000	.110	2.62	<.01
G Self-Efficacy	→ I Motivation	Y	.241	.241	.000	.375	4.04	<.001
I Motivation	→ A Commitment	Y	.735	.735	.000	.776	17.98	<.001
WFC	→ I Motivation	N	-	.000	-.044			
			.044					
FOS	→ I Motivation	Y	-	-.218	-.060	-.235	-	<.001
			.278				3.65	
G Self-Efficacy	→ A Commitment	Y	.270	.093	.177	.153	2.28	<.05
WFC	→A Commitment	N	.125	.161	-.036	.126	4.12	<.001
FOS	→A Commitment	N	-	.000	-.227			
			.227					

Discussion

In this study, we presupposed that despite the expected adverse effects of FoS and WFC on employees' affective commitment, these effects are mitigated by enhanced employee self-efficacy which, in turn, boosts employees' intrinsic motivation. Though this sequential-mediated relationship is seemingly straightforward, thus far no study has conjointly shown how the indispensable constructs of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation allay the inherent undesirable consequences of FoS and WFC on the key variable of affective commitment. Contemporary vocational loci herald no let-up in easing the potentially unfavourable impact of WFC on employees' routine organizational conduct. On the contrary, current volatile workplaces aggravate WFC, primarily because on top of the inherent stress emanating from incompatible job-home demands, job uncertainty is on the upswing coupled with 'lean and mean' policies (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001), both of which further exacerbates WFC (Richter, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010). These uncertain and volatile employment environments are more likely to exacerbate, than to alleviate, the innate syndrome of FoS, since the prevalence and occurrence of this disorder is largely independent of exogenous effects (Coe, Rouse, & Krumrei, 2014). Given these circumstances, we may assume that WFC is more likely to exacerbate in current erratic workplaces, whereas FoS is a relatively 'constant' disorder irrespective of rapidly-changing workplaces. Against this backdrop, we attempted to investigate how management can attenuate the potentially adverse repercussions of both elements by focussing on inspiring self-efficacy which, in turn, enhances intrinsic motivation. This positive sequential effect will necessarily augment affective commitment. With respect to WFC and affective commitment, we note a positive, rather than negative (unmediated), relationship implying that (untested) contingencies upon which this relationship is dependent may have been missing. For instance, high WFC may induce employees to accentuate their (affective) organizational commitment, due to job insecurity in volatile vocational loci because these employees strive to retain their jobs by being affectively committed (Lee & Peccei, 2007). We did not corroborate the negatively hypothesised unmediated relationship between FoS and affective commitment. Whilst intuitively one may assume that high FoS is liable to thwart internally induced affective commitment, it appears likely that such effects as gender, position or seniority would be instrumental in mediating this relationship. Indeed, we found that employees who believed in their own capacity to complete tasks and reach goals were significantly more intrinsically motivated which, in turn, enhanced their emotional bond to their organisations. These employees' sense of belongingness and identification with their organisations would not have manifested had they not been self-efficacious. Employees' mastery orientations and level of self-efficacy are positively associated with their interest and enthusiasm (Chan et al. 2008), indicating that their perceived sense of competence predicts their level of intrinsic motivation. Hence, more competent employees experience themselves to be more intrinsically motivated (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2014).

These employees may be more invigorated by intrinsic motivation and the work itself, since they perceive their work as interesting and believe in what they are endeavouring to accomplish (Thomas, 2002). Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004: 994) indicate that the major foundations for developing affective commitment are personal involvement, identification with pertinent targets, and value congruence. These factors appear to be reinforced by intrinsic motivation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001); hence they enhance the likelihood that employees will become involved in a course of action, leading to increased affective commitment (Galletta, Portoghese, & Battistelli, 2011). Despite the dearth of studies concerning causal relationships between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment, these observations show that intrinsic motivation is key to explaining how affective commitment develops. Indeed, Bono and Judge (2003) emphasised the positive effect of autonomous motives (e.g., intrinsic motivation) on the realisation of affective commitment.

Limitations and future research

While this study provides an additional dimension to our understanding of the direct and mediated effects of FoS and WFC on affective commitment, it is evidently not without limitations. First, findings are based on self-reports because we focus on individual experiences, attitudes, and psychological perceptions and states. Employing self-report measures without the integration of such 'external' – supplements as supervisors' rating, may raise doubts concerning the validity of the obtained data (Hoffman, Nathan, & Holden, 1991; Goffin & Gellatly, 2001), although recent studies somewhat allay apprehensions associated with self-reported data (Gardner, Abraham, Lally, & de Bruijn, 2012; Jones & Miller, 2012); some even found them to be better than other sources (cf. Silvia, Wigert, Reiter-Palmon, & Kaufman, 2012). Second, data for both independent and dependent variables are based on employees' self-reports at a single point in time. This may be associated with common method bias. However, the common method bias (CMB) tests we conducted show CMB to be of low concern. Nevertheless, one cannot fully determine the magnitude of CMB. Thus, the use of additional data sources (peers or supervisors) at different points in time is evidently desirable. We employed a cross-sectional design, so causal inferences cannot be made. As a result, conclusions concerning the course of attitudes and perceptions over time cannot be drawn (Schmidt & Teti, 2005). Future research addressing these topics should use a longitudinal design to better examine the validity of the results and allow for more robust causal inferences of the model (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006). Several ideas, in terms of theoretical expansions, follow. First, though our data support our research model, the directions of the relationships are not finite. Future research may shed light on possible bilateral relationships between affective commitment and intrinsic motivation; meaning, it can be postulated that affectively committed employees are more intrinsically motivated. Second, more in-depth investigation of gender differences is warranted, specifically when studying WFC and FOS, in order to account for gender effects aimed at examining whether gender is instrumental in the enhancement of intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. Third, future research should consider industry and organization-type on a similar model. Finally, we focused solely on affective commitment as a dependent variable. A future model may usefully employ a similar model, in which continuance and normative commitment would be added to affective commitment as dependent variables. Each of the additional commitment types may be explained differently by FoS and WFC, specifically when their direct effect is gauged. Since all three types are instrumentally essential, inherent FoS and notably the ever-intensifying WFC would necessarily explain the various forms of organizational commitment differently. Finally, a cross-cultural comparison of our model, along with the additional commitment types, may be useful in highlighting potential differences attributed to different national cultures.

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