EXAMINING THE ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF UN AND EU POLICE CONTINGENTS IN CONFLICT AND TERROR AREAS

By

Onur Murat KOPRULU

A Dissertation submitted to the

Graduate School-Newark

Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Graduate Program in

Global Affairs

written under the direction of

Dr. Norman Samuels: Professor and Provost Emeritus

and approved by

Dr. Leslie W. Kennedy

Dr. Gregg G. Van Ryzin

Dr. Maria (Maki) Haberfeld

Newark, New Jersey

October, 2013

ABSTRACT

Examining the Antecedents of Organizational Commitment in the context of UN and EU

Police Contingents in Conflict and Terror Areas

By

Onur Murat KOPRULU

Dissertation Director:

Dr. Norman Samuels: Professor and Provost Emeritus

This dissertation explores organizational commitment attitudes and factors affecting them among peacekeepers deployed for intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) in peacekeeping settings. Existing literature indicates that the construct of organizational commitment is considered highly significant in relation to organizational effectiveness; by extension, an employee's organizational commitment and attitude have an important impact on work outcomes such as effort, coming to work on time, absenteeism, job performance, employee health and well being, organizational citizenship behavior, and retention. To this purpose, this analysis is one of the scarce studies enhancing our understanding of organizational commitment in the context of important institutions of global governance such as the UN or EU. This study helps enhance our understanding of the structures and operation of those organizations.

This study utilized a mixed methods approach, applying both quantitative and qualitative analyses based on a theoretical model developed by examining equity theory and the extant literature. This study hypothesized that the components of equity theory would be significant in shaping organizational commitment attitudes of the employees of

IGOs, more specifically peacekeepers. The researcher provided questionnaires and conducted interviews with Turkish National Police (TNP) peacekeepers deployed in IGO peacekeeping missions, and then, integrated quantitative and qualitative analyses to the purpose of this study, respectively. The response rate was 79.9 percent with the participation of 196 TNP peacekeepers on the survey. Besides, 10 interviews were conducted with TNP peacekeepers employed in in either UN or EU peacekeeping missions located around the world.

The findings of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses indicated that the conceptual framework of equity is robust in understanding commitment attitudes of peacekeepers towards the IGOs that they work for. The quantitative analysis showed that procedural and distributive justice, perceived organizational support, and job satisfaction have a positive and significant relationship with TNP peacekeepers' sense of commitment. The qualitative analysis also supported these findings, which were found in the quantitative analysis.

This dissertation concludes that it is important to improve equity components and eliminate unfair factors in IGO settings in order to have IGOs efficiently operate and bring peace to the world.

To the people of Turkey,

Professor Norman Samuels,

My father, Mahmut and my mother, Hatice,

My wife, Kevser and my daughter, Vildan Zeynep.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the Problem

Research on commitment indicates commitment has significant effects on the efficiency of entities such as organizations, occupations, work groups, and so forth. Although the world is changing rapidly by the effects of developing global competition and information technology, which, in turn, are sometimes impacting and reshaping the structures of organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, this does not mean that the organizations are disappearing. They already exist in the everyday life of humanity; and therefore, even in our contemporary era, it is important for organizations to understand well the behaviors of their employees in order to enhance organizational efficiency.

Every employer expects their employees to be committed to their respective organizations regardless of type of organization. In accordance with these facts, extant research also suggests that organizational commitment affects those outcomes that are significant to the efficiency and success of any organization. Hence, it is important to understand how significant an employees' commitment to their organizations is, and what factors affect an employees' commitment to their respective organizations.

Sustaining the commitment of their employees has always been one of the leading interests of organizations. In this regard, it is obvious working abroad must be more challenging than working in a local or national context. For example, existing literature reports that since they do not perform effectively in the multinational environment, "between 20 to 50 percent of overseas managers in U.S. multinational corporations (MNCs) are dismissed or returned home early" (Naumann, 1993, p. 153). Naumann

(1993) found that work related attitudes such as organizational commitment have important effects on these aforementioned organizations' outcomes. It is not difficult to estimate the immense monetary costs being lost by companies including both direct costs as well as indirect costs such as lost sales, unstable corporate image and so forth as a result of poor organizational commitment.

When we consider the role of commitment in the context of intergovernmental organizations (IGOs), the issue becomes even more prominent, because the success of IGOs concerns not only the states or companies, but also all the actors in the international system (Karns & Mingst, 2004). It is evident that the failure of any international system may cause more harmful consequences when compared to the failure of MNCs or other private actors. Accordingly, the behaviors of both IGOs as well as those of their employees might produce consequences, which are global in terms of their dimensions.

In this context, peacekeeping is probably the most robust technique that international actors have invented to handle conflicts in the international system (Verrill, 2011). In the first phase of peacekeeping missions, the backbone of IGOs was the military force in the field (Oakley, Dziedzic, & Goldberg, 2002) and until the late 1980s, police peacekeepers, especially in the UN, were mostly adjunct to these missions.

However, although military forces have always been deployed for IGO peacekeeping missions, in practice, they have worked with their national army contingents in their private bases, and have operated under the command of their respective national commanders. Therefore, it can be argued that the commitment of peacekeepers in their respective nations and home organizations has always been crucial to the process. In other words, in earlier times, the success or failure of peacekeeping

missions did not actually stem directly from the respective IGO, which was predominantly the UN; it was the responsibility of the contingent forces to resolve the prevailing conflicts in the conflict area.

Following the end of the cold war, the shift in the structure of conflicts resulted in the emergence of multi-functional missions, which incorporated the operation of various units such as health, public, security, education and so forth together under the direct command of IGOs (Downie, 2002). In this context, when considering their functions as part of the power mechanisms of IGOs in conflict and terror areas, police peacekeepers involvement in IGOs has only recently come into prominence in peacekeeping missions. Accordingly, while there were just 35 such players in 1988, their numbers increased to roughly 10,000 in the early 1990s (Call & Barnett, 1999).

Although military contingents may still constitute the dominant component of peace missions in terms of man and gun power, post-conflict states mostly inherit internal problems and cross-border criminal activities. This highlights the importance of employing local police forces over ill-equipped military forces to carry out basic police work in the context of peacekeeping missions. Therefore, actors of international systems have had to compromise their reliance purely on military personnel, and must now focus on how to improve police forces rather than military units alone in any peace keeping mission situation (W. J Durch & Center, 2010).

As a result of these aforementioned developments, both the UN and EU today are more likely to be held responsible for the success or failure of peacekeeping missions as compared to the same situation in the cold war era. That is why, in order to function efficiently, the issue of commitment, and by extension the commitment of states to IGOs,

is currently more about the commitment of the staff to these IGOs than anything else. That is, these IGOs demand committed and loyal employees who have no strong political views and are not directly influenced by their respective national governments and can work directly to employ their energies on the required tasks and peacekeeping requirements.

On the other hand, it is important to take into account both the local context and the characteristics of national police contingents in the peacekeeping mission. These factors might also affect the success of responsible IGOs, more specifically peacekeeping operation. This is because the political and organizational structure of the mission's local context can directly limit the successful implementation of IGO policies, which, in turn, can have adverse effects on the success of the peacekeeping operation. Although the IGOs mandate peacekeeping missions in problematic places, it is obvious that the degree of local corruption might seriously hinder the IGO's restructuring efforts in the peacekeeping mission. Similarly, the integrity level of contributing national police contingent can also cause severe harms on the successful implementation of the IGO policies. In accordance with this, recent studies also suggest that the contours of integrity might change among police organizations, and even in cases when there is not any gain for a behavior, police might still show misconduct; however these might even be the case in organizations, which are intolerant to bribe or other corruptions case as well (Klockars, Ivkovic, & Haberfeld, 2004).

As Call and Barnett (1999) reported "The international community is looking for a few good cops" (Call & Barnett, 1999, p. 43). A photo caption in the news, which reads "As Haitian police fade from view, U.S. troops are being drawn into conflict" does not

actually criticize the US existence in a peacekeeping mission; in fact, it describes the difficulty of being a peacekeeper in conflict and terror areas (Oakley et al., 2002, p. 3). And it raises the key question of how IGOs can maintain the commitment of their employees, while locals are away. To be able to address these issues more successfully, it is therefore increasingly important to enhance our understanding of the role of organizational commitment and factors affecting this in settings involving IGOs and police peacekeepers. In brief, it is highly important for an IGO to be efficient and successful in the context of the global governance system.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The concept of commitment is one of the most important issues in organizational management; however, this concept and the factors that affect an employees' commitment are less well examined in the realm of international organizations, and need to be carefully examined, as well. Due to the limited research in the area, we do not know what factors affect the commitment of an employee in international organizations; hence, the factors that affect the commitment of an employee in IGOs, especially in the UN and EU, are open to research. What is more to the point is that an inquiry into the nature of the commitment of peacekeepers to IGOs is potentially of high significance in terms of producing improved policies and policy implications that can advance the effectiveness of IGOs.

The IGOs are of growing importance in the global system more than ever. Over the course of the last half-century, the nature of conflicts has changed significantly from one of interstate conflict to one of intrastate conflicts. This situation can be likened to the myth that holds that when a butterfly flaps its wings in one part of the world, it can cause

a hurricane in another part of the world. That is, in international relations and conflicts, there are many factors that influence and shape the structure of the international system ranging from power and arms races to economic and geopolitical conditions.

In this respect, recent developments in the field of international relations have also resulted in the emergence of a global perspective rather than a national perspective in dealing with humanity issues; accordingly, this shift has led the development of a global security concept over a traditional national security concept (Intriligator, 1994). Not only through the dimensions of security but the concept of security has also transformed itself from a military based security approach, depending on power races to protect the nation-state, to a non-military security approach, seeking cooperation for the international public good (Ors, 2011). Therefore, international organizations have since proliferated and since WWII have existed in order to balance and mediate relationships among states, who are already major decision makers in the international system. In line with these issues, we cannot underestimate the individual level effects that are elaborated in international relations theories in explaining the relations among international actors. Overall, this dissertation partly explores the relationship between these micro and macro level actors in the global governance system.

IGOs have thus emerged as important actors in the system of international governance, and this requires them to have an effective and well-designed organizational structure, one that can deal effectively with emerging and ongoing conflicts in all parts of the world. At the same time, they should be able to employ powerful mechanisms over nation states in order to be able to implement their mandates and achieve their intended purposes. Similar to their global structure, which extends beyond the nation-states, their

employee structures must consist of various citizens of nation states as well local citizens. Accordingly, this multinational structure actually means that their respective employees should have a perception of global identity, so IGOs could have control over them, and by extension these employees will be able to conduct their multinational assignments.

The UN and EU police officers work under the authority of the UN and EU in order to protect and serve people of their respective missions. The UN has been deploying peacekeepers for peace missions that include nation state security forces since 1960. The EU has recently become an important peace provider in the international arena in addition to the UN.

Over the course of the last half-century, the mission requirements of peace keepers have been transformed from those of an observer to those of active policing, depending upon the context of the respective mission. This change is also emphasized in the UN police division website as follows: *The role of United Nations Police has expanded rapidly over the last decade. Not only has the United Nations almost tripled the number of police authorized for deployment but also UN police mandates have become more multi-dimensional…"* ("United Nations Police," n.d.-a).

In accordance with these developments, the responsibilities and requirements of the UN and EU police have increased significantly. When compared to their observer role in the missions in the past, incumbent UN and EU police officers now have to contribute more, sometimes even more than their respective national counterparts to the various assignments involved in peacekeeping. Hence, IGOs clearly need more dedicated police officers on duty more so than ever if they aspire to be successful in their peace

implementing processes. As mentioned in the Code of Ethics and Ethics in Peacekeeping of UN Personnel documents:

> *Loyalty to the purposes, values and principles of the United Nations is a fundamental obligation of all United Nations personnel...Remain loyal to the values, objectives, and goals of the UN and the mission mandate. You are in the mission to serve the interests of the UN and the international community. Do not pursue any national or personal agenda. Stand by decisions that are in the UN's interests even if they are unpopular or different from your personal interests. If you are in a decision – making position, resist undue political pressure from any faction or government. The sole consideration for all your actions and decisions is the interest of the UN.* ("Code of Ethics for United Nations Personnel," n.d. & "Ethics in Peacekeeping," n.d.)

As cited in the above-mentioned framework, IGOs offering peace and security to conflict areas need committed and loyal employees. It is essential to be successful in carrying out their responsibilities and mandates in the respective missions, especially in the context of security. In this respect, in today's world, it is not only nation states that have and need army and police forces under their control, but IGOs must also have sufficient coercive power mechanisms at their disposal in the realm of their respective missions in order to ensure they can effectively implement their mandates; thus, the extent of the commitment of the members serving among IGOs is very crucial to the success of any peacekeeping mission and constitutes the main purpose of this research.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study will be to develop an understanding of organizational commitment in the context of international organizations. The researcher in this study proposes to assess the organizational commitment and attitudes of Turkish National Police (TNP) officers in two IGOs, the UN and EU Police, during their deployment in

peacekeeping missions. Additionally, the researcher will examine the determinants of organizational commitment among peacekeepers in selected UN and EU missions.

The researcher will measure the relationship between the key independent variables (perceived organizational support, procedural justice, distributive justice, job and supervision satisfaction, work-family conflict, organizational politics, and socio-demographics) and the dependent variable (organizational commitment). In this context, this study will utilize existing literature to develop and test a model of organizational commitment. For the purposes of this study, the data will be collected through a survey instrument and interviews with the Turkish National Police peacekeepers in the chosen missions. Finally, an OLS regression analysis will be conducted to analyze and draw conclusions about this issue so as to enhance our understanding of organizational commitment in the UN and EU.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on a review of the existing literature, this study proposes to answer the following questions:

1. What is the organizational commitment level among TNP peacekeepers to their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?

2. How do organizational level factors - procedural justice, distributive justice, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, and organizational politics affect commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers toward their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?

3. How do employee level factors - work family conflict, supervision satisfaction, socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences affect commitment

attitudes of TNP peacekeepers toward their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?

While both of the IGOs, either the UN or EU, were founded following the WWII, they differ from each other in several ways. The founding idea of the UN was based on the representation of sovereign equality of member states in the UN regardless of their size or population. As a result of this egalitarian perspective, each state has a vote in the UN General Assembly except for the Security Council (Karns & Mingst, 2004). Conversely, as a result of being a regional organization, the EU is constituted of countries, which are part of the Europe continent. Second, one of the main purposes of the UN is to maintain global peace and security; however, the EU's main principle has been to create a strong and united Europe to be a political and economic power in the world politics (Karns & Mingst, 2004). When considered these historical and structural differences between these two organizations, it is important to consider that the attitudes of their staff might have a different sense of commitment toward their organizations. In addition to the above questions, the following question will explore these possible differences between the peacekeepers that work for these organizations.

4. Do officers' commitment attitudes differ toward their respective organizations by type of IGO (UN vs. EU)?

1.5 Significance of the Study

There are various dimensions of this study that makes it significant in terms of its contributions to academic knowledge. This study will contribute to the international relations research literature, and by extension to peacekeeping research, and organizational management, and by extension to police management.

As in the mainstream international relations theories such as in realism and liberalism, or even in constructivism, researchers have mostly questioned how the mechanisms of states, institutions, or structures operate in the international system. However, in contrast to dense research of this second or third image of international relations, the first image, the individual, has been given less attention and less research attention by researchers. It is obvious that the individual is as important as "cooperation and conflict, global decision-making processes or regional integration" in shaping global politics (Carrapatoso & Schlipphak, 2011, pg.1).

Researchers of the schools of thought of international relations have mostly oversimplified the role of the individual in international politics, and they have mostly focused on the role of states in (neo) realism (Gilpin, 1996; K. Waltz, 1979; K. N. Waltz, 1990; Mearsheimer, 2001; Morgenthau, 1973), institutions in (neo)liberalism (Keohane & Martin, 1995; Keohane, 1989; Krasner, 1982; Oye, 1986), or other factors in various leading theories (Adler, 1997; Doyle, 1986; Gourevitch, 1978; Wendt, 1992). Accordingly, the relationship between institutions and individuals has rarely been studied and has been underestimated by those who would like to delve into the mechanisms of international relations.

In the context of peacekeeping, similar to the aforementioned studies, researchers have mostly explored this topic to learn to what extent institutions and nation-states can affect and contribute to the well being of peacekeeping missions; accordingly, most of the researchers in the past have delved into the facts of peacekeeping missions at the institutional or nation state level (Andersson, 2000; Cassidy, 2004; Coleman, 2007; Durch, 1996; Heldt, 2008; Mullenbach, 2005). As well, very few of them examined

peacekeepers, who are mostly associated with the concept of military (Bartone, et.al., 1998; DeGroot, 2001; Litz, et. al, 1997; Zimmerman & Weber, 2000).

More to the point, it is obvious that if an individual is the subject of an international politics process, there is a good possibility that this person might affect or shape international politics depending on the level of his or her political position. Therefore, police officers who are street level bureaucrats (Lipsky, 2010) since they directly interact with people and have considerable power over them are highly significant when serving in peacekeeping missions to sustain global peace.

A significant amount of research has taken place in the organizational commitment literature, in the context of various public sector organizations (Addae, et. al., 2008; Boxx & Odom, 1991; Castaing, 2006; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Giffords, 2009; Liou & Nyhan, 1994; Perryer & Jordan, 2005; Steijn & Leisink, 2006) or comparisons between the public and private sectors (Cho & Lee, 2001; Felfe, et.al., 2008; Flynn & Tannenbaum, 1993; Lyons, et. al., 2006; Markovits, et. al., 2007; Zeffane, 1994).

However, although security organizations operate in a very unique way, which makes researchers curious about them, there is limited research that has explored commitment among security sector employees because of their traditional culture and structure, which is not always conducive to being explored. Besides, while some of them have focused on commitment in the national context among military staff (Bourg & Segal, 1999; Dornstein & Matalon, 1989; Gade, Tiggle, & Schumm, 2003; Leiter, Clark, & Durup, 1994; N. J. Allen, 2003; Mathieu, 1988), very few of them have studied the commitment of officers in police organizations (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Celik, 2010; Currie & Dollery, 2006; Dick & Metcalfe, 2001; Metcalfe & Dick, 2001).

Meyer and Allen assert that future studies on organizational commitment in international organizations would be beneficial for those who would like to sustain a committed workforce in their respective organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 112). In this respect, to author's best knowledge, there is no specific study among IGO's Police peacekeepers in the context of commitment. Although the UN and EU are the foremost international organizations in the global governance system, this lack of research could be considered as a gap in the both international relations and organizational management literature. This proposed study will contribute to the literature by trying to overcome this deficiency and by exploring the determinants of commitment among police peacekeepers of the aforementioned IGOs.

This study differs from similar studies in the field of organizational commitment and global security, more specifically those related to peacekeeping, in several ways. First, previous studies mostly focused on either expatriate employees working in global private companies or the deployment phases of employees before or after working in IGOs when they are in their respective national context; therefore, this study will be one of the scarce studies enhancing our understanding of organizational commitment in the context of the important institutions of global governance such as the UN or EU. For the purpose of the research, this study will focus on current employees of these two institutions, and will thus differ from previous studies, which generally only partly examined the effects of experiences of those employees in IGOs on their respective national contexts. In other words, this study will neither take into consideration the effects of IGO experiences of employees on their respective national deployments, nor the profit seeking behaviors of global companies on their employment policies.

Moreover, this dissertation has been developed on a theoretical framework and has been theoretically guided. The researcher developed a literature review and chose variables, both dependent and independent, based on a conceptual framework, which is called equity theory.

Additionally, this study will contribute to the existing literature not only by providing data on a relatively unexplored subject, but also by comparing two major IGOs, the UN and EU, in the realm of world politics. Although they both serve toward the development of world peace, it is important to know more about their operational level approaches in this process. Hence, this study will help us to understand the differences between two IGOs in the context of organizational commitment and to suggest policy implications for the future operations of the respective organizations.

1.6 Definition of Terms

This part of the chapter will explain the terms used through this study in order to clarify concepts and to offer a better understanding to the purpose of the study.

Intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) are defined as those organizations, which have at least three member states and operate in several states. A formal intergovernmental agreement attaches the members to the organization and its' regulations (Karns & Mingst, 2004). The classification of international organizations can vary on depending on the goal of the researcher. Since this study will delve into two major IGOs, the UN and the EU, the researcher will classify them into two sub-groups in the context of extant literature: 1. The UN: Global IGO 2. The EU: Regional IGO.

Peacekeeping is one of the activities organized by the UN, the EU or other international actors to provide a platform for sustaining international peace in the world.

Peacekeeping can briefly be defined as "the deployment of international personnel to help maintain peace and security" (Fortna & Howard, 2008, p. 285). It is commonly accepted as one of the innovations of the international system that is designed to handle conflicts among states and to perform conflict management processes (Heldt & Wallensteen, 2005).

Peacekeeper: Although the peacekeeper concept includes civilian, military, and police staff serving in the peacekeeping missions, for the purpose of this study, the term will only refer to police officers serving under the authority of IGOs' peacekeeping missions, either the UN or the EU.

UN Police (previously known as Civpol) and *EU Police* refer to the peacekeepers serving under the authority of the UN or EU in the respective peacekeeping missions.

Organizational commitment: This dissertation utilizes Porter et al.'s definition, which is the most accepted definition in the literature, which states it as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974, p. 604).

CHAPTER II

A GLANCE AT THE UN AND EU, CONFLICTS, GLOBAL TERRORISM AND AL-QAEDA

2.1 Introduction

There have been significant changes with respect to international conflict management, peacekeeping and peace building over the course of the last two decades (Scholte, 2005). Today, the existing security problems have many underlying and overlapping determinants. These problems are highly complex and range from terrorism to international conflicts. Consequently, the solutions to security problems require the contribution of all stakeholders. The endeavors of isolated actors mostly remain insufficient for purposes of arriving at efficient solutions to existing conflicts and security problems. In this context, the IGOs and their personnel are important for stabilizing global conflicts and terrorism-prone regions. This chapter provides a broad understanding about the topic of global conflicts and the IGOs that aim to stabilize these zones of conflict and terror. By doing so, it will shed light on the context of the study for readers and also offer a brief understanding of the importance of studying organizational studies in IGOs.

2.2 The Actors of Global Security: IGOs and Peacekeeping

After the end of the Cold War, many conflicts and acts of terrorism emerged throughout the world. As a consequence, there are large zones where humanity suffers from a lack of food, security, and health services. The communities in these conflict areas need the support of a well-established global system of management, governed by global and regional IGOs (Tanner, 2010). Because the best way to improve human security is

empowering the pressure groups, IGOs are well-suited to the task, owing to their transnational character, their readiness to solve problems, and their ability to build consensus (Hough, 2008).

In this regard, peacekeeping has recently emerged as a conflict management instrument in global politics. Although it can be claimed that the UN invented the idea of peacekeeping following the cold war, historical precedents date back to the 19th century, even before the League of Nations (Heldt & Wallensteen, 2005). However, the need to involve IGOs in conflict management, and more specifically in the peacekeeping process, significantly increased as a result of the conflicts in many states such as Bosnia and Herzegovina and Rwanda in the early 1990s. Nevertheless, these missions were generally considered failed operations because mass killings and ethnic cleansing occurred in front of the UN peacekeepers (Fortna & Howard, 2008). These failures occurred not only as a result of inadequate UN mandates in the mission fields, but also because of uncommitted peacekeepers (as far as the principles and values of the UN were concerned).

Despite experiencing critical failures in the past, nowadays, more than ever, it seems that IGOs, especially the UN, are quite sensitive to issues that distort the world order. There are not only global actors such as the UN, but also regional actors such as the European Union (EU), the North Atlantic Treaty organization (NATO), and the African Union (AU), who are all involved in the field of crisis management and peacekeeping. In this regard, peacekeeping emerges as the best available instrument for actors in the global system for sustaining global peace and for promoting recovery in post-conflict areas. Today, peacekeeping is a sine qua non for sustaining peace in the

world. It seems appropriate to argue that peacekeeping missions represent the best practices of IGOs in the global field.

There are certain times when the UN or regional-led operations dominated in the past; however, according to Heldt and Wallensteen (2005), while the UN mandated 58 operations, non-UN actors carried out 67 operations between 1848 and 2004. Although the numbers of peacekeeping operations among IGOs show similar patterns, there is an ongoing debate as to whether the UN or regional actors are more successful in implementing and managing peacekeeping operations. It has been suggested that the regional actors must be regarded highly because of their knowledge of the local issues, their closeness to the belligerents, and their culturally and linguistically homogenous structure. On the other hand, those features might be disregarded by conflicted parties since their possible interests in the region prevent community members from seeing the IGOs as neutral and trustworthy (Heldt & Wallensteen, 2005). In this context, these debates show that the standards of the missions and quality of the peacekeepers working in the peacekeeping settings are as important as the IGOs themselves.

2.3 Global Terrorism and Conflicts: Al-Qaeda

The UN is one of the foremost organizations for sustaining peace throughout the world. In today's world, it is accepted and expected that the UN will act to handle conflicts and wars around the world. As Susan Rice, US Ambassador to the UN said, "The other alternative to the UN is that we do nothing and that these conflicts fester, spill over, and create an environment where criminals can operate and where terrorists can find a safe haven" (PBS, 2009). The emerging global dimensions of terrorism have also

increased the responsibility for the protection of communities by global actors and thus the need for IGOs.

The UN Report (2005) of the Secretary-General on the protection of civilians in armed conflicts also referred to the emergent conflicts and the acts of terrorism in Afghanistan, Burundi, Colombia, the DRC, Iraq, the occupied Palestinian territory, Nepal, Sudan, Uganda, and West Africa, among others. The report further emphasized how the communities living in those places were impacted by the severe effects of conflicts and acts of terrorism ("UN Report Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict," 2005). Although there is no specific suggestion that UN peacekeepers engage in counterterrorism activities during their deployments, the report aimed to ensure the protection of civilians living under the threat of terrorism (Tanner, 2010).

For instance, shortly after September 11, while the Counterterrorism Division was established under the UN in 2001, the US has also engaged in counterterrorism operations, sometimes sanctioned by the UN Security Council resolutions in order to conduct the Global War on Terror. However, these situations have also resulted in complications in mission areas such as Afghanistan where multiple players such as ISAF, the UN and even the EU have also deployed forces. Consequently the civilian populations have sometimes had a hard time accessing humanitarian assistance (Tanner, 2010; "UN Report," 2005). Overall, other than raising concerns about the aforementioned issues and success of peacekeeping, combating terrorism has then been one of the priorities of many peacekeeping actors in the field.

Despite the killing of its leader, Osama Bin Laden, the Al-Qaeda organization, which is based on the idea of a global salafi jihad, continues to exist as a terrorist

organization in the region. When considering its global dimensions and networks around the world, the only successful way to combat this terrorist organization would require global co-operation and response. Therefore, the US has always searched for international cooperation rather than encouraging individual state actions against terrorism.

Although the US Department of Justice incriminated Osama bin Laden and some members of Al- Qaeda for attacking the US embassies in Nairobi and Dar es-Salaam in 1998, the Global War on Terrorism was mainly initiated after the 9/11 attacks on the World Trade Center. In fact, Al Qaeda did not expect such a strong global response to its terrorist attacks, however, after 9/11 the US not only froze the funds of Al-Qaeda, but also invaded Afghanistan, endeavoring to collapse the terrorist organization (Sageman, 2004).

The US operation in Afghanistan, which was also sanctioned by the UN Security Council resolution, was not initially successful in eliminating the leadership of the Al-Qaeda. However, the operation helped the US to understand the organization and its structure and prevent possible attacks and communication among its members (Sageman, 2004). All in all, the Global War on Terror in Afghanistan, especially against Al-Qaeda, resulted in the death of Osama Bin Laden. The peacekeeping operation in Afghanistan is still being maintained as of January 2013 in order to stabilize the country and its political situation.

Until his death, there was a debate about the leadership style of Osama Bin Laden and whether his operational role was limited to Afghanistan or whether he had financial and inspirational leadership influences outside of Afghanistan (Alexander, 2002). While

Al-Qaeda's attacks halted after the death of bin Laden, the US operation in Afghanistan could not hinder Al Qaeda attacks in advance. "New terrorism has become a principal attribute of the modern era and poses a significant challenge to the affairs of the global community" (C. G. A. Martin, 2012, p. 244).

The expansion of global terrorist attacks before bin Laden's death also showed the broad dimension of his influences on acts of global terrorism in places such as Istanbul, Madrid, and London where there were bombings in 2004 and 2005, respectively. Accordingly, these attacks of global terrorism pointed out the necessity to develop a global response and understanding against the terrorist groups and networks that operate globally. Therefore, the success of peacekeeping operations also relies on the cooperation and joint operations of both global and regional IGOs in the mission fields rather than races of power among the actors.

2.4 Peacekeeping in the UN and UN Police

In first generation peacekeeping operations, the duty of the police was carried out by military personnel who worked as referees between the parties in conflict; therefore, there were only two peacekeeping operations where UN police were deployed between the early 1960s and 1989 (Broer & Emery, 2002). However, following the emergence of multidimensional peacekeeping operations, the UN police have been one of the most important components of the mission areas (Broer & Emery, 2002; Heldt & Wallensteen, 2005).

UN police are mostly assigned to peacekeeping operations at the same time as UN military personnel. Police officers apply for these positions through their governments, and the UN Police Divisions deploy them to the respective missions based on temporarily

assignments, which are approximately one year long and may be extended for additional yearly periods as well. The duties of the police are determined by the mission mandates, each of which can have either an executive or advisory function. In advisory positions, the UN police duties can range from community policing in refugee camps, to training national police officers to cope with transnational crimes. Such efforts have been performed in Bosnia, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Haiti, and Sierra Leone, among others to restructure and rebuild the domestic police by police components of the missions ("United Nations Peacekeeping," n.d.). However, UN police have experienced the authority and responsibility of active police duty and functions in some missions such as in Kosovo and East Timor. In those kinds of missions they had the power to arrest, detain, and search individuals, and the responsibility to maintain law and order.

Formed Police Units (FPU), which generally consist of a team of 140 police officers, are another component of the police forces used in some missions. They are assigned to protect the UN staff in insecure regions and control crowds. They were first used in Kosovo and East Timor, and can generally operate in high-risk environments and perform policing duties, rather than deal with military threats. They are not accepted as law enforcement officers and have limited rights under the host country's regulations; however, they can stop, detain, and search a person in agreement with the mandate of the mission and the specific directives given by the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) ("United Nations Police," n.d.).

As shown in Figure 1, the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) currently carries out 17 peace operations, 16 peacekeeping operations, and 1 supervision

mission[1], throughout the world as of February 2013. In total, there have been 67 peacekeeping operations since 1948.

Figure 2.1. UN Peacekeeping Operations in the World (as of Jan 2013)[2]
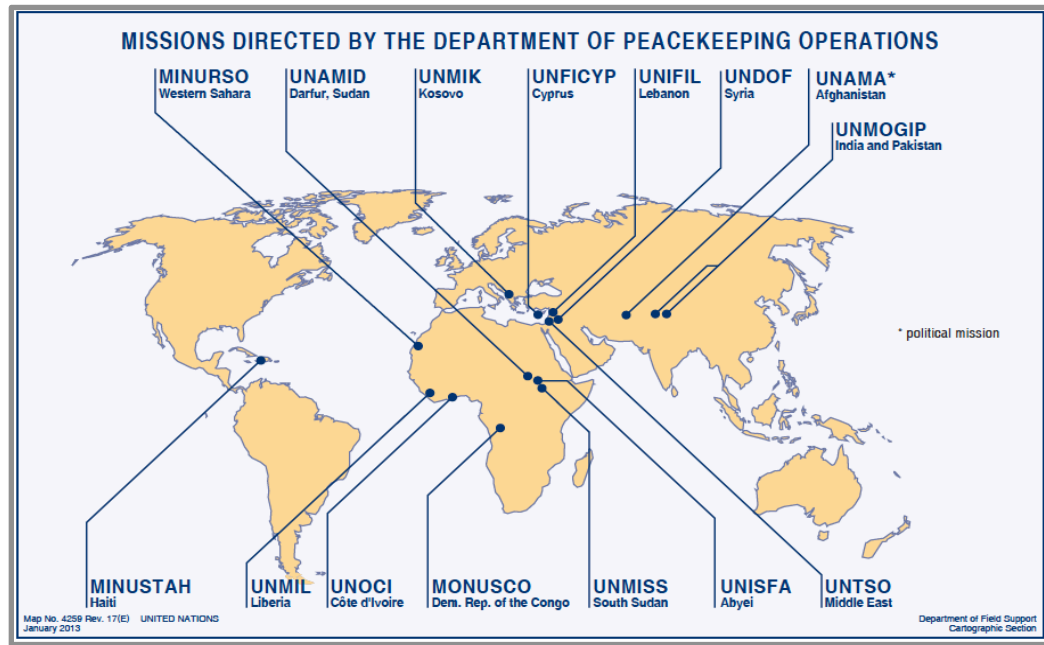
In conclusion, the United Nations has almost tripled the number of police authorized for deployment from 5,840 in 1995 to over 17,500 in 2010 ("United Nations Police," n.d.). More to the point, when military personnel were excluded, the UN police forces roughly constituted 75 percent of their international staff in UN peacekeeping missions in 2012 (UNDPKO Fact Sheet, 2013). However, the police units were not deployed to all peacekeeping missions.

---

[1] On 21 April 2012, the Security Council established the UN Supervision Mission in Syria (UNSMIS).

[2] The UN Police. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/Depts/Cartographic/english/htmain.htm on Feb 17, 2013.

2.5 Peacekeeping in the EU and EU Police

The EU is the most important regional actor that engages in conflict management, specifically peacekeeping operations. The EU has been involved in peacekeeping operations with both the UN and other peacekeeping actors such as the AU. In general, the EU's approach to peacekeeping is very similar to the model that was developed by the UN (EUFocus, 2008).

Figure 2.2. EU Peace Operations in the World (as of Jan 2013) [3]

In its early stages, when conflicts emerged in the Balkans, the EU could only intervene in the conflict through its diplomatic initiatives and under the authorization of the UN. However, as a response to the arising expectations, the EU issued a series of policies that allowed the organization to take its place as a peace regulator on the world stage. The Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP), European Security and Defense Policy (ESDP), and European Security Strategy (ESS) are the leading EU policies that

---

[3] The EU Operations in the World. Retrieved from https://www.consilium.europa.eu/eeas/security-defence/eu-operations on Feb 17, 2013. The map was re-designed to have a better visual quality.

help identify the regions in which it will intervene. Among these, the ESS conceptually identifies the key threats to global security, which are regional conflicts and state failures.

The EU deploys its peacekeepers throughout the world in accordance with the policies of the ESDP. The ESDP strategy defines the organization's security concerns, improves international cooperation and security, and develops democracy and human rights. There are 18 ongoing ESDP missions, including military and civilian missions, from countries in Africa to Afghanistan in Asia ("European Union External Action," n.d.).

The EU considered the peaceful end of the Balkans conflict a successful result of its activities and termed this strategy and its outcome "the EU's gravitational pull" (EU Focus Fact Sheet, 2008). Today, according to the European Security Strategy (2003), the EU considers itself capable of responding to multidimensional conflicts. However, except for the EULEX (Kosovo) mission, which is the largest EU mission where more than 2000 peacekeepers are operative as of January 2013 and is the so-called best practice of the EU, the EU peacekeeper generally serves as a trainer or observer in their respective peacekeeping missions ("European Union External Action," n.d.). From another perspective, the EU is not as experienced as the UN and has not been involved in high-risk conflicts in the past.

2.6 The Importance of Police Peacekeepers in the Missions

In the beginning, peacekeeping was basically carried out using a military model that of observed a cease-fire and provided a neutral party separating the warring states. Although the military is already the main backbone of peacekeeping operations, peacekeeping operations also now employ different forms of deployment including

administrators, economists, police officers, electoral observers, and humanitarian workers as a result of changing patterns of peacekeeping ("United Nations Peacekeeping," n.d.). In other words, a more comprehensive approach has developed to include military, police, and civilian staff, who cooperate and work together to establish the foundations for sustainable peace in the missions (UN Principles & Guidelines, 2008).

Peacekeeping missions can have different types of security requirements, which are defined by early warning systems and better methods for analyzing threats to the safety of civilians. For example, while peacekeepers patrol in order to protect women collecting wood in UNAMID, they also map the seasonal migration routes in order to prevent a possible conflict between nomads and farmers in UNMISS (UN Special Commitee, 2009).

The use of force by the police and troops is generally authorized according to the necessity and conditions of the mission. As Major General Floriano Peixoto, force commander of the UN Mission in Haiti, stated, "in case of disturbances, the Haitian national police would be the first to react, then United Nations police and then the military component", and added, "they did not use the troops as the primary means to confront demonstrations" ("Press Conference by UN in Haiti," 2010). Protection efforts have proven more successful, especially when all components of the mission work together. The joint protection teams –military, police, and civilian- are now very common in missions. There are ongoing studies by the UN to clarify the functions, capacities and readiness standards of the FPUs and military components as well (UN Special Commitee, 2009).

The most significant difference between the police and the army is the way they

are assigned. Excluding FPUs, it is mostly police officers that work in joint police departments from different countries and operate together as mixed teams in the same offices. Furthermore, unlike troops, the police components do not only work in, but also live in, the local community; therefore "they are the eyes and ears of peacekeeping operations" (Broer & Emery, 2002). More to the point, they have their own management structure, chiefs, and a commissioner, who is assigned by the UN to be the head of the UN police in the mission. The UN Security Council mostly carries out the deployment and authorization of uniformed forces by taking care of the conditions of the mission.

Conversely, troops are assigned to serve in a specific area or region in order to secure and maintain the peace in the host country. However, some states also prefer to use the Gendarmerie, which is basically an army, but with members trained as law enforcement operatives in the rural areas of countries like Brazil, France, Turkey, and Spain. Similar to the Gendarmerie function in states, the UN also functions by providing troops to maintain law and order. In rural areas, these troops can be more sufficient and useful than the local police for quelling armed riots. In some missions, it is very common to deploy these troops, who are sometimes NATO soldiers, to reduce riots. At present it seems that the UN prefers to develop its capacity by using the FPUs in peacekeeping missions to maintain law and order through the police force, and this is accepted as a more democratic practice, especially in urban areas. The limits of the use of force and the process of cooperation among the mission's uniformed staff are the responsibility of the mission's supervisors.

2.7 Peacekeeping Principles, Norms, and Values

There are several layers to examine when determining the successful materialization of a peacekeeping operation. These layers range from macro level strategies, such as deployment methods through micro level strategies on to the ethical behaviors of the peacekeepers in the field. Regardless of the success of the actors, it is helpful to consider a variety of factors such as legitimacy, military effectiveness, or the quality of service of mission staff, when evaluating the success of the various missions which have been implemented by the UN, EU, NATO, regional organizations, or states (Fortna & Howard, 2008).

One of the primary concerns is determining who is entitled to initiate a peace mission in a conflict area. The UN is first in line for peacekeeping missions; however, the regular debate always centers around who should do the peacekeeping. There is presently no clear explanation or answer for resolving this debate (UN Special Committee, 2009).

Second, there has always been a debate over the 'red lines' of peacekeeping operations. The UN peacekeeping has three basic instruments, which are the consent of parties, impartiality, and non-use of force except in self-defense or defense of mandate. Although the UN peacekeeping approach has significantly changed over the course of six decades, these instruments still remain in the UN mandated missions ("Honoring 60 Years of United Nations Peacekeeping," 2010). Although peacekeepers are not an enforcement tool, they may "use all necessary means" to protect civilians under a physical threat, to maintain law and order, and to deter attempts to interrupt political processes (UN Special Committee Report, 2009). This responsibility is commonly held by the uniformed troops or police officers, who generally come from member states of

the UN or EU. Therefore, as a result of peacekeeping's complex structure and nature, peacekeepers are the primary members of the mission staff who are responsible for protecting the mission and for maintaining the peace.

Finally, on the micro level, the ethical behaviors of peacekeepers are important to the success of the mission. Only the UN has offices for implementing and observing the code of conduct within the organization; therefore, it is more proficient at doing this than the other peacekeeping actors when it comes to enforcing these rules. The DPKO is the main responsible organization for enforcing UN policies for all UN staff in the peacekeeping missions. The UN staff must behave according to rules designated by Standards of Conduct ("UN Standards of Conduct," n.d.). Over the course of the last decade, there have been several improvements to the standards of conduct, which were first prepared primarily for the purposes of International Civilian Services in 1954. Additionally, the Code of Ethics, which augments the Standards of Conduct, was put into force by the establishment of an Ethics office in 2006. The Code of Ethics accords with the Standards of Conducts expected of each UN staff member, including consultants, volunteers, interns, and military and police peacekeepers, requiring them to behave in accordance with the UN principles and values (UN Ethics Office, 2009). The main principles and values of the code of ethics are loyalty, independence, impartiality, integrity, accountability, and respect for human rights (UN Ethics Office, 2012).

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to review the relevant literature with respect to organizational commitment, the theoretical framework of the proposed study, and concepts that determine organizational commitment in the context of the proposed study. The first section of this review examines the construct of organizational commitment. In addition to this, organizational commitment is examined in the context of security organizations. The following section identifies the theoretical basis of the study within the framework of equity theory. The final section reviews the concepts that will determine the level of organizational commitment in the context of the study. Each concept presently discussed in terms of its relation to organizational commitment will be supported by an examination and analysis of related empirical studies.

3.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment, basically, refers to an employee's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. The concept of commitment has been widely researched by scholars over the past few decades in a variety of domains, such as organizational behavior, industrial sociology, management, business administration, and public administration. It is commonly recognized however, that commitment is a sophisticated construct, which can readily be confused with similar constructs and it has thus been hard to draw general conclusions from the early related studies in this area. This construct of commitment is complex because it may embody several dimensions, such as attachment to one's work, one's commitment to one's career, one's work ethic, union, professional, or organizational commitment (UN Ethics Office, 2009)Ashforth &

Mael, 1989; Buchanan, 1974; Pinder, 1998, p. 262). Therefore, it is important to identify what form of commitment is being measured in any study, as well as how it will be measured. While preceding studies have commonly measured organizational commitment, later studies have tended to focus on commitment to unions, employment, professions, and careers etc. respectively as well (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

Why is organizational commitment important? As Simon (1991) aptly conveyed, all types of organizations ranging from those in the public sector to nonprofit and private organizations have the same aim, which is to spur their employees on to achieve their organizational goals (Simon, 1991, p. 28). A number of researchers have thus proposed that more committed employees in an organization make better contributions to the organization when compared to the less committed employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, 1999). Extant research indicates a positive impact of organizational commitment on work outcomes such as effort, coming to work on time, and remaining with the organization etc. (D. M. Randall, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977).

In this regard, the organizational commitment concept is one of the constructs considered to be highly significant in relation to organizational effectiveness; hence, an employee's organizational commitment and attitude is important in the realm of any organization that seeks to accomplish its goals. More to the point, not surprisingly, organizational commitment has been found to be an important variable in various studies as far as comprehending the behavior of employees in organizations (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979)).

The literature and concept of organizational commitment is very extensive, therefore, it is very difficult to come to any consensus as regards the definition of

organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Over the course of conducting the previous body of studies, researchers have developed various definitions with respect to the concept of organizational commitment (Becker, 1960; Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1968; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Porter et al., 1974; Stebbins, 1970).

Basically, organizational commitment can be defined as "the degree of loyalty a person holds for a particular employer" (Morrow, 1993; Pinder, 1998, p. 262;), or "loyalty to the organization" (Brooke Jr, 1986, p. 355). Buchanan viewed it as "a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533). Similarly, in terms of affective attachment to the organization, Kanter also described this as "the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group" (Kanter, 1968, p. 507).

In another conceptualization, Becker argued "commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (Becker, 1960, p. 32). In this regard, employee's perception of the costs involved in leaving the organization forms his/her attitude, since the advantages of the organization hinder the employee from leaving the organization (e.g. pension, seniority). While Meyer and Allen (1997) used the term "continuance" to explain the type of commitment associated with the concept of costs and benefits, some researchers have used the term "calculative" to explain the construct (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). However, these concepts cannot be distinguished easily because they interact with each other, and each might be found to include elements of the other in the process of measurement. For example, if someone can get a job because this is seen to be

a beneficial exchange in relationships (calculative OC), he/she may be willing to maintain his/her membership more readily (attitudinal OC) (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

As to the most studied and cited conceptualization, Porter, Mowday and their associates defined commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" in their studies (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226; Porter et al., 1974, p. 604;). They also developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, which has been the most commonly used instrument to measure commitment in related research studies. The scale items are related to "the subject's perceptions concerning his loyalty toward the organization, his willingness to exert a great deal of effort to achieve organizational goals, and his acceptance of the organization's values" (Porter et al., 1974, p. 605).

Organizational commitment is mainly conceptualized by related factors, which include a strong belief in the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226). In sum, commitment requires active involvement in the organization rather than any passive loyalty to it. As a result of increasing efforts of employees, this active involvement develops and contributes to the organization's effectiveness and efficiency (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226).

3.1.1 Behavioral and Attitudinal Perspectives of Commitment

According to Mowday et al., there are two trends in the construction of a definition of commitment. First, several studies have focused on those overt manifestations of commitment such as someone "bound by his actions" or "behaviors that

exceed formal and/or normative expectations", which actually aligns with a behavioral approach to commitment. According to the second approach, researchers attempt to define commitment in terms of an attitude; therefore, some scholars contend "attitudinal commitment exists when the identity of the person is linked the organization" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 225; Sheldon, 1971, p. 143) or "when the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent"(Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970, p. 176; Mowday et al., 1979, p. 225;).

In the behavioral approach, the attitudinal consequences of a behavior are believed to predictably lead to a reoccurrence of that behavior in the future. It is obvious in this regard that organizations here would take advantage of 'good' employees, and by extension of their 'good' behaviors, which then further promotes the development of their 'good' attitudes and 'good' behaviors (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Accordingly, the presence of 'good' behaviors helps to create the quality of the work environment (Seven, 2012). This perspective has been paid less consideration by researchers when compared to the attitudinal approach.

In the attitudinal approach, the behaviors as a result of commitment are supposed to influence the antecedent conditions of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Various researchers examined the attitudinal approach and developed their models from different perspectives. Meyer and Allen argue that their developed model describing the attitudinal construct of commitment includes an employees' desires, needs, and willingness to maintain membership in the organization when compared to Mowday et al.'s model, which only focuses on values and goal congruence (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974). In this respect, as most of the existing research and

literature has focused on the attitudinal aspect of commitment, this study will delve into the concepts of commitment from a strong attitudinal perspective.

3.1.2 Three Component Model of Commitment: Affective, Continuance and Normative

Meyer and Allen have developed a three components model of commitment to identify different levels of the psychological states of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). In this view, organizational commitment is "a composite measure of various types of motives for remaining with, and performing for, an organization" (Gade, 2003, p. 164). In addition to this, from another perspective, Buchanan's conceptualization also has three components, which constitute of the construct of commitment. These three components are defined as follows; identification -"adoption as one's own the goals and values of the organization", involvement – "psychological immersion or absorption in the activities of one's work role," and loyalty - "a feeling of affection for and attachment to the organization" (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533).

Meyer and Allen's conceptualization is the most developed and applied model and juxtaposes commitment into three psychological states, which are affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and the obligation to remain with the organization. These affective components include an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, continuance of their commitment and an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization, and plus their normative commitment – or sense of obligation to continue the employment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

They assert that each component of commitment has different antecedents and consequences as applied in the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1991). They also developed measures to describe the different components of commitment. The scales of each component have eight items to measure the domains of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. As they develop and expand the concept of organizational commitment, their conceptualization goes beyond the traditional attitudinal definition of commitment., which, in fact, identify commitment as psychological state.

According to Meyer and Allen; Mowday et al.'s scale measures the affective component of organizational commitment. However, some researchers also assert that only affective or attitudinal component of commitment can be measured. In this framework, Mowday et al.'s (1979) scale is the most accepted and widely used scale that is applied to measure organizational commitment in the existing literature; hence, this study will also utilize Mowday et al.'s organizational commitment questionnaire.

3.1.3 Consequences of Commitment Workplace in the

Existing research suggests that organizational commitment has a direct impact upon variables such as organizational effectiveness, absenteeism, job performance, employee health and well being, organizational citizenship behavior, retention, intent to leave in the work places (Abraham, Friedman, & Thomas, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993).

Mathieu and Zajac designated behavioral intentions and actual behaviors as the consequences of commitment. They conducted a meta-analysis and examined 48 previous empirical studies to examine the antecedents, correlates and consequences of

organizational commitment. They classified 8 out of 48 studies as consequences of commitment and found that organizational commitment correlated positively with attendance and negatively with lateness and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Randall (1990) also conducted a meta-analysis of 35 studies to summarize existing researches about the relationship between organizational commitment and work outcomes. The results of the study indicated that although the relationship with organizational commitment differed among work outcomes in terms of the strength, there was a positive relationship between organizational commitment and outcome variables such as "job performance, job effort, attendance, coming to work on time, and remaining with an organization (or its converse turnover)" (D. M. Randall, 1990, pg. 363).

After a decade, another meta-analysis was conducted by Meyer et al. to examine the relations between three components (affective, continuance and normative) of organizational commitment and its' consequences. Affective commitment was found to have a strong and favorable correlation with organization (attendance, performance) and employee (stress and work-family conflict) relevant outcomes, moreover, all of the components were found to have a negative relationships with withdrawal cognition and turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). Aside from these empirical findings, although turnover is one of the important consequences of commitment, "focusing exclusively on turnover as a consequence of commitment is shortsighted; what employees do on the job is arguably as important as whether they stay or leave" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.175).

In conclusion, as many empirical studies have demonstrated, commitment has a strong and favorable relationship to work outcomes, which makes commitment an important construct for the efficiency of organizations. These aforementioned outcomes

have collectively helped to draw the attention of researchers and organizations to the organizational commitment construct in the context of the organizational management literature.

3.1.4 Organizational Commitment in Security Organizations

As Dahm aptly argued "finding and keeping employees who are willing to endure the occupational stresses and inconveniences normally associated with a career in law enforcement is essential to the success of every law enforcement agency" (Dahm, 2006, p. 69). Therefore, organizational commitment is of vital importance not only to public organizations but also to security organizations such as the police and military, as research has found it to have a direct effect upon outcomes related to organizational effectiveness.

In order to perform and serve better, security forces need committed personnel more than public or private services due to the special characteristics and conditions of their organizations (Gade, 2003). Employees of security organizations mostly work under difficult –sometimes-deadly - conditions and stress. Furthermore, the tasks in security jobs are more sensitive and special or secret in nature when compared to the tasks in the other organizations; therefore, these jobs are quite dependent on human elements, and people always expect these employees to be successful and highly dedicated, regardless of the conditions (Metcalfe & Dick, 2001). Because of these unique characteristics and conditions, the attitudes of employees in these types of organizations have consistently drawn the attention of researchers. As Allen stated "The military is an extremely valuable resource both for increasing our understanding of the work attitudes in the military and for the field as a whole" in terms of organizational commitment (N. J. Allen, 2003, p.

150).

However, it is not always easy to carry out a study in the context of a security organization setting. Both the negative perceptions of commanders or police managers and the culture of security forces limit researchers who wish to conduct research inside these organizations; hence, there are very few studies in security organizations settings in the field of organizational commitment (Metcalfe & Dick, 2000). In a very recent study within a mid-size police department, McNabb also emphasized the unsupportive approach of managers in his study and the apathetic attitudes of police officers until their chief encouraged them to participate in the study (N. S. McNabb, 2009).

In their research, Beck and Wilson found that low levels of organizational commitment indicated problems in police organizations in Australia. They hence suggested that police managers should routinely examine the extent of the commitment of their personnel to their organizations (Beck & Wilson, 1997). Although these research findings are limited to the context of Australia, considering the unique similarity of their police culture with others, one could argue that the lack of organizational commitment in any security force in the world may lead to serious problems in those respective organizations.

Research on police and security organizations have mostly focused on demographic and managerial factors such as tenure, rank, and age in either police or military issues, however (Beck & Wilson, 1997; Metcalfe & Dick, 2001; N. S. McNabb, 2009; Stowers, 2010). In addition, findings related to demographic and managerial variables show inconsistent and fluctuating results, as studies indicate different results even when applying the same variables. Moreover, researches in security organizations

within the context of organizational commitment have been limited to non-experimental studies. Accordingly, since these studies are not longitudinal and just a snapshot of the prevailing situation, it is difficult to draw any causal inferences with respect to commitment in those organizations that have been studied.

Other researchers also examined different contexts' in relation to commitment, such as occupational commitment (English, 2008), spouse commitment in military (Gade et al., 2003), and nested collectives (Heffner & Gade, 2003). Sometimes, these studies have uncovered salient facts about those organizations. For example, in his pioneering longitudinal research, Van Maneen examined a group of recruits in an urban police organization for 30 months after recruitment, and found that while commitment levels declined over time; these were high compared to other several occupational samples in the study (Maanen, 1975).

3.2 Theoretical Framework: Equity Theory

Equity theory asserts that individuals invest something and in return receive something, which results in an exchange relation between parties (Adams, 1966). The equity theory was first introduced into the literature following the studies of J. Stacy Adams with respect to wage inequities in the early 1960s. It is certain that there has always been an interest in establishing justice, fairness or equity in the public realm for centuries. It is also a well-known fact that unfair treatment generates discomfort for others. In order to avoid inequitable behaviors that can affect others along with their possible negative consequences, it is important to ensure equity in an organization.

Moreover, the concept of distributive justice was first examined by G. C. Homans who led the researchers, by extension J. S. Adams, to investigate this aspect of

organizational behavior (Homans, 1961). It has been argued since then that the while the theory was defined using the term "equity", it is possible to describe the actual theory as an "inequity theory"(Adams, 1963).

The theory is basically concerned with the causes and consequences of inequities that occur in human exchange relationships (Adams, 1966). While employers expect employees to input their skills and time to their jobs, similarly, employees expect employers to give rewards to them in a fair way. Employees are motivated to sustain fair and equitable relationships among themselves and keep themselves away from unfair and inequitable situations and relations (Hassan, 2002). In sum, individuals expect and maximize their outcomes with minimum costs and maximum rewards (Walster, Berscheid, & Walster, 1973).

The theory states that individuals hold perceptions about their contributions to the work. That is, as a result of their contributions in the workplace, individuals hold certain beliefs and expectations with respect to the consequences or outcomes of these behaviors, as well as their inputs (Miner, 2005; Pinder, 1998). These outcomes may range from company cars, salary, and job status to fringe benefits, promotion, incentives, and so forth. Even having privileges to park the car in a privileged location or having better quality desks in the office might be regarded as the rewards that an employee benefits from (Adams, 1963).

Individuals assess their outcomes relative to their inputs and decide to what extent they are being treated fairly. These assessments depend mostly on ratio terms rather than absolute terms. Therefore, the theory assumes that when people compare themselves with others and feel an inequity, they may deliberately reduce the level of effort and

commitment in their jobs (Adams, 1963; Martin & Peterson, 1987; Miner, 2005; Pinder, 1998). Accordingly, some researchers assert that equity theory dimensions have been linked meta-analytically to a variety of outcomes, including commitment, satisfaction, citizenship, and withdrawal (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

For instance, Iverson and Roy examined 246 full time blue-collar employees in an Australian setting. They found that equity had a statistically significant effect on attitudinal commitment and suggested that "employees who perceive that they are treated fairly in the distribution of rewards are able to identify with and be involved in the organization, and thus have greater loyalty to the organization" (Iverson & Roy, 1994, p. 34) . Roberts et al. (1999) also studied outside salespeople and found that equity perceptions of those individuals significantly affected the organizational commitment attitudes of those employees. Furthermore, some scholars have posited that organizational commitment is positively correlated with both facets of internal and external equity, which refers to comparisons within an organization and to other organizations respectively, (Hassan, 2002; Dubinsky & Levy, 1989).

It is obvious that people will perceive the existence of inequity as inconvenient and dissonant. If the employer does not restore the equity perception of employees in the workplace by changing conditions, organizations might unsurprisingly expect changes in inputs such as employee's lowering job performance or, in the worst scenario, quitting the job (Pinder, 1998). However, in addition to these behavioral consequences where employees attempt to adjust the ratio of their input to the outcomes they obtain, the theory also predicts that people can "redress states of inequity cognitively" when they do

not have an opportunity to change the reality (Greenberg, 1989, p. 174). For instance, individuals might think that his/her own PhD. Degree in the social sciences is not a real value as far as job security goes and having pay that is acceptable; hence, they may feel happy if they have many windows in their office and a large clean desk instead. However, if they cannot change their beliefs to restore equity, they will probably respond with repression, anxiety, or withdrawal (Pinder, 1998).

On the other hand, the perception of what is equitable might change depending on the culture; hence, it is the responsibility of all cultures to share their resources equitably. Adams conceptualizes inequity as follows: "Inequity exists for person whenever his perceived job inputs and/or outcomes stand psychologically in an observed relation to what he perceives are the inputs and/or outcomes of others". Additionally, Walster et al. suggested a general principle of equity that relies on the perceptions of participants about other's outcomes (Walster et al., 1973). These conceptualizations suggest that rather than his having any perceptions of unfair payment, an employee's social comparisons of his personal inputs and outcomes with others is highly determinative of the extent of his/her commitment in the workplace.

In this context, in an international organization, this perception of equity mostly depends on the perceptions of employees of what others get from these exchange relationships. Adams did not consider that different backgrounds and working conditions of employees, which constitute situational and individual differences that may lead the development of different norms in the realm of allocating outcomes (Miner, 2005). In addition, considering cultural diversity, some might argue that it might be difficult to clearly validate the commitment and satisfaction of employees with similar behavioral

patterns in this type of organization. That is why this is a challenge for international organizations, either for an IGO or a MNC. For example, while in some police organizations, it is a privilege for senior officers to drive the car; in others, senior officers are not expected to drive cars. Therefore, even if they sometimes have to carry out an assignment using a police squad car, this may decrease the dedication of such officers to their assignments.

By the early 1970s, this theory was studied by 170 different scholars, who developed the theory as one of the leading theories in the field (Adams & Freedman, 1976). Walster et al. argued that theory offers robust explanations and can be employed to answer or address a broad range of social behaviors; hence the theory has been applied in major areas of human interactions such as business, exploitative, helping and intimate relationships (Walster et al., 1973). Researchers working on various topics such as child development, coalition formation, and bargaining, and social protests have conveyed the view that the theory is sufficiently robust to employ to explain broader phenomena, which also shows that it is a quite comprehensive theory (Adams & Freedman, 1976).

In the organizational commitment literature, researchers have utilized various theories such as exchange approach and investment approach depending on the context (Amernic & Aranya, 1983). Accordingly, although many studies have focused on motivation within the equity conceptual framework, researchers (Brooke Jr, 1986; Dubinsky & Levy, 1989; Iverson & Roy, 1994; Hassan, 2002; Martin & Peterson, 1987; Roberts, Coulson, & Chonko, 1999;) have argued that this equity theory can be utilized to better understand employees' commitment to their organizations.

It thus appears clear there are various potential antecedents related to organizational commitment including categories such as the organization itself, as well as the person's own relevant characteristics, their work experiences and so forth. However, it is not possible to include all of these possible variables in one study; therefore, the present study will employ the aforementioned framework to better understand organizational commitment strictly in the context of IGOs.

That is, this proposed study would examine the effects of procedural justice, distributive justice, perceived organizational support, work family conflict, job and supervisor satisfaction, and organizational politics in detail to better understand a peacekeeper's commitment to the UN and EU. Since few researchers have examined the effect of these variables on organizational commitment within the conceptual framework of equity, the researcher will develop this study by also examining the relationships between the aforementioned independent variables and organizational commitment (dependent variable) in the extant literature.

3.3 Determinants of Organizational Commitment

"The best that a social science can do is to explain about one-third of any type of economic or social behavior, leaving the other 66 percent un-explained"; furthermore, meta analyses of the main research topics such as leadership behavior, job satisfaction, absenteeism etc. suggest that 75% to 90% percent of the variance of behavior remains unexplained (Mitchell & Scott, 1987, p. 447). Sometimes it is difficult to convey behavioral explanations based on the robust scientific foundation in the field of administration (Mitchell & Scott, 1987). Accordingly, researchers in different disciplines proposes that decisions related to commitment attitudes and the consequences of these are

usually the result of many different contributing factors (Naumann, 1993). Therefore, it can be argued that there are many other factors that affect organizational commitment and its outcomes. In line with the concept of equity theory, this study will utilize the following concepts and develop a model to examine the determinants of organizational commitment in the context of IGOs.

3.3.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice (allocation resources) refers to "the fairness of outcome distributions" (Miner, 2005, p. 152). Distributive justice advocates employing equity for allocating resources. In the literature, Brooke (1986) argues, "distributive justice has direct effects on satisfaction and commitment" (Brooke Jr, 1986, p. 352). By employing this framework, Brooke links equity theory to commitment in his study (J. E. Martin & Peterson, 1987). Since the perception of equity, or fair treatment, influences organizational commitment, employees' fair sense of distributive justice should increase the level of commitment of employees to their organizations.

In organizations, it is mostly in the interest of employees to be able to answer questions such as "who is to receive how much, and how fairly are these outcomes distributed?" (Pinder, 1998, p. 286). In his Ethics treatise, Aristotle emphasized the disagreement of sides on the process of distribution of justice and aptly conceptualized that "the democrats are for freedom, oligarchs for wealth, other for nobleness of birth and the aristocratic party for virtue", and thus it might be difficult on occasion to come to any consensus on any issue. Even over- rewarding may lead an employee to perceive an inequity. However, it is obvious that employees have beliefs about the ratio of their inputs and outcomes as a result of their contributions in their workplaces; hence, justice

related constructs are important in reducing inequities in any workplace (Miner, 2005).

Colquitt et al. (2001) examined 183 studies published between 1975 and 1999 to examine the relationship between justice dimensions and several organizational outcomes. In this meta-analysis, Colquitt et al. (2001) studied 24 of the all available publications to describe the correlation between distributive justice and organizational commitment and found that distributive justice had high correlations with organizational commitment (Colquitt et al., 2001).

In accordance with these findings, Warner et al. (2005) also found that distributive justice had a positive and significant impact on the workers' sense of organizational commitment. In their study, they examined a sample of full-time workers in the national setting. The results suggested that while procedural justice better predicts organizational commitment among workers for survivors or unaffected workers, distributive justice is the stronger predictor for victims of downsizing (Clay-Warner, Hegtvedt, & Roman, 2005). This study is important because the researchers conducted the research from a nationally representative sample of 2,502 full-time workers selected by random sampling from 1997 National Employment Survey. Therefore, this gives us the opportunity of for generalizing the research finding in a national context.

In the context of equity theory, Hassan also examined a heterogeneous group of 181 middle and lower managers from the banking and finance, production and manufacturing, and service sectors in the setting of Malaysia. He found that distributive justice, if perceived as fair, made significant contributions to employees' organizational commitment and intent to leave (Hassan, 2002). These findings emphasize the fact that perceived distributive justice has an important effect on the attitude of organizational

commitment among different work groups in the international context outside the US.

Research focusing on the effects of justice dimensions on police organizations is considerably sparse. One of the rare studies, conducted among law enforcement officers at a large metropolitan police department and a large federal law enforcement agency by Frost (2006) found organizational justice factors influenced organizational commitment within police organizations. In contrast to the findings of Warner et al. (2005), the results also suggested that the distributive justice factor is a stronger predictor in explaining organizational commitment attitudes of officers on duty than either procedural justice and or the demographic characteristics of officers (Frost, 2006).

3.3.2 Procedural Justice

In addition to distributive justice, the researchers have recently began to study procedural justice, "the fairness of policies and procedures used to make decisions" within the framework of equity theory (Miner, 2005, p. 143). For example, Lowe and Vodanovich (1995) examined the effects of distributive and procedural justice on the construct of satisfaction and organizational commitment, and they found that although distributive justice is a stronger predictor than procedural justice, both of them explained 28 % of the variance in the normative organizational commitment (Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995). However, Sweney and McFarlin found that procedural justice was more closely related to organizational – level outcomes such as organizational commitment rather than distributive justice (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

The manner in which the rewards and outcomes are distributed to employees are significant and as important as original decisions; hence, the justice and fairness of procedures in the workplace has become a topic of considerable interest to researchers

(Pinder, 1998). Sometimes, employee's perceptions about the fairness of decision making process might mitigate perceptions about the unfair consequences of those decisions (Minton, Lewicki, & Sheppard, 1994). For instance, if an employee believes that the procedures are fair in the decision-making process, any unsatisfied distribution of outcomes such as a missed promotion will seem to the employee as appropriate. In short, when procedural justice is high, it can compensate for the adverse effects of negative outcomes experienced by employees (Pinder, 1998).

Downsizing is a process of planned dropping of positions or jobs. It is important for an organization to convey reasonable explanations to its employees about the reasons for downsizing, either for the 'survivors' or for the victims and to try and support the victims in their future life. Brockner et al. examined three different groups in a field study to search for the interactive effects of procedural justice – in relation to outcome negativity. They found that perceived fairness in procedures kept employees committed to their organizations and assuaged the bitterness of any negative outcomes (Brockner et al., 1994).

This is an important issue that IGOs have to consider when the number of high-level positions has been quite limited in IGO missions, especially during the last phases of the missions when downsizing was commonly conducted. This downsizing issue, in fact, clearly creates a problem among officers. Sometimes, the only solution for an employee to continue within the mission might be to obtain a better position within the mission. Therefore, for the victims who are possible officers of a future mission, and those who remain employed, IGOs may have to develop projects to sustain their commitments, even after they return their home countries. However, there is no specific

program employed by IGOs that can readily explain the reasons why an officer may not obtain a position or assistance when they return their home countries. In this context, IGOs do not concern themselves about officers who are the victims of downsizing.

However, fair employee treatment is important in law enforcement organizations because those commissioned are expected to maintain a high level of commitment to their organizations and veer away from anger, bitterness, and moral outrage. However, research examining the impacts of justice dimensions on officers of security organizations is sparse. Lambert et al. studied the effects of distributive and procedural justice on correctional staff and found that procedural justice had a significant positive effect on organizational commitment among correctional staff (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2007) and procedural justice was found to have a larger effect than distributive justice.

Existing literature however, yields inconsistent findings in terms of the relationships that exist between procedural and distributive justice with organizational commitment. While some studies suggest a stronger relationship for procedural justice than for distributive justice, especially in institutions, others found opposing results (Colquitt et al., 2001; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Accordingly, findings also suggest inconsistent results in terms of the effects of procedural and distributive justice perceptions in law enforcement organizations.

For instance, Frost examined the effects of procedural and distributive justice among law enforcement officers at two large law enforcement organizations and found that while perceptions of procedural justice increased the commitment attitudes of young officers to a greater degree, perceptions of distributive justice affected the commitment

attitudes of older officers more significantly (Frost, 2006). All of the aforementioned findings suggest that although they are influenced by other factors, justice dimensions have significant effects on the commitment attitudes of officers; hence, it important to examine these factors in an international context and to specifically examine the effects of justice perceptions on the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers in the context of equity theory.

3.3.3 Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS), which can be defined as an individual's perception of an organization's commitment to them as individuals is assumed to increase the employee's affective attachment to the organization. Some researchers have examined the effect of POS within the concept of equity theory as regards organizational citizenship (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998). Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) found that fairness was related to POS, and by extension POS was related to commitment, which suggested that POS leads to affective commitment. In doing so, they employed POS in the realm of equity theory framework (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001).

In this context, POS, which represents the employees' perception of the organization's commitment to them is of vital importance to employees since they concerned about the degree to which organizations value their inputs and care for their well-being. The degree of POS, if positive, is expected to increase an employee's affective attachment to the organization, and by extension his or her work effort to fulfill the organization's goals (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Accordingly, Eisenberger et al. (1986) suggested that POS is a determinant of organizational commitment and developed a questionnaire to measure POS. Studies using

this questionnaire in the literature have been found to have a reliability coefficient of .97, and the survey consists of 36 statements that represent both the opinions of employees and the expectancies of employees from the organization.

Existing research has consistently found positive relationship between organizational commitment and POS as well. Rhoades et al. (2001) for example examined the interrelationships among work experiences, POS and affective commitment in a diverse sample of 367 employees from various organizations and suggested that favorable work conditions (rewards, justice etc.) operate via POS to increase affective commitment. In another study, the aforementioned researchers conducted a meta-analysis to review existing research and summarized more than 70 POS studies in the literature. They found that POS was correlated to the outcomes favorable to the organization including affective commitment, performance, and reduced withdrawal behavior (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Eisenberger and his colleagues (1990) also conducted one of the preceding studies with respect to POS in the context of police organizations. They examined the relationship between POS, and job responsibilities and organizational commitment. In the first study, the sample consisted of six occupations such as brokerage clerks, public high school teachers, and staff of a police department etc. Their results indicated that there was a highly consistent positive association between POS and employee attendance and job performance. In study 2, the sample involved manufacturing hourly-paid employees and managers working in a large steel plant. They found that POS was positively correlated with innovative supports of employees and affective attachment to the organization (Eisenberg, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

In the settings of police organizations, researchers have found POS to be positively associated with organizational commitment as well. Researchers have conducted various studies in different organizational and national settings such as police departments in Australia and UK. Regardless of other factors (age, rank etc.) they have found that perceived organizational support has a powerful effect on police officers' attitude of organizational commitment (Currie & Dollery, 2006; Dick & Metcalfe, 2001; Metcalfe & Dick, 2000; 2001) .

Beck and Wilson (1995) conducted a three-year longitudinal study to examine organizational commitment and factors affecting it in the settings of two large national police organizations, Australia and New Zealand. Their results indicated that "POS was the most important factor which influenced organizational commitment in both countries" (Beck & Wilson, 1995, p. 38). In a following study, Beck conducted an open-ended survey in a sample of 590 police officers in the institutions of Australian context. Beck's research findings supported the recommendations of the previous research with respect to organizational support and demonstrated that the expectancy of more organizational support was the foremost response selected by police officers (Beck, 1996).

Stowers (2010) examined the relationship between POS and organizational commitment in the context of the army. Stower applied Eisenberger's questionnaire to a high number of respondents, totaling 1500 US Army reserve soldiers. The research findings indicated that POS was positively related to the affective commitment dimension of organizational commitment as in the context of police departments (Stowers, 2010). These various aforementioned research studies in different settings demonstrate the importance of POS in the development of the commitment attitudes of employees;

therefore this proposed study will consider POS to be a determinant of commitment attitudes of peacekeepers in the context of IGOs.

3.3.4 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent to which people either like or dislike their jobs or job experiences (Locke, 1976). For purposes of non-experimental research, job satisfaction is the closest counterpart of positive feelings (Mueller & Lawler, 1999). Porter et al. (1974) suggest that "although we would expect commitment and satisfaction to be related, each construct appears to contribute unique information about the individual's relationship to the organization" (Porter et al., 1974, p. 608). Measuring job satisfaction is important for organizations since it provides the organization with feedback on how to reduce their employees' negative views.

Although some researchers have argued that organizational commitment leads to job satisfaction (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992; Bateman & Strasser, 1984), generally, researchers suggest that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment as applied to the conceptual models used in their studies (Mowday et al. 1982; Brook 1986). However, examining such a relationship is beyond the scope of this dissertation since this would require implementing a longitudinal data collection process in order to develop more generalizable implications, consequently, this proposed study will assume job satisfaction affects organizational commitment.

William and Hazer (1986) reviewed four causal models of previous studies to better understand the interrelationships of personal/organizational characteristics, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They found support for a causal link from satisfaction to commitment, and furthermore, they proposed that personal and

organizational characteristics including equity had an impact on only satisfaction directly, and affect commitment only indirectly by virtue of their impact on satisfaction and its subsequent impact on commitment (Williams & Hazer, 1986). By doing so, they added job satisfaction to the dimensions of conceptual framework of equity.

Meyer and his colleagues (2002) conducted a meta-analysis and assessed (155) independent samples consisting of 50,146 employees between 1985 and 2000. The research proposed to reveal the relations between three component of organizational commitment and variables defined as antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment. They classified 69 out of 155 studies as related to job satisfaction, and found that overall job satisfaction, using variables such as job involvement, occupational commitment, has the highest positive correlation with organizational commitment, particularly affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Therefore, existing literature suggests that although inconsistent findings exist, typically, job satisfaction is important in the context of understanding and managing an employee's behavior.

In his longitudinal comprehensive study, Baksh (2010) identified the antecedents and dimensions of the organizational commitment of managerial employees using data collected from four different organizations at two different time periods, three months apart. The results indicated that job satisfaction and organizational trust are the two independent variables predicting organizational commitment, and furthermore, pay equity, developmental opportunities and socialization tactics are both moderators and mediators of these factors (Baksh, 2010). Since the study was conducted in an Australian context, the results also indicate that job satisfaction is a significant element for all

employees, regardless of their different settings.

As in other organizational research areas, job satisfaction studies are also sparse in police and military organizations. In one of those rare studies, Celik (2010) explored the reintegration and organizational commitment attitudes of returning peacekeepers to their national organizations, plus their job satisfaction attitudes toward their assignments in the peacekeeping missions. The research sample consisted of 872 Turkish police peacekeepers that returned home from peacekeeping duties. Interestingly, the research findings indicated that job satisfaction was positively associated with both negative reintegration attitudes and organizational commitment (Celik, 2010).

Although Celik's (2010) study enhances our understanding in the context of the Turkish National Police (TNP) and peacekeeping, it is quite different from this study in terms of its sample and concept. First, although similar to Celik's study, this study's sampling consists of officers from the TNP; they are active peacekeeper officers in UN or EU missions when compared to Celik's study, which consisted of officers returning from peacekeeping missions. More importantly, unlike Celik's framework (which examined how the experiences officers had in their respective missions and in the national organization after they returned to home country affected their commitment to TNP), this research will examine how officers' experiences in the IGO that they work for affect their commitment to that IGO.

In the same country setting, Seven (2012) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction, one of the facets of job satisfaction. Seven conducted his survey study with a large sample of 644 officers from the national police officers of Turkey and found a strong positive relationship between

organizational commitment and communication satisfaction (Seven, 2012). Overall, findings in the literature demonstrated that either in a national or in international context, satisfaction leads to positive feeling of a person, and by extension, this develops his/her attitudes of commitment to the respective organization, which he/she then has an attachment to or involvement in.

3.3.5 Organizational Politics

Organizational politics can be defined as "behavior not formally sanctioned by the organization, which produces conflict and disharmony in the work environment by pitting individuals and/or groups against one another, or against the organization" (Ferris et al., 1996, p. 234). This conflict can arise as a result of a process of maximizing either short-term or long-term self-interests of individuals, groups, or organizations at the expense of others (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). Ferris et al. (1996) argued that the perception of employees as regards procedural justice or the perceived fairness of the procedures is related to perceived organizational politics (POP) (Ferris et al., 1996).

Lack of any systematic and objective basis with respect to organizational decisions might lead employees to have an idea that they work in a political work environment. They feel that decisions are made based on subjective measures and standards, which in turn, may lead them to experience stress and negative feelings with respect to the organization for which they work. Subsequently, the existing literature suggests that one of the perceived organizational politics' outcomes is that employees show a lower sense of commitment to their organizations.

For instance, one of the preceding studies conducted by Randall et al. (1999) on a field study including 128 participants working in private and public sectors indicated that

organizational politics and organizational commitment, among several other outcome variables, were strongly related (M. L. Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999). Individuals thus perceive organizations, which are political as risky; hence, they consider these types of organization as places where they will not obtain rewards equal to their investments or work efforts. Accordingly, researchers have suggested that employees who have high levels of perceived organizational politics will show lower-levels of commitment to the organization.

Ferris et al. (1989) proposed a model including four POPs outcomes, which are job satisfaction, job anxiety/stress, organizational withdrawal, and job involvement. In their examination of the recent studies in that decade, they found seven additional outcome variables and added these updated model (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002). Among these seven variables, organizational commitment was found to be one of the most studied consequences of POP in the literature.

Further, Miller and his colleagues (2008) examined empirical studies in the literature related to the outcomes associated with POP and conducted a meta-analysis on 79 independent samples from 59 researches consisting of 25,059 participants. Research findings indicated that there was a high negative relationship between POP and organizational commitment in 25 independent samples, which included 7,237 participants (Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008).

Typically, "politics are inherent in the very contextual fabric of organizations" (Ferris et al., 1996, p. 233). In this context, since having a very complex structure and one founded on politics, it might be expected that there exists a high levels of politics in the

operation and structure of IGOs. Therefore, this study will add POP to the model to examine POP's effects on the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers.

3.3.6 Work-Family Conflict

It is well known that human beings are usually committed to their families, which might hinder her/his commitment to other institutions. Work family conflicts can be defined as "a form of inter role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the work (family) role"(Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

According to Mowday and Colwell (2003), "Inequitable treatment causes tension or distress, and people are motivated to do something about it" (Mowday & Colwell, 2003, p. 68), in this context, "equity theory includes a stress mechanism, though this mechanism is rarely measured in tests of the theory and may be accompanied by other mediating variables" (Judge & Colquitt, 2004, p. 396). In their study, Judge and Colquitt (2004) found that the dimensions of equity theory are related to work family conflicts and they subsequently explain job satisfaction to some degree.

Rational view theory asserts that "conflict is related linearly to the total amount of time spent in paid and family work" (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991, p. 561). While family adjustments may not be an issue in domestic settings, they could be harmful to employees involved in international assignment (Naumann, 1993). After examining the literature on work family roles conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested that time-based "work family conflict exists when time devoted to the requirements of one role makes it difficult to fulfill requirements of another" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p.

76).

As work demands might cause family conflicts, family demands can also prevent employees from carrying out their work responsibilities efficiently. In this regard, UN and EU missions are non-family missions, and the conditions within these organizations may easily lead to family-work conflicts, thereby hindering an officers' commitment to their respective organizations; therefore, the present researcher will also include work-family conflict issues in the proposed model that will be used to examine the effects of family-work conflicts on officers' attitudes of organizational commitment.

Russo and Buonocore (2012) examined the relationship between work-family enrichment and professional related outcomes in order to examine how to improve healthcare systems in the context of nurses. They suggested that managers should focus on improving work-family enrichment because findings indicated that these were associated with decreased turnover intentions by virtue of the employee's higher levels of professional commitment (Russo & Buonocore, 2012).

In accordance with these findings, military research has also emphasized the importance of family support programs to increase the commitment attitudes of soldiers (Bourg & Segal, 1999; Gade et al., 2003; Stowers, 2010). Segal suggests that "In general, the military services adapt to family needs, the more committed will be both service members and their families to the institution" (Segal, 1986, p. 34). Research in military contexts also indicates that spouses' commitment attitudes in military is as important as that of the service members' attitude of organizational commitment, because of its influence on determining the behaviors of the service members (Gade, 2003).

Bourg and Segal (1999) examined the effects of army-family conflicts on a

soldier's organizational commitment. Their analysis was obtained from a subsample of the 1989 Army Soldier and Family surveys and included a probability sample of 11,035 soldiers and 3,277 Army spouses stationed in 34 different stateside and overseas locations. The results indicated that "wife's commitment had a significant effect on soldier's commitment (.26) and was three times greater than the total effect of Army-family conflict (-.09)" (Bourg & Segal, 1999, p. 643). However, the working status of wife had no significant influence on Army-family conflicts, or a wife's or soldier's commitment (Bourg & Segal, 1999).

On the other hand, in terms of the military, Bourg and Segal (1999) identified a combination of two societal trends as the reason for increasing conflict between too greedy institutions, military and family. First, they identified the increasing participation of women in the labor force. Second, they identified the changing cultural role of men, which requires them to devote more time to his home along with more resources than before. These changing patterns can be claimed to be true for all cultures as a result of globalization. Nowadays, women are participating more and more in the labor force, and developing global culture is asking men to be involved with home issues more than ever. While women are not the only responsible person in charge of home issues any more, men are no longer the only responsible parties for the economic situation of the home. Under these developments, the absence of the peacekeepers at home might be expected to result in family conflicts, and this in turn, might influence the peacekeepers' commitment attitudes to their respective organizations in the context of overseas assignments.

3.3.7 Supervision Satisfaction

Supervision satisfaction is presented as one of the facets of job satisfaction. Satisfaction with supervisor is expected to influence the attitudes of employees related to organizational outcomes. Equity theory conveys the view that employees and supervisors are most satisfied when the perceived ratio of their contributions and rewards are equal to their co-workers (Deluga, 1994). The supervisor represents the managements in organizations; thereby, they are the first mechanisms of equal distribution among employees. Accordingly, "…interactional justice is determined by the interpersonal behavior of management's representatives….", in other words, supervisors behave as the source of justice in organizations (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, p. 281).

When a supervisor behaves unfairly to his/her employee, his/her behaviors may lead to dissatisfaction of the employee toward him/her. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) suggest that an employee is expected to have negative feelings about supervisor and to be less committed to his/her supervisor rather than having less commitment to the organization if he/she perceives any unfair treatment by his/her supervisor. However, these perceptions develop when an employee considers that these unfair treatments are not as a result of any formal procedure. They consider supervisors who execute these types of procedures as a source of unfair treatment in the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Therefore, when an employee experiences interactional injustice from a supervisor, his/her organizational commitment is expected to be lower, rather than higher.

In this context, building supervisory trust among employees is significant for either supervisor or the organizations. Deluga (1994) employed social exchange and equity theory to explore the relationship between supervisor trust building activity,

leader-member exchange (LMX) quality, and subordinate organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), which is considered to be a related construct to organizational commitment. Research findings indicated that "perceived fairness emerged as the supervisor trust building behavior most closely associated with OCB" (Deluga, 1994, p. 315).

DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) studied two different data sets to explore the association among organizational justice, role states, pay satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, organizational commitment and withdrawal cognitions. Two of the study results indicated that procedural justice was a direct predictor of supervisor satisfaction, and role conflict was a significant predictor of organizational commitment indirectly through supervisor satisfaction, and furthermore, supervisor satisfaction had a direct effect on withdrawal cognitions, which is considered to be one of the consequences of organizational commitment (DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004).

UN and EU police missions are assignments where multinational police contingents work with each other. Since subordinates and supervisors have different cultures and backgrounds, they may perceive the goals and ideas of IGOs differently from each other. These different conceptualizations might lead employees to infer unfair treatments by their imminent supervisor depending on the procedures of the organization and this could affect their commitment attitudes toward the organization. In consideration of these factors, this proposed study will include a supervisor satisfaction variable in the study's model.

3.4 Conclusion

Figure 1 shows the proposed model of this study developed from theoretical framework and existing literature. The model assumes that organizational and employee relevant factors, socio-demographic factors as well, have significant affects on the organizational commitment attitudes of peacekeepers. Organizational commitment attitudes, in turn, affect organizational relevant outcomes in peacekeeping missions of IGOs.

Figure 3.1: Organizational Commitment Model

```
+-----------------------------------------------------------------------+
|                                                                       |
|  +---------------------------+                                        |
|  | Organization Level Factors:|                                       |
|  |    Procedural Justice     |                                        |
|  |    Distributive Justice   |------\                                 |
|  |   Organizational Support  |       \      +---------------------+   |
|  |      Job Satisfaction     |        \---->|   Organizational    |   |
|  |   Organizational Politics |             |     Commitment       |   |
|  +---------------------------+        /---->+---------------------+   |
|                                      /                                |
|  +---------------------------+      /                                 |
|  |  Employee Level Factors:  |-----/                                  |
|  |  Supervision Satisfaction |                                        |
|  |   Work Family Conflict    |                                        |
|  +---------------------------+                                        |
|                                                                       |
+-----------------------------------------------------------------------+
```
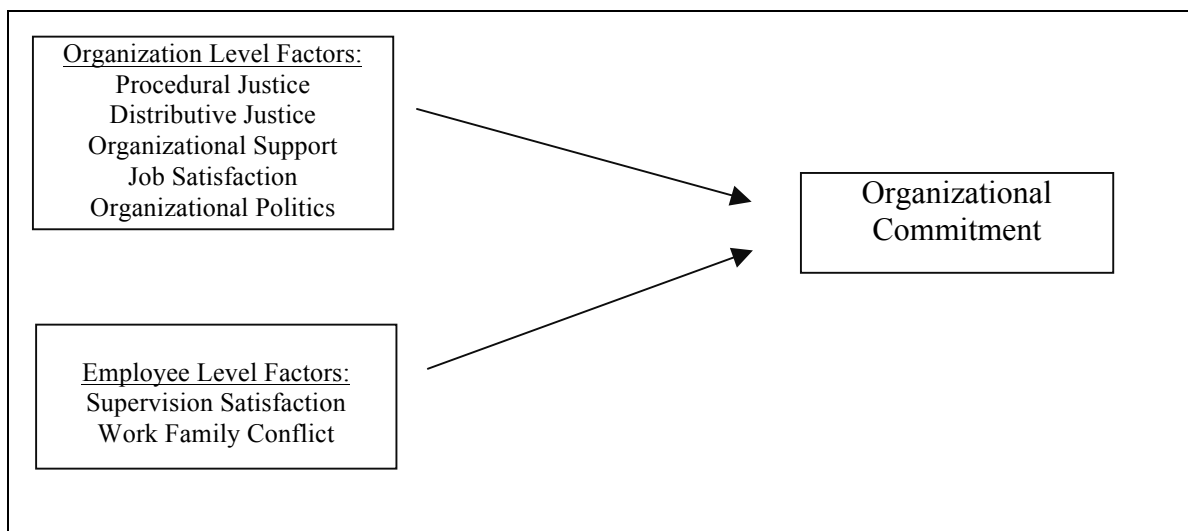
CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of the study. First part of this chapter includes research design of the study. Second, research questions and hypothesis of the study will be introduced. Third, the research area and procedures will be presented. Finally, the last part consists of the measures and analysis of the study.

4.2 Research Design

The purpose of this mixed methods study is to understand international police peacekeepers' commitment level to their IGOs (UN and EU peacekeeping missions) and to explore what factors explain their commitment level. This study utilized extant literature to develop a model of organizational commitment. Then, the researcher tested this model to understand how socio-demographic, organizational and employee level variables explain commitment levels of UN and EU police officers of TNP that were working at the multinational peacekeeping missions at the time research.

This study conducted a self-administered survey to collect quantitative data which enabled the researcher to measure the relationship between organizational commitment and procedural justice, distributive justice, perceived organizational support, job and supervision satisfaction, work family conflict, organizational politics, and socio-demographic variables. In addition, semi-structured interviews were also conducted with several TNP officers who were working in UN and EU missions to explore organizational commitment and factors affecting it. Finally, the results of the study were examined to improve our understanding of organizational commitment in the context of

IGOs. To increase the validity and reliability of the study, previously used scales were adapted and used for the purpose of this study.

In this context, the present study contributed to our understanding of organizational commitment in the context of UN and EU peacekeeping missions, in a broader perspective, within the context of IGOs, by employing equity theory. Equity theory develops our understanding on employees' attitudes in such a setting. In addition, based on the results of this study, the researcher intended to provide recommendations to UN and EU executives about how to improve commitment level among organization members.

This study used mixed methods approach in order to utilize the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell, 2009). Both the strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative methods have increased the importance of using mixed methods in researches (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). Although, mixed methods approach has some disadvantages such as (1) It can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research; (2) Researcher have to learn about multiple methods and approaches, and understand how to mix them appropriately; (3) more expensive, time consuming (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21). However, since this was one of the first studies that examined commitment in the international organizations, mixed method allowed the researcher to get more detailed picture on the study topic. By doing mixed method study, researcher provided a better understanding on factors that affect employee commitment. Accordingly, it has more advantages and is the most appropriate technique for this study. In this context, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) identified the strengths of mixed methods as follows:

- Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers.

- Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narratives.

- Can provide quantitative and qualitative research strengths.

- The researcher can generate and test a grounded theory.

- Can answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach.

- A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weakness in another method by using both in a research study.

- Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergent and corroborated findings.

- Can add insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used,

- Can be used to increase the generalizability of the results.

- Qualitative and quantitative research used together produces more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.

The aforementioned strengths of mixed methods approach led the researcher to implement this approach in order to develop this study.

4.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the review of existing literature, this study proposed to answer the following questions:

1. What is the organizational commitment level among TNP peacekeepers to their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?

2. How do organizational level factors - procedural justice, distributive justice, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, and organizational politics affect commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers toward their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?

3. How do employee level factors - work family conflict, supervision satisfaction, socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences affect commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers toward their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?

4. Do officers' commitment attitudes differ toward their respective organizations by type of IGO (UN vs. EU)?

Based on the research questions, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1: Officers who perceive more procedural justice are more committed to their respective organizations.

H2: Officers who perceive more distributive justice are more committed to their respective organizations.

H3: Officers who perceive more organizational support are more committed their respective organizations.

H4: Officers who are satisfied with their job are more committed to their respective organizations.

H5: Officers who perceive less organizational politics are more committed to their respective organizations.

H6: Officers who have less conflict with their family life are more committed to their respective organizations.

H7: Officers who are satisfied with their supervisor are more committed to their respective organizations.

H8: There is no significant difference between officers in EU missions and those in UN missions in terms of commitment attitudes toward their respective organizations.

4.4 Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of all TNP officers who were currently working for United Nations and European Union peacekeeping missions throughout the world during the administration of the survey. Rather than sampling, this study utilized a census of the entire population. Therefore, the sample of this study, which constituted the data source of this research, was all TNP police officers working in UN and EU police missions at the time of survey implementation. There were approximately 248 TNP officers (including rotations) who were identified as working as a peacekeeper during the implementation of the survey from late October 2012 through early December 2012. 203 and 45 of those who were eligible to participate in the study were working for either the UN or the EU, respectively. Since TNP peacekeepers have similar background education and serve for the National Police, participant had many similarities, which diminished the other possible factors that might affect the study and allowed for a better comparison between the UN and the EU.

In order to conduct the survey and interviews, the researcher reached out to contact information of all TNP officers, who were working in UN and EU peacekeeping missions, by the help of TNP Foreign Affairs Department and Turkish Contingents' Managers and secretariats in these respective missions.

In addition to this, the researcher, who has a work experience in UN Kosovo mission and also is a major in the TNP, utilized his personal connections with TNP members working at UN and EU missions. The researcher's contacts from his UN mission experience also helped to reach the sample population for interviews and surveys. Therefore, in order to reach the study population of police officers, the researcher's contacts and experience for distributing the survey to study population was a very significant contribution to this study.

4.5 Data Collection

According to Babbie (2010), surveys are one of the best methods for measuring the attitudes of a large population. It is one of the most efficient ways of gathering data because researcher directly asks the questions to population (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). Researchers in the field of organization management and policing often use survey instruments to measure attitudinal factors (Fowler, 2002). Therefore, the survey was considered to be the most appropriate method for collecting quantitative data in this study. A cross-sectional survey was conducted via a self-administered questionnaire to volunteer officers in UN and EU missions where TNP peacekeepers were deployed. It was a self-administrated survey because there was no interaction between the researcher and sample population. The Turkish translated version of the questionnaire was sent out to TNP peacekeepers through e-mail as a hyperlink to the website. The contact information of peacekeepers was obtained and matched from both TNP Foreign Affairs Department and Turkish Contingents' Managers in the UN and EU missions. The researcher had his personal contacts asked their colleagues to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. Periodically, reminder e-mails were sent to the sample groups and

individuals to invite those who did not participated in the research in order to obtain a higher response rate.

As suggested by Remler & Van Ryzin (2011), in order to increase reliability of the study, the survey questions were drawn from various previously tested surveys developed by Mowday et al. (1979), Sweeney and McFarlin (1997), Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Wayne et. al (1997), Cammann et. al. (1983), Gutek et al. (1991), Kacmar & Ferris (1991) and Maslyn & Fedor (1998), and Spector (1985). Moreover, several statements used for the independent and dependent variable scales were removed to modify the questionnaire to the context of international organizations. The survey instrument was developed to measure the nine dimensions and consisted of 45 Likert-type items plus demographic questions. As recommended by Babbie (2010), the questionnaire was designed in an order that participants would answer the demographic questions at the end of the survey (Babbie, 2010).

In this study, the review of extant literature has constituted of the base of the research questions, questionnaire and interview questions. However, it is crucial to eliminate translation errors and develop a robust questionnaire, which is clear and meaningful. Remler & Van Ryzin (2011) suggests implementing a cognitive and field pretesting before conducting the survey. First, cognitive pretesting allowed the researcher "achieving the best possible questionnaire" (Dillman, 2007, p. 81) by examining wording and meaning of the questionnaire. For this purpose, the researcher translated the questionnaire into Turkish and then translated back it into English. This prevented any possible translation mistakes in terms of translation. Both English and Turkish version of the questionnaire was administered by several TNP peacekeepers that previously worked

for international peacekeeping missions in order to identify any possible vague or ambiguous questions. Second, for the purpose of field-testing, the researcher sent the full-scale survey to several other TNP peacekeepers that previously worked for peacekeeping missions in order to test the applicability of the survey.

Furthermore, in order to address the shortcomings of survey technique, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain greater depth of officer attitudes. Some of the interview questions were derived from the study of Haarr (1997) and modified to this study (Haarr, 1997). In this way, the researcher collected data by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Face to face and phone interviews were conducted with 10 UN and EU peacekeepers that participated in the survey as well.

4.6 Survey Construction

A survey instrument was used to measure organizational commitment attitudes of police officers working in various missions under the UN and EU. Although many factors might have influence on officers' attitudes and their commitment, the researcher took the most important ones into consideration through reviewing the related literature in the context of equity theory in order to make this study manageable. In order to increase the reliability of the study, survey questions were derived from validated scales and modified to apply in to the context of UN and EU police officers. Since the researcher used Likert-type questions in the survey, it is important to underline the characteristics of summated ratings scale: "(1) a summated ratings scale must contain multiple items, because multiple items will be combined or summed; (2) each individual item must measure something that has an underlying, quantitative measurement continuum; (3) each item has

no 'right' answer; and (4) it cannot be used to test for knowledge or ability" (Spector, 1992, p. 1).

Scale items were measured on a five-point (coded 1 through 5) strength-of-agreement scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither disagree nor agree, 4 = Agree, and 5=Strongly agree) (I. E. Allen & Seaman, 2007; Spector, 1992, p. 1; Sims, 2000). In addition, both positively and negatively worded items were used in the questionnaire to minimize response bias. Thus, negatively worded items were reverse coded as 5=1, 4=2, 3=3, 2=4, and 1=5 (Spector, 1992; Sims, 2000).

4.7 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this research is TNP officers' commitment to the multinational peacekeeping missions, by extension their respective IGOs, either the UN or the EU. Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment as "relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226). The *organizational commitment* scale items were taken from Mowday, Steers and Porter's scale (1982) and adapted to the study considering the characteristics of UN and EU peacekeeping missions. It uses 9 items to measure *attitudinal or affective commitment*. Although Mowday et al. developed 15 items to measure global organizational commitment in 1979; a 9 item shortened version of the original scale was developed by same researchers in 1982 and has been used by many scholars. Their studies have found this scale reliable with 0.74 to 0.92 coefficient alpha values. However, the scale was modified for the purpose of this study and the scale was coded by summing seven out of nine items after applying factor analysis. It was coded so that a higher score indicates greater commitment of TNP officers toward the international

organization for which they worked. The adapted version of the scale as follows (the two dropped items are indicated with an asterisk);

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the UN (EU) be successful *

2. I talk up the UN (EU) to my friends as a great organization to work for

3. I would accept almost any types of job assignment in order to keep working for the UN (EU) *

4. I find that my values and the UN (EU)'s values are very similar

5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of the UN (EU)

6. The UN (EU) really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance

7. I am extremely glad that I chose the UN (EU) to work

8. I really care about the fate of the UN (EU)

9. For me, working at the UN (EU) is the best of all possible international organizations for which to work

4.8 Independent Variables

4.8.1 Procedural Justice

The scale was designed to measure officers' attitudes toward procedural justice in the international organization's peacekeeping missions. The procedural justice scale was developed by Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) to measure the perception of fairness in an organization. The original procedural justice scale uses (13) items; however, (6) items were removed and (7) items were modified for the purpose of this study. Thus, as a result of factor analysis, the scale was coded by summing four out of seven items, and the other 3 items constructed a scale of another aspect of procedural justice. It was coded so that a

higher score indicates participants' positive views about procedural justice in the multinational police missions. The adapted version of the procedural justice scale has seven items as follows (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997) and the other 3 items are indicated with an asterisk:

1. I am not sure what determines how I can get a promotion in the UN (EU) (R)

2. I am told promptly when there is a change in policy, rules, or regulations that affects me

3. It's really not possible to change things around here (R)

4. In general, disciplinary actions taken in the UN (EU) are fair and justified

5. I am not afraid to "blow the whistle" on things I find wrong with the UN (EU)*

6. If I were subject to an involuntary personnel action, I believe the UN (EU) would adequately inform me of my grievance and appeal rights*

7. I am aware of the specific steps I must take to have a personnel action taken against me reconsidered*

4.8.2 Distributive Justice

The distributive justice measure was developed by Sweeney and McFarlin (1997). The distributive justice scale uses (11) items; however, (6) items were removed and (5) items were modified to adapt the study to the UN and EU context. The index of distributive justice was created by summing five items. It was coded so that a higher score indicated a strong perception of distributive justice among participants. The adapted version of the scale consists of five items as follows (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997);

1. Promotions here usually depend on how well a person performs on his/her job

2. My supervisor evaluated my performance on things not related to my job (R)

3. I will be demoted or removed from my position if I perform my job poorly

4. I will be promoted or given a better position if I perform especially well

5. My own hard work will lead to recognition as a good performer

4.8.3 Perceived Organizational Support

The scale was designed to measure the extent to which TNP officers working in peacekeeping missions believe that their respective IGOs support their efforts, value their contribution, and care about their opinions and satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The original (17) item scale was developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986), and then was modified by Wayne et al. (1997) who administrated the scale by (9) questions. This study used the short version of the scale (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997) and adapted it to the UN and EU context. The nine Likert-type items were summed and coded so that a higher score indicates a strong perceived organizational support among participants. The modified scale items are;

1. The UN (EU) strongly considers my goals and values

2. Help is available from the UN (EU) when I have a problem

3. The UN (EU) really cares about my well-being

4. The UN (EU) is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability

5. Even if I did the best job possible, the UN (EU) would fail to notice (R)

6. The UN (EU) cares about my general satisfaction at work

7. The UN (EU) shows very little concern for me (R)

8. The UN (EU) cares about my opinions

9. The UN (EU) takes pride in my accomplishments at work

4.8.4 Job Satisfaction

The scale was aimed to measure the extent to which officers are satisfied with their job in their respective organizations. Respondents' attitudes toward job satisfaction was measured by three Likert-type questionnaire items, developed by Cammann et. al. (1983). This study adapted these items to the UN and EU context. These items were summed and coded so that a high score indicated a higher job satisfaction. The items are as follows (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983);

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job in the UN (EU)

2. In general, I don't like my job in the UN (EU) (R)

3. In general, I like working in the UN (EU)

4.8.5 Organizational Politics

The scale measures officers' perception of the extent to which their respective international organizations were political in nature. The original 12-items organizational politics scale was developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991). However, Maslyn and Fedor (1998) found that 4 items explain the perception of politics at the organizational level well with a 0.76 coefficient alpha value. Therefore, these four items were modified to the UN and EU context. 3 out of 4 of these items were summed and coded so that a high score indicates that officers hold higher negative perception toward political settings in the multinational police missions. The adapted version of the scale consists of four items as follows (Maslyn & Fedor, 1998) (the dropped item is indicated with an asterisk);

1. There has always been an influential country (police) contingent in the UN (EU) that no one ever crosses*

2. Opportunities and promotions come only to those who work hard in the UN (EU) (R)

3. I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of a few individuals, not the work unit or the organization

4. Promotion decisions are not consistent with existing organizational policies

4.8.6 Work-Family Conflict

The scale of work family conflict measured the extent to which officers' personal life demands interfered with their work responsibilities at their workplaces. This study adapted the measure, which was developed by Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991). Since the original measure has two subscales and each of them measures separate dimensions of work family conflict, the researcher used one of these subscales (four items), which described the extent to which family demands interfered with work responsibilities. After the factor analysis, two out of four Likert-type items were summed and coded so that a higher value indicates that officer had high level of work family conflict. The adapted version of the scale has comprised of four items of the original scale as follows (Gutek et al., 1991) (the two dropped items are indicated with an asterisk);

1. I'm often too tired at work in the UN (EU) because of the things I have to deal at my family

2. My personal demands regarding my family life are so great that it takes away from my work at the UN (EU)

3. My superiors and colleagues dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work in the UN (EU)*

4. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work in the UN (EU)*

4.8.7 Supervision satisfaction

The scale measures the extent to which officers were satisfied with their supervisors in the multinational police missions. The scale was borrowed from Spector (1985) who developed a 36 items to measure the 6 aspects of job satisfaction that includes a 4-item supervision satisfaction subscale. These four Likert-type items were summed, so a higher score suggests that officers were satisfied with the supervision and held positive attitudes toward their supervisors. The adapted version of the scale has four items as follows (Spector, 1985);

1. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job

2. My supervisor is unfair to me (R)

3. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates (R)

4. I like my supervisor

4.8.8 Socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences

Existing literature on commitment suggested that employee demographic characteristics and work experiences might influence commitment attitudes of employees in the organizations (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Luthans, Taylor, & Baack, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Background characteristics and work experiences of officers might influence officers' attitudes toward their respective international organizations and their commitment level. Therefore, this study consisted of several demographic questions and work experiences including age groups, education level, rank (in home country), current position (supervisor vs. officers) and duty (field vs. administrative) in the mission, service length, willingness to get extension, and frequency of service at UN/EU missions, field mission in which participants work, type of IGO mission (UN vs. EU).

4.9 Data Analysis

In this study, the data were analyzed in two phases: quantitative and qualitative data analyses. Since, quantitative data were collected via a web-based self-administered survey, survey data were obtained in a format that was usable in statistical computer software programs. Therefore, the researcher used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 18 to conduct statistical analyses. Quantitative data were analyzed in six stages and level of significance was set at $p<0.05$ for all statistical tests.

First, in order to gain a better understanding of sample, the characteristics of participants were presented. Socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences of participants were described along with the measures of central tendency of these variables.

Second, principal components analysis and scale reliability testing were conducted. Principal components analysis was conducted to extract the factors that measuring the same construct and to reduce the dimensionality of the data (Hair, et al., 2006; Julnes, 2007). Then, Cronbach's alpha values were computed to determine the level of internal consistency and reliability of scales (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). Before continuing further analyses, the researcher summed items, which formed reliable scales. Since Likert-type items are actually ordinal level data, this process was necessary to create summated rating scales that became interval level data (Hair et al., 2006; Spector 1992).

Third, in order to answer the first research question "What is the organizational commitment level among TNP peacekeepers to their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?", frequency distributions and descriptive statistics of organizational commitment

scale were presented. After analyzing each item, the researcher was able to describe the officers' overall commitment to their respective international organizations.

In the fourth stage, independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed to examine whether demographic variables and work experiences (age groups, education level, rank (in home country), current position (supervisor vs. officers) and duty (field vs. administrative) in the mission, service length, willingness to get extension, and frequency of service at UN/EU missions, field mission in which participants work, type of international organization mission (UN vs. EU)) had any influence on police officers' commitment attitudes toward their organizations (Sirkin, 2006; Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2003). Moreover, independent samples t-test was conducted to compare commitment attitudes of officers working in UN and EU missions.

In the fifth stage, Pearson correlation coefficient values were calculated to find the strength and direction of relationship between dependent variable (organizational commitment) and independent variables (procedural justice, distributive justice, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, work family conflict, organizational politics, supervision satisfaction, socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences).

In the sixth stage of the study, a hierarchical mode multiple regression analysis (ordinary least squares-OLS) was conducted to answer the second and third research questions "How do procedural justice, distributive justice, perceived organizational support, work family conflict, job and supervision satisfaction, organizational politics, socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences explain commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers toward their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?". Multiple

regression analysis enabled the researcher to analyze to what extent multiple independent variables explained or predicted changes in dependent variable (D. E. McNabb, 2010).

Finally, qualitative data gathered from semi-structured interviews were analyzed. Qualitative data were used to gain in depth understanding about officers' commitment to IGOs, in which they are assigned. The researcher followed the process suggested by Creswell (2009, pg. 185-189) for the qualitative data analysis:

1. Organize and prepare the data for analysis.

2. Read through all the data.

3. Begin detailed analysis with a coding process.

4. Use the coding process to generate a description of the settings or people as well as categories or themes for analysis.

5. Advance how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative.

6. A final step in data analysis involves making interpretation or meaning of the data.

Furthermore, although the abovementioned approach was utilized for qualitative data analysis, NVivo 10 software program, which is commonly used for qualitative and mixed methods studies, was used for the purpose of this analysis. Since the number of interviewees was not so high, it was not essential to use this software program; however, the program helped to better generate categorizations with its user-friendly interface.[1]

---

[1] NVivo is a software program that helps you "collect, organize and analyze content from interviews, focus group discussions, surveys, audio and social media data". Retrieved from http://www.qsrinternational.com.

4.10 Ethical Issues

Upon the research was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Rutgers University, the survey instrument with a consent form was e-mailed to Turkish Contingent Peacekeepers and personal contacts in the UN and EU peacekeeping missions. With the help of these contact officers, the e-mail was distributed to all TNP officers working in the peacekeeping missions during the survey implementation period and asked them to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. Thus, TNP officers were able to participate in this study through filling out a web-based survey questionnaire on www.questionpro.com.

The web-based questionnaire was distributed to all TNP officers and supervisors working in the UN and EU missions at that time. On the first page of the questionnaire and in the interviews, participants were informed about the research and were asked to continue if they provide consent to participate in this study. Moreover, in the phone interviews, the consent forms were emailed to participants for their information. The informed consent form explained participants that the research would not reveal participants' identities in order not to harm them; anonymity, confidentiality, and voluntary participation were emphasized; all collected data would not be used for anything other than academic purposes (Babbie, 2010; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 232). All data collected for this research will be kept under secure conditions and destroyed as the end of the research, which was designated by IRB rules.

CHAPTER V

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

In this chapter, findings of the present dissertation research are presented. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis constitute the data analysis and findings sections of this study. In the first part of the chapter, quantitative data are presented; and the "combination of theory, methodology, and statistical analysis" is utilized to answer the research questions and hypotheses (Walker & Maddan, 2009, p. 420). In the following section, the results of the qualitative data analysis to explore UN and EU peacekeepers' commitment attitudes toward the IGOs for which they work are presented in a narrative format. Finally, the results of these two methodological approaches are discussed at the end of each section.

Findings and Results of Quantitative Data

First, the quantitative component of the study, which was the primary method of data collection, is presented. In the first subsection, the data collection process and characteristics of participants are discussed. Second, descriptive statistics of the peacekeepers who participated in this study, are presented. Third, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the constructs and an analysis of the reliability of the scales are presented. Furthermore, the variables of the study reported through univariate descriptive statistics are documented. Finally, the results of independent samples t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) that were conducted to examine the affects of demographic variables on perceptions, plus, OLS regression outcomes utilized to document results of these multivariate analyses are presented.

5.1 Sample

The population of this study consisted of all TNP officers who were working for the United Nations and European Union peacekeeping missions throughout the world at the time of survey implementation. Approximately, 248 TNP officers (including rotations during the survey) who were identified by the researcher were working as peacekeepers during the administration of the questionnaire from late October 2012 through early December 2012. Whereas, 203 of them were located in UN missions, 45 of them were located in EU missions.[1] The email lists were obtained and gathered either from TNP Foreign Affairs Department or TNP mission secretaries in the missions in order to be certain that survey would reach to all population, and a total of 285 email addresses were obtained for purposes of inviting participation in the survey.

Since some of them had different email addresses to those in the email list, the researcher wanted to be sure to have access to all peacekeepers working in either the UN or EU missions. Therefore, the researcher decided to send an email invitation to all available email addresses he could obtain from his contacts. There were two reasons for this decision. First, there was a risk of missing some peacekeepers as a result of assigning only one email to each individual because of miscoded or unused email names in the final list. Second, although most potential participants had quite good Internet access based on UN and EU systems, some of them were working under severe conditions and had limited Internet access in their mission fields, such as those in certain East African Missions. Finally, an email invitation was sent to 285 email addresses on October 24th,

---

[1] One officer working for the EU mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUPM) had just ended up his/her mission assignment; however, since that officer was the only person from the EUPM and considering one person's participation could not bias the study, instead of removing that officer from the study, I preferred to include that officer in my study in order to improve the study's comprehensiveness.

2012, inviting eligible peacekeepers to participate in the study. Since the secretary or manager of each mission has all contact information of TNP peacekeepers in that respective mission, further email invitations with a hyperlink, asking them to advertise my survey in their mission email groups, were also sent to TNP mission secretaries. These invitations and further reminders were also significant in increasing the response rate.

The response rate calculated by the percentage of the number of peacekeepers (248) that resulted in completed questionnaires (196) was 79%. As the descriptive statistics below show, the participants were quite representative of all members of the population, including the gender demographics of the participants. Eight out of 285-email invitations, mainly UN domain email addresses were bounced in the online survey system. In this regard, there were 217 attempts (and the questionnaire was started 353 times) to participate in the questionnaire; however, only 196 peacekeepers completed the survey. Seventeen out of 217 had missing data that exceeded 30%. The other 4 cases completed the survey except for the demographics component. However, since they did not submit the survey at the last moment, it was assumed that they had the will to participate in the study, and could not submit the survey in its entirety because of severe work conditions or poor Internet connections. And, there was a possibility that they participated in the survey again; hence, in order to prevent sampling error by including one person twice in the data, the researcher only included cases that submitted fully completed surveys. In conclusion, 21 cases were removed before the primary analysis due to the missing data and possible sampling error.

For qualitative analysis, interviews were conducted with peacekeepers working in various missions in order to obtain a full picture of the peacekeeping missions. To this end, 10 interviews were conducted with peacekeepers in missions where more than five officers worked. The characteristics of interviewees were described in more detail in the qualitative section of this chapter.

5.2 Characteristics of Participants

The participants of this research study were TNP police peacekeepers who were working for IGOs, either within the UN or the EU, at the time of the administration of the survey (See Table 5.1). While 154 out of 196 peacekeepers that completed the questionnaire were deployed by the UN, the other 42 were deployed by the EU during the survey research process, which accounted for 78.6% and 21.4% of 196 participants, respectively. Furthermore, the staff of 11 UN and 2 EU missions,[2] which consisted of all police missions wherein TNP officers are deployed, participated in this research.[3] Of the 189 who answered, 23.3% of the peacekeepers were from missions in Europe (UNMIK, EULEX and EUPM), 7.4% of those were from Asia and the Pacific (UNMIT and UNAMA), 12.2% of those were from Americas (MINUSTAH), and 57.1% of those were

---

[2] UN Missions: UNMIK (UN Mission in Kosovo), UNMIT (UN Integrated Mission in Timor-Leste), UNAMA (UN Mission in Afghanistan), MINUSTAH (UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti), UNOCI (UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire), UNMIL (UN Mission in Liberia), UNMISS (UN Mission in the Republic of South Sudan), UNAMID (UN Mission in Darfur), MONUSCO (UN Organization Stabilization Mission in the DR Congo), UNIPSIL (UN Integrated Peacebuilding Office in Sierra Leone), UNSMIL (UN Support Mission in Libya). EU Missions: EULEX (EU Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo), and EUPM (EU Police Mission in B&H).

[3] There are currently 16 peacekeeping (including UNAMA political mission) missions operating under the DPKO around the world. UN Police are serving 12 out 16 of these missions. While UNIPSIL is considered to be a peacebuilding mission, UNSMIL is classified as a support mission. Turkish peacekeepers are serving in all peacekeeping missions, excluding MINURSO (Western Sahara), UNFICYP ((Southern) Cyprus), UNISFA (Abyei), in which only 6, 65, 5 police officers are serving, respectively.

from Africa (UNOCI, UNMIL, UNMISS, UNAMID, MONUSCO, UNIPSIL, and UNSMIL).[4]

Approximately, 6.2% of those participants, or 12 persons, who answered the question (195), were female officers, however, the majority were males, who represented 93.8% (183) of the sample or 183 individuals. Table 5.1 also indicates the distribution of the results. All female officers were deployed in UN missions. Therefore, roughly 8% of the UN officers, who participated in this research, were female. The sample was quite representative of both UN missions and the TNP because female officer are found in these organizations roughly 10% and 8% of the time, respectively.[5]

The age of the participants ranged from '25-30' years of age to a group who were '46 years of age and older'. Among the 195 peacekeepers that answered the questions, 44.6% (87) were in the '36-40' year old age group, which constituted the majority of the participants, followed by 23.1% or (45) who were in the '41-45' year old age group and 4,1% or (8) were in the '46 and older' age group. In sum, the results demonstrated that 72.8% of the participants were over 36 years old of age. Although there are not any official records in terms of the UN police's average age, considering that the TNP largely has a young police force, these results indicate that participants were quite commonly middle aged.

---

[4] This classification was made on the basis of UN peacekeeping operations deployment classification on the website http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/current.shtml

[5] There is not any official documentation with respect to gender rates at the websites of both the UN Police and the TNP. However, this information was produced based on the experience of researcher in the TNP and the website of the UN Police at https://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/sites/police.

Table 5.1: Demographic Characteristics of Participants[6]

		N	N %	Mean	Min	Max	Total N
IGO	UN = 1	154	(78.6%)				
	EU = 2	42	(21.4%)	1.21	1	2	196
Mission	UNMIT	13	(6.9%)				
	UNOCI	16	(8.5%)				
	MINUSTAH	23	(12.2%)				
	UNMIK	2	(1.1%)				
	UNMIL	17	(9.0%)				
	UNMISS	20	(10.6%)				
	UNAMID	39	(20.6%)				
	MONUSCO	14	(7.4%)				
	EULEX	41	(21.7%)				
	Others7	4	(2%)				189
Gender	Female = 1	12	(6.2%)				
	Male = 2	183	(93.8%)	1.94	1	2	195
Age	25-30 = 1	16	(8.2%)				
	31-35 = 2	39	(20.0%)				
	36-40 = 3	87	(44.6%)				
	41-45 = 4	45	(23.1%)				
	46 or older = 5	8	(4.1%)	2.95	1	5	195
Rank in TNP	Staff / Officer =1	50	(25.9%)				
	First Level Manager = 2	16	(8.3%)				
	Mid Level Manager = 3	109	(56.5%)				
	High Level Manager = 4	18	(9.3%)	2.49	1	4	193
Education	High School Degree =1	0	(. 0%)				
	Associate Degree = 2	7	(3.6%)				
	Bachelor's Degree = 3	142	(72.8%)				
	Graduate Degree = 4	46	(23.6%)	3.20	2	4	195
Supervisor	Supervisor = 1	49	(25.1%)				
	Not Supervisor = 2	146	(74.9%)	1.75	1	2	195
N=196	Others1: UNIPSIL (1). UNSMIL (1). UNAMA (1). EUPM (1)						

The peacekeepers' home country ranks ranged from officers through to First Degree Chief Superintendents, and consisted of all possible ranks in the TNP. According to the classification of TNP Department of Personnel, this research juxtaposed four rank groups, which were Staff/Officers, First Level Managers, Middle Level Managers, and

[6] The researcher designed this table to improve the understanding of the demographics of the study by combining from the guidelines found in the book by Jane E. Miller, "The Chicago Guide to Writing about Multivariate Analysis", p.93-96. Moreover, it is not appropriate to provide "mean" values for nominal (categorical) variables, these values somewhat offer a better understanding of the demographics for the reader.

High Level Managers, and the participation rates of the groups were 25.9%, 8.3%, 56.5%, and 9.3%, respectively. The results indicated that the majority of participants, 127 out of 193, were experienced managers in their respective national organization because it requires at least 10 years to be promoted to the entry or middle level manager rank in the TNP. Since ranked officers in the TNP begin their careers in their early 20s, these results also explain age trend observed in relation to the present participants, who were mostly in the 36-40 year old age range.

The researcher designated four education level groups ranging from 1 to 4 (1=High School Degree, 2=Associate Degree, 3=Bachelor's Degree, 4=Graduate Degree). These are possible minimum and maximum education levels for a qualified police officer working in the TNP. However, the education level of participants ranged from 2 to 4. The average education level of participants was a Bachelor's Degree (mean= 3.2), which accounted for 72.8% (142 personnel) of 195 participants who answered the question, followed by a Graduate Degree that accounted for 23.6% of participants. Since a high school degree is a minimum requirement for a line officer, who constitute roughly 90% of the TNP population[8], and most of these officers have a High School or an Associates Degree, these results indicate that on average, staff/officer level participants (25.9%, 50 personnel) had quite a high level of education when compared to their counterparts in the TNP. Furthermore, it can be argued that the average education levels of participants was quite a lot higher than the average police education level of both IGO missions and the World's other police organizations.

---

[8] This information was also produced by relying on the researcher's experience in the TNP.

However, although roughly 75% of the peacekeepers were ranked personnel in their home country, only about 25% of them were in a supervisor position in the missions that they worked either for. The UN and EU missions are considered to be non-rank assignments, and at least officially, home country ranks are not taken into account in these missions. Since having a supervisor position relies on many factors such as experience, performance, demand, and so forth in the mission of a peacekeeper, 74.9% (146) of them were not in supervisor positions in their respective IGO missions.

5.3 Principal Component Analysis and Scale Reliability Testing

Since this research used Likert-type items (indicators) to combine and create a scale, as a type of Factor Analysis, PCA (Principal Component Analysis) was considered to be a useful multivariate method for this study (Walker & Maddan, 2009). The purpose of PCA is parsimony because "a small set of uncorrelated variables is much easier to understand and use in further analysis than a larger set of correlated variables" (Dunteman, 1989, p. 7; Julnes, 1999). This method empirically identifies and reduces large number variables into smaller set of underlying factors, and hence, it is also "referred to as a data reduction method" (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 318; Field, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, factor analysis can help to solve a possible multicollinearity problem in multiple regressions by aggregating collinear variables (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011; Field, 2009).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) posit that at least 300 cases are adequate for an analysis, but under some circumstances 100 cases can even be sufficient depending on the strength of the correlations and a few distinct factors. Besides, Comrey and Lee (1992) consider the case numbers as follow: 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good. Hair et

al. (2009) assert that a researcher should have more than 100 observations to conduct a PCA and there should be at least a ten-to-one ratio between the observations and variables. Since this research has 196 observations, which is well above the expected level (170), this study met the requirements for conducting a PCA.

Hair et al. (2009) suggest that the "researcher must also ensure that the data matrix has sufficient correlations" (pg. 114) for the applicability of factor analysis. As a rule of thumb, intercorrelations between variables should be checked to control for two possible problems: too high correlations (greater than .90) and low correlations (lower than .30) (Field, 2009). To be appropriate for factor analysis, a visual control process was conducted to examine if there were a substantial number of correlations greater than .30 (Field, 2009). Although "multicollinearity does not cause a problem for PCA", the researcher preferred to check for very high correlations (greater than 0.90) and to detect these using the determinant of R-matrix, which explains multicollineratiy problems if these are lower than 0.00001 (Field, 2009, p. 648). Furthermore, in order to analyze correlations for factor analysis, in SPSS, the anti-image correlation matrix, and negative value of the partial correlations were checked for appropriateness. A correlation greater than .50 was considered suitable for factor analysis (Field, 2009).

The researcher also examined the entire correlation matrix by applying the Bartlett test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. The Barlett test of sphericity's statistical probability ($p < .05$), indicates whether "the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables" (Hair et al., 2009, pg. 115). In addition to the above tests, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test, also known as measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), to examine the

degree of inter-correlations among the variables. In general, KMO values greater than .60 are acceptable, and this approach was also utilized in this study (Hair et al., 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The researcher also checked the communalities, which indicate "the proportion of common variance present in a variable" (Field, 2009, p. 637). The values range from 0 to 1. Costello and Osborne (2005) suggest removing the items that have communalities lower than .40, since they may not be related to other items (pg.4). Therefore, the researcher checked the scales for the communalities of variables and removed the items, which were lower than .40.

The decision to use on extracting factor analysis was based on several methods, including the latent root criterion and the scree test criterion; and by doing so, the researcher included only factors with large eigenvalues. Field (2009) states "eigenvalues associated with a variate indicate the substantive importance of that factor" (pg. 639). While this present study used the scree test criterion to support the study, the main criterion employed was the latent root criterion on deciding factors. Although Field (2009) found the scree plot test reliable with more than 200 observations, which was also suitable for this study, it may be risky to base this study on solely on this test because it is "ambiguous" and relies on the visual control of researcher (Julnes, 1999, p. 557). The latent root criterion, which is the most used approach, considers the factors that have eigenvalues greater than 1 as significant and disregards the rest of factors (Hair et al., 2009).

Another important step in factor analysis is the rotation of factors for interpretation purposes. Hair et al. (2009) indicate, "unrotated factor solutions extract factors in the order of their importance"; hence, the rotation redistributes " the variance

from earlier factors to later ones to achieve a simpler, theoretically more meaningful factor pattern " (pg.125). In this context, the varimax type of orthogonal rotation method, the most popular procedure, was used for the purpose of this study because "this rotation procedure attempts to minimize the number of variables that have high loadings on a factor" and achieves parsimony (Walker & Maddan, 2009, p. 336). Furthermore, the pairwise imputation approach, which use all-available data for the analysis, was utilized because missing data were below 10% and MCAR (Missing completely at Random), Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 1746,556, Sig. = .999, which allowed the researcher to apply any of the available imputation methods (Hair et al., 2009)[9].

After structuring the factors, the researcher examined the factor loadings to decide which variables generate factors. In order to determine the significance of a variable in factor loading, Stevens (1992) suggested that researcher should take into account to the sample size, and stated that "for 200 it should be greater than 0.364" (pg. 382). Walker and Maddan (2009) and Hair et al. (2009) also suggest using factor loadings greater than 0.40 when 200 participants exist in a study. Therefore, this study considered 0.40 as a cut-off point for assessing the significance of the factor loadings.

After conducting a factor analysis, it is important to test the scale reliability of the items that are found to load on the factors. The calculation of internal – consistency or reliability demonstrates "how well the individual items of a scale reflect a common, underlying construct" (Spector, 1992, p. 65). Cronbach's alpha is the most used measure to assess internal reliability (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). Alpha values range from 0 to 1

---

[9] The researcher checked the cases and items with missing values. A Missing Value Analysis in SPSS indicated that the percent of missing values for items (questions) ranged on average from 0 to 2.0%, and for cases from 0 to 3.5. Both low rates of missing data and MCAR results allowed the researcher to choose the Pairwise analytic approach, which is known as the all-available approach.

and higher values indicate more reliability. There are different views with respect to a cut-off point for any coefficient alpha value of a construct, and mostly studies deem the values .70 to .80 as representing an acceptable level (Field, 2009; Spector, 1992). However, some researchers (Currie & Dollery, 2006) have used 0.60 as a cut-off value for reliability in their researches, and Hair et al. (2009) stated that "reliability may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research" (p.138) For the purpose of this present study, researcher utilized a 0.60 coefficient value for indicating scale reliability. Following the reliability test, 'Corrected item-Total correlation" columns were controlled because all items should correlate in a reliable scale and be above 0.30. Items below 0.30 do not correlate well within the scale, and it is better to remove them (Field, 2009, p. 678).

The PCA and scale reliability test was applied to the following scales to attain a better understanding of the structures of the variables as well as to summarize the data: Organizational Commitment, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Perceived Organizational Support, Job Satisfaction, Work Family Conflict, Organizational Politics, and Supervision Satisfaction (See Appendix G).

Organizational Commitment

This study applied factor analysis to the data of organizational commitment scale's 9 items by utilizing orthogonal rotation (varimax). The researcher first controlled communalities lower than 0.40. Two items (items 1 and 3) were removed because of their low communalities, and after this process, the communalities that resulted were greater than .43. The researcher also conducted a visual control strategy on the coefficients over 0.30, which indicated there was an adequate basis for factor analysis. Furthermore, the Bartlett test of sphericity was conducted to examine the significance of the correlation

matrix, which was also significant χ^2 (21) = 487.963 p< .001 (p =. 000). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value (0.87), which was greater than 0.60, also demonstrated the appropriateness of the items for factor analysis. Besides, the determinant of the R-matrix value (0.69) was greater than 0.00001, and showed lack of any possible multicollinearity problem. One factor was extracted, and this had eigenvalues greater than the Kaiser's criterion of 1.0 and explained 53% of the variance. Since only one factor was extracted, there was no rotation for the loadings, and Appendix G represents the factor loadings of the items, which are between 0.65 and 0.82. Finally, the researcher conducted a reliability test for the factor loadings, consisting of 7 organizational commitment scale's items. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha value was 0.85 (Table 2), which is well over the threshold value of 0.60. In conclusion, the newly created construct consisting of 7 items was retained for further analysis.

Procedural Justice

The PCA for 7 items of Procedural Justice scale with orthogonal rotation (varimax) produced two components with eigenvalue values greater than 1.0, which accounted for 55% of the total variance. The communalities were greater than 0.41 and none of the items were removed. There were coefficients higher than 0.30 in the visual control. However, in order to examine their adequacy for factor analysis, the Bartlett test of sphericity, which is significant χ^2 (21) = 262.487 p< .001 (p=0.000), and the KMO, where the value was greater than 0.60 (KMO= 0.74), was conducted. Furthermore, a determinant of the R-matrix value (0.24) indicated no multicollinearity problem. In conclusion, all of these tests indicated the adequacy of the data for factor analysis. After the rotation, the items' loadings ranged between 0.54 and .84.

While the items (1-4) loaded on factor 1, the other items (4-7) loaded on factor 2 (See Appendix G). These two components are considered to measure two different dimensions of procedural justice. However, this study proposed the definition of procedural justice in the conceptual framework of equity as follows: "the fairness of policies and procedures used to make decisions". According to Hair et al. (2009), "the process of naming factors is based primarily on the subjective opinion of the researcher" (p.145). Therefore, after examining the underlying meanings of the factors, the researcher assigned the name "Procedural Justice" to factor 1 and factor 2 was named "Awareness of Process Fairness". The content of the items in factor 1 was related to the fairness of processes in the organization and considered to demonstrate the proposed definition of this study, and hence, it was felt appropriate to utilize this title for representing this factor. Furthermore, the content of the items in factor 2 were considered to represent the "awareness dimension of procedural justice" (Fields, 2002, p. 165), and thereby, it appeared adequate to use the aforementioned title for identifying this factor. In the voice dimension of procedural justice, employees are allowed to convey their ideas and information with respect to decisions that are related to them (Fields, 2002). Higher scores indicate that participants have positive attitudes towards their organizations since they feel convenient in terms of demanding their rights. Although two of the components will be retained for further analysis, only factor 1, the "Procedural Justice" component was used for hypothesis testing.

In order to form a reliable scale, a reliability test was conducted by utilizing Cronbach's alpha test. Both of the components produced reliable scales, where values were considerably higher than the cut-off point (0.60). The Cronbach's alpha values were

0.66 for Procedural Justice and 0.65 for the Awareness of Process Fairness scales (Table 2).

Distributive Justice

A PCA was conducted to analyze the 5 items of Distributive Justice Scale with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The test resulted in one factor with eigenvalue values higher than 1.0, which explained 52% of the total variance. The communalities of the two items (Items 2 and 5) were 0.36 and were lower than 0.40. Although it is possible to remove them, Hair et al. (2009) suggested either removing the items or interpreting and keeping them as it is for further analysis. Since the primary objective of the PCA was data reduction and the contextual dimension of the items were valuable to this study, it seemed appropriate to hold these two items for further analysis rather than removing them. Since the KMO value is 0.79 and the calculated p value was significant χ^2 (10) = 248.627 p< .001 (p=0.000), the data were deemed adequate for purposes of conducting a PCA for this scale. The determinant of R-matrix value (0.27) that was observed indicated there was no multicollinearity problem. Since only one component was produced, there was no rotation performed for the analysis. The values of variables that loaded on the factor ranged from 0.60 through 0.83 (See Appendix G). The reliability of the distributive justice variable comprised of 5 items was 0.77 (Table 2); and therefore, the factor formed a reliable scale.

Perceived Organizational Support

The factor loadings of the Perceived Organizational Support 9 item scale formed one component with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 accounting for 62% of the total variance. There was no rotation because the PCA produced only one component. The

KMO value was 0.93 and the Barlett test value was significant χ^2 (36) = 1020.213 p< .001 (p=0.000). The results of the determinant of R-matrix value (0.004) demonstrated no multicollinearity problem. The communalities were greater than 0.48; therefore all of the items were retained in the analysis. The minimum and maximum factor loading values were 0.69 and 0.83, respectively. Cronbach's alpha of this construct was 0.92 (Table 2), which is well over the cut-off point (0.60). In conclusion, this construct formed a reliable scale that represented the underlying meaning of the items measuring Perceived Organizational Support.

Job Satisfaction

The three items measuring job satisfaction produced one factor with orthogonal rotation (varimax) that explained 72% of the total variance. There was no rotation performed because the PCA extracted only one component. For the purposes of the adequacy of the factor analysis, a series of tests were conducted by the researcher. First, the researcher performed a visual control on the coefficients over 0.30, which indicated there was adequate basis for a factor analysis. The minimum communality value was 0.59 and the maximum value was 0.80, which were significantly greater than the cut-off point (0.40). The KMO result was 0.66, over the acceptable level (0.60) and the Barlett's test of Sphericity was significant χ^2 (3) = 220.124 p< .001 (p=.000), which all indicate the appropriateness for the factor analysis. The determinant of the R-matrix value (0.316) did not indicate any multicollinearity problem. Factor loadings were all greater than 0.77 (See Appendix G). The Cronbach's alpha value for thejob satisfaction scale was 0.79, which indicates that the construct formed a reliable scale (Table 2).

Organizational Politics

The researcher conducted a PCA on the 4 items of the Organizational Politics scale with orthogonal rotation (varimax) and eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Since the communality value (.062) of item 1 was lower than 0.40, item 1 was removed from the analysis. The researcher conducted another follow-up PCA with the items 2,3, and 4 that explained 73% of the total variance; and by doing so, all the communality values gave results greater than 0.40, that is they fell between 0.60 and 0.83.

In order to examine the construct for appropriateness to factor analysis, the KMO and the Barlett's test of Sphericity were utilized. The visual control of correlation coefficients verified the existence of a sufficient number of correlations between the items that were higher than 0.30. The KMO value of 0.65, was greater than the cut-off point (0.60) and the Barlett's test of Sphericity was significant χ^2 (3) = 237.327 p< .001 (p=.000). Finally, the R-matrix value (0.28) was greater than the acceptable level. All the items loaded on one component whose values ranged from 0.77 to 0.91. The reliability score for the newly constructed scale consisting of three items was 0.81.

Work-Family Conflict

A PCA analysis on the Work Family scale items resulted in the loading of the variables on two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. However, only factor 1 was retained for further analysis, which accounted for 43% of the total variance. The communalities of the variables were greater than 0.76; therefore, none of the items were removed because of low communalities. The researcher conducted further analysis by applying the KMO and the Barlett's test of Sphericity. There were coefficients higher than 0.30 in the visual control. And, the KMO value was 0.63 and the Barlett's test of Sphericity was significant χ^2 (6) = 199.971 p< .001 (p=.000). Besides, the determinant of

R-matrix value (0.34) was greater than 0.00001. After the rotation, while items 1 and 2 loaded only on factor 1 and item 3 only on factor 2, item 4 loaded both on factor 1 and on factor 2 with high values (See Appendix G).

According to Hair et al. (2009), there are four strategies to employ in this situation. These are using another rotation technique, ignoring the cross loading, deleting the variable, or decreasing the number of factors. In this respect, the researcher conducted the other rotation techniques (Quartimax and Equimax) would be helpful, but the results did not change. After assessing the importance of the content of item 4, which was not found to be crucial for the study, the researcher removed item 4 from the further analysis due to the cross loading of this factor on the other factor. Since item 3 could not be used to develop a scale, it was ignored in the following analyses. In conclusion, items 1 and 2 were tested for reliability by examining the Cronbach's alpha value, and the value (0.74) was well over the cut-off point for producing a reliable scale (Table 2).

Supervision Satisfaction

The results of the PCA for the supervision satisfaction items demonstrated that 4 items loaded on one factor. The PCA was conducted with orthogonal rotation (varimax) and eigenvalues greater than 1.0 with no rotation and explained 65% of the total variance. All of the communality values were greater than 0.40; hence, all the items were held for further analysis. The KMO value was 0.72 and the Barlett test value was significant χ^2 (6) = 351.006 p< .001 (p=0.000). The result of the determinant of R-matrix value (0.157) indicated no multicollinearity problem. Since the aforementioned tests indicated the adequacy for factor analysis, factor loadings were assessed on the loaded component. Factor loading values ranged from 0.64 through 0.89, and were well above the cut-off

point (0.40). For the purposes of reliability testing, the scale was examined for Cronbach's alpha values, which gave a result of 0.82.

Since measurement error is assumed to exist in multivariate techniques, it is important to reduce this; and by extension, increase the reliability (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). While developing summated scales is convenient for a study, the researcher should also assess reliability and validity in the study (Hair, 2009). First, reliability of the scales was tested by Cronbach's coefficient alpha values as represented in Table 5.2; and, by doing so, researcher obtained the highly reliable data.

Table 5.2: Cronbach's Alpha Values for Newly Created Variables (Composite Measures)

Index Variables	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Organizational Commitment	(2.4.5.6.7.8 and 9)	**0.85**
Procedural Justice	(1.2.3. and 4)	**0.66**
Awareness of Process Fairness	(5.6. and 7)	**0.65**
Distributive Justice	(1.2.3.4 and 5)	**0.77**
Perceived Organizational Support	(1 – 9 all items)	**0.92**
Job Satisfaction	(1 – 3 all items)	**0.79**
Work Family Conflict	(1. 2. and 4)	**0.74**
Organizational Politics	(2.3. and 4)	**0.81**
Supervision Satisfaction	(1.2.3. and 4)	**0.82**

Secondly, validity has two dimensions, which are content and construct validity. Content validity refers to the idea that "a good measure should include all the important dimensions of the construct" (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 107). To this end, the researcher aimed to deal with the content validity issue of the scales by using scales derived from the literature and conducting an adequate Principal Component Analysis

(PCA) on the scale's items. By doing so, the scales were designed to be appropriate for creating summated new variables for further analyses.

However sometimes a researcher requires alternative approaches for assessing construct validity such as by assessing convergent and discriminant validity. While convergent validity refers to "correlation of a variable with variables that we would expect to be related to", discriminant validity refers to nonexistence any relation of a variable "to other measures that it should have little or no logical connection with"(Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 111). In this respect, the construct validity was assessed by conducting PCA analysis because Straub et al., (2004) suggested that "construct validity (both discriminant and convergent) is established through the latent root criterion (eigenvalue) of above 1.0, loading of items at least 0.40, and no cross loading of items above 0.40" (p. 53).

In addition to the reliability and validity of scales, it is also important to know if summated scales have a normal distribution. In this context, the central limit theorem assumes that "when the number of cases in a sample is large, the sampling distribution will be approximately in normal shape"; therefore, researchers suggest that theorem is appropriate for sample sizes over 40 (Field, 2009), or even "in the field of criminal justice, it is generally assumed that the central limit theorem can be applied where the sample size 30 or greater" (Weisburd & Britt, 2007, p. 249).[10] Although this study is adequate for purposes of utilizing the central limit theorem, the researcher conducted Skewness and Kurtosis tests, which indicated the normal distribution of the data as well.

---

[10] However, De Vaus (2002) suggests that it is good to use samples over 100 for parametric tests.

5.4 Descriptive Statistics of Dependent and Independent Variables

This part of the study examines the perceptions of the respondents regarding the survey items; by describing these as descriptive statistics, to represent the general structure of the study. All scale items proposed to measure the different perceptions of respondents by utilizing five-point Likert-type scales consisting of various statements. The highest possible score for each statement was five (1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree). Each statement, including the reverse coded items, was described as written and scored in its respective original scales. In this phase, the researcher did not reverse the items to better interpret and secure the meaning of the participants' responses to each individual statement.

Finally, in order to calculate a total score for each variable (scale), the scores for all of the individual items (statements) of each scale were combined. For this purpose, the scores of the statements were reversed for items, so they were posed in the opposite way in terms of comparing their meanings to the other items in the respective scales. Therefore, after reversing the scores, respondents who scored Strongly Disagree =1 and Strongly Agree=5 for a reverse item in the survey, have now scored for Strongly Disagree=5 and Strongly Agree=1. Furthermore, the scale distribution (expected range) was divided into approximate thirds (low, mid, and high levels of attitudes) for categorization, a method which has been used by various researchers such as Zaichkowsky (1985), Snyder et al. (2002), Lawson (2012) in the social sciences. By doing so, the researcher aimed to better explain the respondents' attitudes toward their respective organizations by comparing the scale's means. In addition to this, although frequencies in the tables represent all possible agreement levels of the respondents, the

researcher generally interpreted the scores using the combinations of Agree (Agree with Strongly Agree) and Disagree (Disagree with Strongly Disagree) to foster better comparisons among the respondents.

Organizational Commitment

One of the main purposes of this study was to measure the peacekeepers' attitudes toward organizational commitment. The peacekeepers' attitude of organizational commitment was measured with an additive index of seven Likert-type questions, ranging from 1 through 5. The scores on the index ranged from 7 to 35 with a mean of 24.95 and a standard deviation of 5.07.

The findings in Table 5.3 indicate that almost two-thirds (69.8%) of participants perceive their IGOs as great organizations. Over half of respondents (50.6%) had values similar to their respective IGOs. Similarly, nearly two – thirds (70.4) of the participants were found to be proud to be part of their IGOs. More than three out four respondents were extremely glad to work in either the UN or the EU. And respondents overwhelmingly (78.3%) cared about the fate of their organizations, which they work for. However, comparing these findings to the other statements, only almost half of them found their IGOs as organizations inspired them to increase their job performance. Likewise, nearly one-thirds described their IGOs as the best possible option to work for. In general, most participants agreed or strongly agreed with the seven statements.

Next, the scores for the individual items were summarized and the scale distribution (expected range 5-35) was divided into approximate thirds and juxtaposed as low=5-15, mid=16-25, and high=26-35 levels of commitment in order to answer the first question, which sought to establish "the organizational commitment level among TNP

peacekeepers to their respective IGOs". Since this was designated as a Likert type scale, higher values meant that the TNP peacekeepers were more highly committed to their respective IGOs that they worked for. The mean score (24.95) indicated that the TNP peacekeepers had an upper mid- to high-level attitude towards organizational commitment within their IGOs. Overall, the results indicated that participants had favorable commitment attitudes toward their organizations.

Table 5.3: Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Commitment Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) /
2. I talk up the UN (EU) to my friends as a great organization to work for	4 (2.1%)	21 (11.%)	32 (16.9%)	93 (49.2%)	39 (20.6%)	3.75 .97
4. I find that my values and the UN (EU)'s values are very similar	11 (5.8%)	35 (18.4%)	48 (25.3%)	78 (41.1%)	18 (9.5%)	3.30 1.05
5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of the UN	2 (1.0%)	13 (6.8%)	40 (20.8%)	99 (51.6%)	38 (19.8%)	3.82 .86
6. The UN (EU) really inspires the very best in me	11 (5.7%)	41 (21.1%)	55 (28.4%)	70 (36.1%)	17 (8.8%)	3.21 1.05
7. I am extremely glad that I chose the UN (EU) to work	3 (1.5%)	11 (%5.7)	33 (17%)	99 (51%)	48 (24.7%)	3.92 .88
8. I really care about the fate of the UN (EU)	7 (3.6%)	13 (6.7%)	22 (11.3%)	92 (47.4%)	60 (30.9%)	3.95 1.0
9. For me, working at the UN (EU) is the best of all possible international organizations for which to work	16 (8.2%)	44 (22.7%)	70 (36.1%)	51 (26.3%)	13 (6.7%)	3.01 1.04
Organizational Commitment Scale	M=24.95 Range = 28 (7-35) SD=5.07					
	M=Mean, SD= Standard Deviation; R=Reversed item					

Procedural Justice

A Likert type index consisting of four items was utilized to measure procedural justice perceptions of respondents toward their IGOs. The possible scale distribution is for this four items index, ranging from 1 to 5, was 4-20. In conclusion, the scores on the index ranged from 4 to 20 with a mean of 12.63 and a standard deviation of 3.0.

Table 5.4 indicates that half of participants (50%) participants did not have a lot of knowledge about promotion procedures in their IGOs. On the other hand, over 60 percent of respondents (61.8) agreed or strongly agreed that they were informed about the chances in for promotion in the procedures. Similarly, almost half (47.7%) found the disciplinary actions to be fair in their workplaces. However, item 3 indicates that those who did not perceive it possible to change things in the IGOs (42.1%) were almost equal in number to those who felt it was possible (30.8%).

Table 5.4: Descriptive Statistics for Procedural Justice Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) /
1. I am not sure what determines how I can get a promotion in the UN (EU) (R)	10 (5.1%)	53 (27%)	35 (17.9%)	75 (38.3%)	23 (11.7%)	3.24 1.12
2. I am told promptly when there is a change in policy, rules, or regulations that affects me	10 (5.1%)	23 (11.7%)	42 (21.4%)	96 (49%)	25 (12.8%)	3.53 1.02
3. It's really not possible to change things around here	14 (7.2%)	68 (34.9%)	53 (27.2%)	44 (22.6%)	16 (8.2%)	2.90 1.08
4. In general, disciplinary actions taken in the UN (EU) are fair and justified	7 (3.6%)	43 (22.1%)	52 (26.7%)	79 (40.5%)	14 (7.2%)	3.26 0.99
Procedural Justice Scale	M=12.63 Range = 16 (4-20) SD=3.0					

In order to form a new variable of procedural justice, all of the scores of the four statements were combined after controlling for reverse coded items. Then, the distribution range (4-20) was divided into three approximate parts (4-9=Low, 10-15=Mid, 16-20=High). Higher values mean that peacekeepers had higher positive perceptions with respect to procedural justice in their IGOs. Therefore, the mean score (12.63) indicated that respondents had an almost average sense of the existence of procedural justice in their IGOs. In sum, their feelings of procedural justice in their organizations were partly ambivalent.

Awareness of Process Fairness

The construct of awareness of process fairness was measured using three additive items in response to a Likert type index. The measure aimed to report to what extent participants were aware of the processes and to what extent they considered the processes fair. The scores on the index ranged from 5 to 15 with a mean of 10.75 and a standard deviation of 2.17.

Table 5.5: Descriptive Statistics for Awareness of Process Fairness Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) / SD
5. I am not afraid to "blow the whistle" on things I find wrong with the UN (EU)	3 (1.5%)	23 (11.8%)	36 (18.5%)	103 (52.8%)	30 (15.4%)	3.69 .92
6. If I were subject to an involuntary personnel action, I believe the UN (EU) would adequately inform me of my grievance and appeal rights	4 (2.1%)	22 (11.3%)	37 (19.1%)	108 (55.7%)	23 (11.9%)	3.64 .90
7. I am aware of the specific steps I must take to have a personnel action taken against me reconsidered	7 (3.6%)	32 (16.4%)	44 (22.6%)	95 (48.7%)	17 (8.7%)	3.43 .98
Awareness for Process Fairness Scale			M=10.75 Range = 10 (5-15) SD=2.17			

As the findings in Table 5.5 indicate, more than two-thirds of participants (67.4%) were not afraid to raise their voices in case of an improper situation. In the case of the second statement, nearly 70 percent of respondents (67.6%) agreed that their organization would inform them of their rights in the case of an undesirable situation. Next, nearly 60 percent (57.4%) agreed that they were aware of how to ask their organizations to reevaluate any unfavorable situation that affected them.

Next, the scores for all three items were summarized to generate a total score for awareness of process fairness. Higher scores mean that the respondents believed that they had more rights to raise their voices up and knew their rights in case of an unfavorable situation. The distribution range was divided into thirds (3-6=low, 7-11=mid, and 12-15=high). The mean score (10.75), which fell into high mid-level range, indicates that respondents were quite aware of their appeal rights. Overall, they considered that their organizations offered a favorable environment to work in.

Distributive Justice

The measure of officer attitudes toward distributive justice consisted of five Likert-type statements. The lowest and highest possible score for each item was 1 to 5, indicating the agreement level with distributive justice statements, for a total of 25 points possible. The index ranged from 5 to 25 with a mean of 15.74 and a standard deviation of 3.74.

Table 5.6 indicates that two-thirds of subjects disagreed or strongly disagreed that their supervisor evaluated them according to items not related to the job (item 2). Although respondents' ratings dispersed almost equally within scores, almost half of them (46.4%) believed that promotions do not depend on the performance of employees

in their organizations (item 1). Similarly, participants' feelings were ambivalent about the possible influence of their job performance on promotion or demotion on their jobs. More than half of them (65.1% and 57.1%) did not expect any change in their job status as a result of their job performances (items 3 and 4). Quite contrary to these results, more than 60 percent (61.6) agreed or strongly agreed that their hard work would lead them to be known as good performers (item 5).

Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistics for Distributive Justice Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) /
1. Promotions here usually depend on how well a person performs on his/her job	29 (14.8%)	62 (31.6%)	58 (29.6%)	38 (19.4%)	9 (4.6%)	2.67 1.08
2. My supervisor evaluated my performance on things not related to my job (R)	20 (10.2%)	81 (41.3%)	58 (29.6%)	31 (15.8%)	6 (3.1%)	2.60 .97
3. I will be demoted or removed from my position if I perform my job poorly	14 (7.2%)	56 (28.7%)	57 (29.2%)	56 (28.7%)	12 (6.2%)	2.98 1.05
4. I will be promoted or given a better position if I perform especially well	13 (6.6%)	51 (26%)	48 (24.5%)	71 (36.2%)	13 (6.6%)	3.10 1.07
5. My own hard work will lead to recognition as a good performer	5 (2.6%)	22 (11.3%)	48 (24.6%)	91 (46.7%)	29 (14.9%)	3.60 .96
Distributive Justice Scale			M=15.74	Range = 20 (5-25) SD=3.74		

A combined score of distributive justice was calculated by summing the scores of all five statements after considering the scores of the reverse items. Next, the scale distribution was categorized as 5-11=low, 12-18=mid, and 19-25=high levels of sense of distributive justice. Higher values demonstrated a strong perception of distributive justice among respondents. The mean score (15.74) revealed that peacekeepers had a mid-level perception of distributive justice within their IGOs. As demonstrated in the statements,

although they agreed that their good performance was recognized in the organization, they believed that it was highly possible their work status would not be changed during their deployment.

Perceived Organizational Support

The peacekeeper's perception of organizational support was measured with a 9 item Likert type additive index. These statements were employed to measure the extent to which TNP officers working in peacekeeping missions believed that their respective IGOs supported them. The minimum and maximum of the possible total scores were 9 and 45. The index ranged from 9 to 45 with a mean of 29.24 and a standard deviation of 6.98.

The results presented in Table 5.7 indicated that almost half of the respondents (45.9%) agreed that their respective IGOs were considerate of their goals and values. Likewise, more than half of them believed that help was available if they needed help, and almost half of them (49.5%) considered that their respective IGOs cared about their well-being. And, nearly half (45.1%) agreed that the UN or the EU was willing to help improve their performance abilities. Similarly, almost half believed that their respective IGOs cared about general satisfaction at work (43.2%) and their opinions (44.4.%), and took pride in their work accomplishments (41.4%). However, contrary to these results, they believed that their assigned IGOs showed very little concern for them (item 7-27.3%). More interestingly, less than quarter of the respondents (19.3%) agreed that the UN or EU would fail to notice, even if they did the best job possible.

Table 5.7: Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Organizational Support Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) / SD
1. The UN (EU) strongly considers my goals and values	13 (6.7%)	34 (17.5%)	58 (29.9%)	79 (40.7%)	10 (5.2%)	3.2 1.01
2. Help is available from the UN (EU) when I have a problem	9 (4.7%)	17 (8.8%)	60 (31.1%)	96 (49.7%)	11 (5.7%)	3.43 .90
3. The UN (EU) really cares about my well being	6 (3.1%)	31 (16%)	61 (31.4%)	81 (41.8%)	15 (7.7%)	3.35 .94
4. The UN (EU) is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability performance	12 (6.2%)	39 (20%)	56 (28.7%)	72 (36.9%)	16 (8.2%)	3.21 1.0
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the UN (EU) would	18 (9.4%)	90 (46.9%)	47 (24.5%)	29 (15.1%)	8 (4.2%)	2.58 .99
6. The UN (EU) cares about my general satisfaction at work	8 (4.2%)	47 (24.5%)	54 (28.1%)	76 (39.6%)	7 (3.6%)	3.14 .96
7. The UN (EU) shows very little concern for me (R)	11 (5.8%)	72 (37.7%)	56 (29.3%)	41 (21.5%)	11 (5.8%)	2.84 1.01
8. The UN (EU) cares about my opinions	9 (4.6%)	34 (34.5%)	65 (33.5%)	75 (38.7%)	11 (5.7%)	3.23 .96
9. The UN (EU) takes pride in my accomplishments at work	9 (4.6%)	36 (18.5%)	69 (35.4%)	72 (36.9%)	9 (4.6%)	3.18 .94
Perceived Organizational Support Scale M=29.24 Range = 36 (9-45) SD=6.98						

Finally, the nine statements were combined to yield a total score of perceived organizational support after considering the reverse coded items. Higher values indicated that respondents sensed higher level of organizational support from their organizations. Then, the scale distribution organizational support scores assigned were, 9-20=low, 21-33=mid, and 34-45=high levels of sense of organizational support. The mean score (29.24) indicated that TNP peacekeepers had a mid-level sense of organizational support within their organizations. In general, they believed that IGOs valued and cared about

them mostly on things related to work, and ignored their personal situations during the deployment.

Job Satisfaction

The respondents' perception of job satisfaction was measured with an additive index of three Likert-type survey items. This index was used to measure the extent to which participants had favorable attitudes toward their jobs. The ratings on the index ranged from 3 to 15 (three items for a maximum point score of 5 each) with a mean of 11.82 and a standard deviation of 2.06.

In Table 5.8, the distribution of frequencies of statements (for items 1, 2, 3) indicates that overwhelmingly, on average, three out of four respondents were satisfied with their jobs in their organizations (with rates of 83.5%, 73.7%, 82.5%, respectively).

Table 5.8: Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) /
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job in the UN (EU)	1 (.5%)	8 (.41%)	23 (11.9%)	124 (63.9%)	38 (19.6%)	3.98 .72
2. In general, I don't like my job in the UN (EU) (R)	38 (19.6%)	105 (54.1%)	32 (16.5%)	14 (7.2%)	5 (2.6%)	2.19 .92
3. In general, I like working in the UN (EU)	2 (1.%)	6 (3.1%)	26 (13.4%)	109 (56.2%)	51 (26.3%)	4.04 .78
Job Satisfaction Scale		M=11.82 Range = 12 (3-15) SD=2.06				

Summarizing the three items generated a total score of job satisfaction after controlling for the reverse item. High values indicated that participants were somewhat satisfied with their jobs in the IGOs. When the scale distribution was divided into approximate thirds (3-6=low, 7-11=mid, and 12-15=high), the mean score (11.82) indicated that officers generally had a lower high-level sense of job satisfaction in their

organizations. Although the results may not indicate very strong satisfaction, they demonstrate the existence of respondents having quite high satisfaction with their organizations.

Organizational Politics

A Likert type index with three items was used to measure the respondents' perception of organizational politics. The index measured the peacekeepers' perception of the extent to which their respective organizations were political in nature. The ratings on the index ranged from 3 to 15 with a mean of 9.81 and a standard deviation of 2.61.

As demonstrated in Table 5.9, most of the respondents (83.6%) did not agree with the statement that opportunities and promotions come only to those who work hard in their organizations. Similarly, more than half (68%) agreed or did not indicate their disagreement with the statement that policies might be changed for the benefits of some individuals rather than the organization. Furthermore, respondents also did not show their disagreement with the last statement, indicating an inconsistency of promotion decisions within existing organizational policies. These results also showed similar patterns to the results observed for the aforementioned scales.

As before answers for all three statements were added to form a total score for organizational politics after controlling for reverse items. Higher values indicated that respondents had strong feelings regarding the influence of politics on their organizations. After dividing the range into three approximate parts (3-6=low, 7-11=mid, and 12-15=high), the mean score (9.81) indicated that respondents had higher mid-level feelings concerning the influence of organizational politics in their respective organizations.

Therefore, these results indicated that according to participants, politics have important influence in the operations and nature of IGOs.

Table 5.9: Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Politics Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) /
2. Opportunities and promotions come only to those who work hard in the UN (EU) (R)	32 (16.4%)	78 (40%)	53 (27.2%)	29 (14.9%)	3 (1.5%)	2.45 .98
3. I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of a few individuals, not the work unit or the organization	9 (4.6%)	53 (27.3%)	71 (36.6%)	47 (24.2%)	14 (7.2%)	3.02 .99
4. Promotion decisions are not consistent with existing	4 (2.1%)	53 (27.5%)	58 (30.1%)	53 (27.5%))	25 (13%)	3.22 1.05
Organizational Politics Scale			M = 9.81 Range = 12 (3-15) SD=2.61			

Work-Family Conflict

Participants' perception of work family conflict was measured with a two items Likert type index. This index measured the extent to which officers' personal life demands interfere with their work responsibilities while they were on duty. The scores on the index ranged from 2 to 8 (possible range is 2-10 for two items for a maximum point score of 5 each) with a mean of 4.03 and a standard deviation of 1.31.

The frequencies shown in Table 5.10 demonstrated that overwhelmingly, respondents disagreed with the statement that they were often too tired at work because of the things they had to deal with their families (77.4%). Likewise, in the second statement, overwhelmingly (86.7%), participants disagreed that their personal demands regarding their families interfered with their work responsibilities.

A total score of work family influences was produced after summarizing the two items. Higher values indicated that respondents had strong work family conflicts when they were at work. The distribution was divided into approximate thirds (2-4, 5-7, and 8-10). The mean score (4.03) indicated that participants have higher low levels of work family conflict in their organizations. These low scores indicated that officers did not have too much family conflict that can interfere with their work responsibilities. Since they knew that these job assignments were non-family positions, they might have taken into account possible problems before coming to their mission workplaces. In addition to this, the cultural bias of respondents might have hindered to any revelation of the problems related to their families, which was also discussed in the qualitative section of this chapter.

Table 5.10: Descriptive Statistics for Work-Family Conflict Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) / SD
1. I'm often too tired at work in the UN (EU) because of the things I have to deal at my family	32 (16.4%)	119 (61%)	27 (13.8%)	16 (8.2%)	1 (.5%)	2.15 .81
2. My personal demands regarding my family life are so great that it takes away from my work at the UN (EU)	53 (27.2%)	116 (59.5%)	24 (12.3%)	2 (1%)	-	1.87 .64
Work Family Conflict Scale	M=4.03 Range = 6 (2-8) SD=1.31					

Supervision Satisfaction

Participants' perception of supervision satisfaction was measured with an additive index of four Likert-type items. This questionnaire aimed to measure the extent to which

officers were satisfied with their supervisors in their organizations. The scores on the index ranged from 6 to 20 with a mean of 13.84 and a standard deviation of 2.97.

The results in Table 5.11 show that over half (52.1%) found their supervisors quite competent in doing their jobs. In regards to the second statement, nearly two thirds of them (61.4% and 55.9% respectively) disagree that their supervisors were unfair to them and their supervisors did not show interest in the feelings of subordinates. However, in regards to the last statement, the outcome was almost evenly split between those that liked his/her supervisor (48.9%) and those that did not like or had ambivalent feelings about his/her supervisor.

Table 5.11: Descriptive Statistics for Supervision Satisfaction Items

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Rating Average Score (M) / SD
1. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job	7 (3.6%)	28 (14.4%)	58 (29.9%)	90 (46.4%)	11 (5.7%)	3.36 .92
2. My supervisor is unfair to me (R)	25 (12.9%)	94 (48.5%)	45 (23.2%)	28 (14.4%)	2 (1%)	2.42 .92
3. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates (R)	23 (11.8%)	86 (44.1%)	54 (27.7%)	29 (14.8%)	3 (1.5%)	2.5 .93
4. I like my supervisor	4 (2.1%)	26 (13.4%)	69 (35.6%)	80 (41.2%)	15 (7.7%)	3.39 .88
Supervision Satisfaction Scale	M = 13.84		Range = 14 (6-20) SD=2.97			

After checking for reverse coded items, and to calculate a total score of supervision satisfaction, all four items were added. Next, the distribution range was separated into three approximate parts (4-9=Low, 10-15=Mid, 16-20=High). Higher scores indicated that respondents had feelings of strong satisfaction with their supervisors. The mean score (13.84) fell into the score range for higher mid-level satisfaction. Overall, the results indicated that participants were satisfied with their

supervisors. It also seems fair to mention that personal level relations might be more dominant in the development of these feelings than organizational level relations, which might cause satisfaction with the supervisor.

5.5 Independent Samples T- test and One – Way ANOVA

In terms of the conceptual framework of equity, this study did not explore the possible influence of demographics and background characteristics on the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers; however, the extant literature on commitment suggests that employee demographic characteristics and work experiences might influence commitment attitudes of individuals toward their organizations (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Luthans, Taylor, & Baack, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Taking into consideration the possible effects of demographics, the researcher conducted an independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA statistical techniques to seek out how the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers differed by demographics. More to the point, an independent samples t-test was conducted to examine the research question of whether officers' commitment attitudes differed toward their respective organizations according to type of IGO (UN vs. EU), or not.

These statistical procedures were utilized to examine differences between groups (Field, 2009) and compare "the means of a dependent variables across categories"(Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 307). However, whereas the independent samples t-test is used to test the difference of two means, ANOVA permits a comparison of more than two means on a single dependent variable (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2009) [11].

---

[11] As for all parametric test, both of them (Anova and independent samples t-test) assume normal distribution of population and interval level data for dependent variable. According to Walker and Maddan (2009); Gosset (1943) developed t-test for sample sizes of less than 120; on the other hand, although it is

Although some of the analytic tests were not statistically significant, it is important to include non-significant results in a study as well. If a test is statistically significant, it does not mean, considering their magnitude of the effect, that it has any practical significance. Similar to this, "the lack of statistical significance does not necessarily mean that there is no practically significant difference"(Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 279).

Overall, the t-test was utilized to determine if the demographic variables (type of IGO mission (UN vs. EU), marital status, current position (supervisor vs. officers), rank in home country (Ranked vs. Non-ranked), degree of extension will (Extension vs. No extension), frequency of service at UN/EU missions (Experienced vs. Non-experienced)) would have a differential impact on organizational commitment. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess the differences in means from more than two groups (age groups, education level, duty in the mission, service length, the continent of the mission).

An independent samples t-test was conducted to answer the research question "Do officers' commitment attitudes differ toward their respective organizations by type of IGO (UN vs. EU)?". Before performing the t-test, it is important to know the homogeneity of variance by utilizing Levene's test.[12] The result of Levene's test (0.731, greater than 0.05) was non-significant; hence we failed to reject the null hypothesis, which suggested that the variances were equal and the assumption was deemed

possible to utilize t-test for only a sample size of 2, it is good to be more cautious for samples lower than 30 for robust interpretations. Therefore, Kachigan (1986) finds sample size of only 30 in order to be sure for normality assumption of central limit theorem. However, De Vaus (2002) suggests that sample size of 100 or more is appropriate for parametric statistics.

[12] Homogeneity of variance is one of the assumptions of parametric tests, which hypothesis that the variances are equal in the samples. If the variances are not equal, it is good to take into consideration t-test. "If Levene's test is significant at $p \leq .05$ then we can conclude that the null hypothesis is incorrect and that the variances are significantly different", which results in the violation of homogeneity of variances assumption (Field 2009, pg. 340).

acceptable. After controlling for Levene's test, the t-test indicated that the UN peacekeepers (M=25.39, SE=0.40) represented a group with higher commitment levels than the EU peacekeepers (M=23.22, SE=0.84). This difference was significant, t (183)=2.35, p=0.02 (at p<. 05 level, two-tailed), among the TNP peacekeepers working for either the UN or the EU; and the magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 2.16, 95% CI: .35 to 3.98) represented a small size effect, which was calculated as eta squared (n^2), (r=17).[13] Since the test was significant, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis, which stated, "There is no significant difference between officers in EU missions and those in UN missions in terms of commitment attitudes toward their respective organizations". And therefore, the researcher accepted the alternative hypothesis, which stated that there is a significant difference among TNP peacekeepers in terms of their commitment attitudes toward their respective organizations, working for either the UN or the EU (see Table 5.12).

Another independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the commitment scores for supervisor vs. not supervisor (position in the mission). Having a position in an organization might have an influence on the commitment attitudes of employees. Levene's test (0.473, greater than 0.05) was not significant; therefore, the variances were deemed equal. Participants in the supervision position (Mean=26.17 SE=0.68) demonstrated greater commitment than those who were not supervisors (M=24.53, SE=0.44). On the other hand, the t-test results (p=0.057, albeit significant) is also not significant t (182) = 1.91, p>0.5 (two tailed), so there was no statistically significant difference among respondents in different positions in terms of their commitment

---

[13] In spite of having a significant value for t-test, it does not mean that the effect is important for practical use. In order to examine if the effect is important, researcher calculated effect size (r) (Field 2005, pg. 332).

attitudes (see Table 5.12). However, the results yielded a small size effect (r =. 13, mean difference = 1.63, 95% CI: -.47 to 3.3).

In order to examine the effect of marital status, and by extension, a possible effect of work family conflict among married respondents, married respondents and single and others (divorced, separated etc.) respondents were compared by conducting a following independent samples t-test. Levene's result (0.89) was not significant and the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and conducted a t-test (see Table 12). Overall, interestingly, married respondents (M=25.13, SE=0.42) had a slightly higher commitment compared to non-married participants (M=24.55, SE=0.76). However, this difference was not significant difference t (181) = -.629, p=0.53 (two tailed); moreover, it showed a very small size effect, r=0.04 (mean difference = .58, 95% CI: -2.39 to 1.23).

The mean response to commitment was compared to in terms of the subject's extension situation. Since subjects chose to apply for an extension through their own personal decisions, and were willing to apply for an extension, it was thought this might also show respondent's willingness to continue to work for the IGO. Levene's test was performed to examine variances, showed equal variances (p=0.667). However, there was no statistically difference in the scores of officers who were willing to obtain an extension and those who were not (t (180)=0.567, p>0.05, two tailed) with a very small size effect (r=0.04, mean difference = .50, 95% CI: -1.25 to 2.27). Although the test was not significant, participants who demanded an extension (M=25.06, SE=0.44) showed greater commitment toward their organizations than non-willing participants (M=24.56, SE=0.73) (See Table 12).

Table 5.12. Independent Samples t-test results and Summary Statistics of Commitment
Scale with Demographic Variables

Variable	Variance	Categories	N	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
IGO	Equal Variances Assumed	UN	148	25.39	.409	.731	2.355	.020
		EU	37	23.22	.846			
Position in IGO	Equal Variances Assumed	Supervisor	47	26.17	.680	.473	1.919	.057
		Not Supervisor	137	24.53	.442			
Marital Status	Equal Variances Assumed	Married	145	25.13	.426	.890	-.629	.530
		Single and etc.	38	24.55	.764			
Extension Status	Equal Variances Assumed	Extension=Yes	139	25.06	.442	.667	.567	.572
		Extension=No	43	24.56	.735			
Rank in Home Country	Equal Variances Assumed	Non-rank	47	25.70	.777	.716	1.21	.224
		Ranked	136	24.65	.428			
Mission Experience	Equal Variances Not Assumed	Experienced	97	25.74	.434	157.501	2.218	.028
		Inexperienced	87	24.07	.617			

Non-ranked officers were compared to ranked officers by performing an independent samples t-test. The test was conducted to see if non-ranked officers had a higher commitment level towards their respective IGOs than ranked officers. Because, the IGOs missions are non-rank duties, although a non-rank officer does not have too much opportunity to climb the career ladders in his/her home country, he or she may have many other opportunities in IGO missions in terms of developing his/her career. Levene's test was not significant (p=0.716) and the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis for equal variances. On average, non-ranked respondents with a mean=25.70 and

SE=0.77 had higher commitment attitudes compared to ranked officers with a mean=24.65 and SE=0.42 (see Table 5.12). However, the test was not significant t (181)=1.21, p=0.22 (two-tailed) with an r score 0.09 (Mean Difference=1.04, 95% CI: -.64 to 2.74).

An independent samples t-test was performed to examine the mean attitude of commitment as a result of experience in previous missions (frequency of service). It was thought officers who had previously worked in the other IGO missions might show different commitment attitudes because when they come to their respective current missions, they have quiet a lot of information about the IGOs that they work for. Moreover, while first comers might have various reasons for joining the missions such as even adventure, experienced officers might perceive the IGO deployments as providing a better opportunity that they can not find in their home countries. Levene's test (p=0.012) was significant at the p≤ .05 levels, and then it was thus appropriate to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the variances were significantly different. Field (2009) suggests that if Levene's test is significant, the researcher should control the test statistics and apply the data for "Equal Variances not assumed".[14] When the researcher checked for this test, the p value was significant t (157.501)=2.21, p=0.02 (two-tailed), less than p≤ .05. Experienced respondents (Mean=25.74, SE=0.43) had higher commitment levels than inexperienced participants (Mean=24.07, SE=0.61), who joined to work for IGOs for the first time (See Tables 5.12). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference=1.67, 95% CI: .18 to 3.16) was small (r=0.17). In conclusion, there was a

---

[14] Meier et al., 2006 also suggest that it is less likely than the other two t-tests to reject the null hypothesis with t-test assuming independent samples with unequal variances. While a test that makes it harder to reject the null hypothesis might seem like a disadvantage, a more rigorous standard makes the occurunce of Type I errors less likely (pg.223)

significant difference in the means of commitment scores between respondents who were experienced and those who were not.

Those demographic variables, which were constituted by more than two groups and could not be tested with a t-test, were identified in order to explore their possible impacts on commitment by using ANOVA. A one – way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effects of age groups, education level, duty in the mission, service length, and the continent of the mission on the commitment attitudes of the respondents.

The ANOVA has assumptions similar to the other parametric tests. For this purpose, first, Levene's test was conducted to test the assumption of homogeneity of variances. If the test was not significant for the tested independent variable, the null hypothesis, which assumes that the variances of the groups are the same, was failed to reject.[15] After that, a one-way ANOVA test was performed to explore the influence of each variable. If the one-way ANOVA was found non significant, it was concluded that there was no influence of the independent variable categories on commitment at the $p<0.05$ level. [16] However, if it was significant, a *post hoc* test was conducted to compare

---

[15] If the Levene's test is not significant (the value of Sig. is larger than .05); then, the assumption of equal homogeneity of variances is tenable. However, if it is significant, some researchers suggest the researcher reconsider conducting the ANOVA analyis or transforming the values (Howell 2002, Walker & Maddan 2009). According to Field (2009), if it is significant, it is important to carry out an alternative F-ratio such as Brown-Forsythe or Welch and post hoc test such as Games-Howell procedure. Overall, it is important to take into account the assumption of homogeneity of variance in any research; on the other hand, Levene's test results are rarely taken into consideration by researchers, which might bias the results (Field, 2009, p. 308-362).

[16] The null hypothesis for ANOVA is that the mean of the dependent variable is the same for all groups. When the test is not significant, it means that there are no differences among the group means. However, the alternative hypothesis is that the average is not the same for all groups. A significant F test means that the null hypothesis is rejected; hence, the population means are not equal.

all different combinations of the independent variable categories.[17] Eta Square was calculated to measure the effect size. [18]

Subjects were divided into five groups according to their age (Group 1: 25-30 yrs.; Group 2: 31 to 35 yrs.; Group 3: 36 -40 Group 4: 41 -45 yrs.; Group 5: 46 yrs. and above). Levene's test was conducted for the first analysis to test age groups, resulted in a non-significant result (p=0.327, greater than .05). Next, a one-way ANOVA test was performed. The test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference at the p<. 05 level in organizational commitment scores for the five age groups [F (4, 179) = 1.53, p = 0.19].

For the second test, subjects were divided into four groups according to their education level (Group 1: High School; Group 2: Associate Degree; Group 3: Bachelor's Degree Group 4: Graduate Degree). Levene's test was significant (p=. 035); hence, instead of an ANOVA table, the Robust Test of Equality of Means table was used to control for the further testing needed. Both Welch (p=0.965) and Brown and Forsthe (p=0.939) results in this table was not significant. Therefore, the results reflected the fact that there was no statistically significant difference at the p<. 05 level in organizational commitment scores for the four education groups [F (2, 32) = 0.35, p = 0.96].

In a following test, a one-way between groups ANOVA was performed to examine the impact of the duty in the mission on commitment. Subjects were divided into

---

[17] If the null hypothesis is rejected, in other words, if the test is significant, it means that at least two groups are different from each other. However, we do not know which of the groups differ. In order to determine which groups differ, post-hoc tests are performed to reveal which groups differ by utilizing some form of correction such as the Scheffe, Tukey's, Hochberg's GT2, or Games-Howell correction.

[18] Eta squared is used to determine the effect size for ANOVA. It determines whether our effect is substantive or not. Eta squared is calculated by dividing the sum of squares between (SSb) by the total sum of squares (SSt), and it explains the proportion of variance explained in ANOVA.

three groups of duty assignments in the mission (Group 1: Office/Administrative; Group 2: Patrol/Police Station; Group 3: Field/Operational). Levene's test was not significant (p=. 746) and the test failed to reject the null hypothesis; therefore, the variances of the groups were considered to be the same. After that, a one-way ANOVA test was utilized to compare the means. The test showed that there was no statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in organizational commitment score for the three duties in the mission categories [F (2, 181) = 0.118, p = 0.88].

Table 5.13. One-Way ANOVA of tested Demographic Variables

Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	156.636	4	39.159	1.532	.095
	Within Groups	4575.924	179	25.564		
	Total	4732.560	183			
Education	Between Groups	1.589	2	.795	0.35	.965
	Within Groups	4.730.971	181	26.138		
	Total	4732.560	183			
Duty type in the mission	Between Groups	6.184	2	3.092	.118	.888
	Within Groups	4726.375	181	26.113		
	Total	4732.560	183			
Service Length	Between Groups	283.002	2	141.501	5.56	.005*
	Within Groups	4449.558	181	24.583		
	Total	4732.560	183			
Continent of the mission	Between Groups	501.634	4	125.408	5.487	.000*
	Within Groups	3953.344	173	22.857		
	Total	4455.978	177			

The following test was conducted on the influence of service length categories on organizational commitment. Subjects were divided into three groups according to their service length in the mission (Group 1: 0-6 months; Group 2: 7-12 months; Group 3: 13 months or more). Levene's test was significant (p=.045, less than .05, albeit non-

significant), and then the researcher hence concluded that the variances were significantly different. Therefore, Welch (p=0.965) and Brown and Forsthe (p=0.939) results in Robust Test of Equality of Means table were controlled for to examine significance. Both of these test were found to be significant at the values (p=.005) and (p=.004), respectively.[19] Following the control for F values, a post hoc test with a Games-Howell procedure was performed to examine which groups differed.[20] A post-hoc test utilizing the Games-Howell procedure indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 26.31, SD = 3.87) was significantly different from Group 2 (M = 23.13, SD = 5.78). However, Group 3 (M = 25.24, SD = 5.03) did not differ significantly from either Group 1 or 2. In spite of demonstrating statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small, albeit moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .28, indicating this predicted 28% of the variability on commitment. In conclusion, these results suggest that peacekeepers that have worked less than 6 months in the mission are more committed than those who have worked in the mission for 7 to 12 months [F (2, 112) = 5.56, p = 0.005].

Table 5.14. Descriptive Statistics for Service Length

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
6 months or less	55	26.31	3.872	.522
7 – 12 months	53	23.13	5.785	.795
13 months or more	76	25.24	5.033	.577
Total	184	24.95	5.085	.375

---

[19] Field (2009) suggested that Welch's F is better for compared to Brown-Forsythe's F unless you have an extreme mean that is also causing the problem with the variances (pg.350). Although this study reported both of the F values, the researcher also preferred to use Welch's F.

[20] The Games-Howell procedure was selected because there is a possible homogeneity of variance problem (Field, 2009, p.357).

Table 5.15. Games-Howell test of Multiple Comparisons of Means: Service Length

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
6 months or less	55	26.31	3.872	.522
7 – 12 months	53	23.13	5.785	.795
13 months or more	76	25.24	5.033	.577
Total	184	24.95	5.085	.375

Another ANOVA test was conducted to examine the impact of the continent categories on organizational commitment. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their service location of the mission in the continent (Group 1: Europe; Group 2: Asia and Pacific; Group 3: Americas; Group 4: West Africa; Group 5: East Africa).[21] Levene's test value was .297, which was non-significant (greater than .05); hence, the variances were equal for the test.

Table 5.16. Descriptive Statistics for Continents of Missions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Europe	39	23.59	5.280	.845
Asia-Pacific	14	28.50	3.716	.993
Americas	21	25.14	5.534	1.208
West Africa	48	26.73	3.813	.550
East Africa	56	23.61	5.080	.679
Total	178	25.01	5.017	.376

Next, the researcher controlled the ANOVA table, which indicated that there was a significant (p=.000) difference at p<.05 level in organizational commitment scores for the five continent categories [F (4, 177) = 5.48, p = .000]. In order to examine, which groups differed, a *post hoc* test was performed. Since the sample sizes were not equal, Hochberg's GT2 test was selected for the *post* hoc analysis (Field, 2009, p. 357).

[21] Africa was divided into two parts considering the sample and geographic size.

Table 5.17. Hochberg test of Multiple Comparisons of Means: Continent of
Missions

(I) Mission Continents	(J) Mission Continents	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Europe	Asia-Pacific	-4.910*	1.490	.012
	Americas	-1.553	1.294	.925
	West Africa	-3.139*	1.031	.026
	East Africa	-.017	.997	1.000
Asia -Pacific	Europe	4.910*	1.490	.012
	Americas	3.357	1.650	.354
	West Africa	1.771	1.452	.918
	East Africa	4.893*	1.429	.008
Americas	Europe	1.553	1.294	.925
	Asia	-3.357	1.650	.354
	West Africa	-1.586	1.251	.897
	East Africa	1.536	1.223	.903
West Africa	Europe	3.139*	1.031	.026
	Asia-Pacific	-1.771	1.452	.918
	Americas	1.586	1.251	.897
	East Africa	3.122*	.940	.011
East Africa	Europe	.017	.997	1.000
	Asia-Pacific	-4.893*	1.429	.008
	Americas	-1.536	1.223	.903
	West Africa	-3.122*	.940	.011

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Post –hoc comparisons using Hochberg's GT2 test demonstrated that the mean score for the Asian and Pacific (M = 28.50, SD = 3.71) was significantly different from Europe (M = 23.59, SD = 5.28) and East Africa (M = 23.61, SD = 5.08). However, it did not differ significantly from either West Africa or the Americas. The test also indicated that the mean score for West Africa (M = 26.73, SD = 3.81) was significantly different from Europe (M = 23.59, SD = 5.28) and East Africa (M = 23.61, SD = 5.08). However, it did not differ significantly from either Asia-Pacific or the Americas. In addition to

reaching statistical significance, the size of the effect was moderate and the continent location of the mission predicted 33% of the variability on commitment (eta squared=0.335). In conclusion, the findings of the ANOVA test imply that the continent of mission (service) location impacted the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers.

5.6 Bivariate Analyses

The Pearson's r[22] is a versatile analysis approach that measures the degree of the linear relationships between two quantitative variables.[23] Pearson's r-values range from -1.00 to +1.00[24] and in this analysis, 0 indicates there is no relationship between the variables (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). As the value become closer to either − 1.00 or 1.00, this means that there is a perfect negative or positive association, in other words perfect correlation coefficient, between the variables. In this context, the analyses using the correlation coefficient analysis helped the researcher to explore the hypotheses generated at the bivariate level; and furthermore, to identify any possible multicollinearity problem.

---

[22] It is formally known as Pearsonian product-moment correlation coefficient.

[23] In order to test the correlation coefficient between two quantitative variables, Brace et al.(2006) suggest that the study should consist of at least 100 participants. However, Warner (2008) argues that "because of sampling error, it is not realistic to expect sample correlations to be a good indication of the strength of the relationship between variables in samples smaller than N=30" (p.269). In either argument, this study is not affected by the risk that the size of correlation can be impacted by one or two extreme scores.

[24] Social scientists acknowledge that a value below .05 is significant. However, the significance value is not very important, because the correlation coefficient is used to measure the effect size. At significant levels, these values of ±.1 represent a small effect, ±.3 is a moderate effect and ±.5 is large effect (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 262; Field, 2009, p. 111&140).

In order to conduct bivariate and multivariate analyses, it is important to have all the variables in the form of parametric data.[25] Therefore, all the variables were transformed to dummy variables (0 vs. 1), except for interval level variables. The transformed variables were as follows: for IGOs, EU=0 vs. UN=1; for gender, 0=Male 1=Female; for marital status, 0=Single and others 1=Married; for education, 0=Graduate 1=Others (BA, AA, and High School); for position, 0=Not Supervisor 1=Supervisor; for extension, 0=No extension 1=Extension; for experience, 0=No Experience 1= Experience; for type of duty, 0=Operational 1=Others (Office & Station); and for continents, 0=Others 1=West Africa, East Africa, Asia and Pacific's, Americas, and Europe (five variables).

Although this study mainly explores organizational commitment and its relationships with the other possible effecting (independent) variables, the relationships between all variables were also represented to provide more information for further analyses. The test results (* p<. 05 & ** p<. 01 (2-tailed))[26] are demonstrated in the Table 5.18.

The results in Table 5.18 demonstrate that organizational commitment was significantly correlated with all of the independent variables except for work-family

---

[25] Although strict measurement theory requires scores for all variables to be interval/ratio level of measurement, in practice, Pearson r is used to examine categorical variables with just two possible values (Warner, 2009, p. 262). In accordance with this argument, Pearson correlations were applied to scores obtained using 5-point Likert type rating scales considering they had a normal distribution. The demographic variables of age, rank and duration in the mission were considered as continuous variables and were not transformed to dummy variable (Nardi, 2006, p.204). However, the other nominal variables were transformed to categorical variables for purposes of bivariate and multivariate analysis.

[26] According to Field (2009, p.125); if the hypotheses have a specific direction, there should be used a one – tailed test. On the other hand, the demographics were not hypothesized in the context of equity theory in this study. Moreover, multivariate statistics are the main procedures to test the hypothesis; thus, a two-tailed analysis, which is stricter was conducted for the bivariate analysis. Although Pearson's r test demonstrated associations at the bivariate level, the hypotheses were tested according to the results of multivariate analysis.

conflict in the model proposed in this study. The organizational commitment attitude of the TNP peacekeepers was significantly associated with procedural justice, r = .60; awareness of process fairness, r =. 43; distributive justice, r = .61; POS, r = .67; Job Satisfaction, r = .58; organizational politics, r = -.56; and supervision satisfaction r = .26 (all *ps* <. 01) perception of the TNP peacekeepers. Among these significant correlations, all of the variables except for organizational politics, which had a negative relationship, had a positive relationship with organizational commitment. These results indicate that as the perception of organizational politics decreases and all of the other significant variables of the proposed model increase, organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers increase. However, interestingly, although work-family conflict had a negative relationship, but was non-significantly associated with organizational commitment, r = -.11 (small effect), and it had significant and low effect size relationships with procedural justice, r = -.22; distributive justice, r = -.20; and job satisfaction, r = -.19. However, this relationship is also examined in the next section, after applying multiple regression methods.

The relationships with demographics showed varied results. The type of IGO was significantly related to organizational commitment r= .17, p<. 05. This result revealed that the TNP peacekeepers working for the UN were slightly more likely to be committed to their respective organizations compared to those working for the EU. However, the demographic variables, age, marital status, education, rank, position, service length, extension, type of duty were not significant in the bivariate analysis.

Table 5.18. Bivariate Correlations among all Variables (N=196)

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.
1. Organizational Commitment	1																								
2. Procedural Justice	.603**	1																							
3. Aw. Of Process Fairness	.432**	.450**	1																						
4. Distributive Justice	.615**	.617**	.546**	1																					
5. POS	.673**	.621**	.585**	.724**	1																				
6. Job Satisfaction	.581**	.454**	.428**	.549**	.598**	1																			
7. Work-Family Conflict	-.114	-.221**	-.073	-.201**	-.080	-.197**	1																		
8. Organizational Politics	-.563**	-.670**	-.388**	-.711**	-.652**	-.450**	.148*	1																	
9. Supervision Satisfaction	.267**	.394**	.435**	.523**	.473**	.364**	-.179*	-.396**	1																
10. IGO (EU vs. UN)	.172*	.044	-.043	-.063	-.002	-.124	.125	.030	-.134	1															
11. Age	-.047	-.080	-.010	-.091	-.047	-.080	.116	.051	-.100	.128	1														
12. Gender	.163*	-.174*	.129	.126	-.176*	.140	-.185*	-.154*	.133	.134	.164*	1													
13. Marital Status	.047	.022	.007	-.118	-.091	-.139	.040	.020	-.077	.063	.431**	.251*	1												
14. Education	-.018	-.054	-.037	-.004	.034	-.054	-.045	-.020	-.016	.150*	.071	.142*	-.031	1											
15. Rank	-.070	-.019	-.083	-.133	-.094	-.143*	.101	.068	-.083	.124	.354**	-.196*	.368**	-.253*	1										
16. Position	.141	.121	.039	-.144*	-.149*	.130	.043	-.096	-.019	.073	.179*	-.001	.018	-.152*	.181*	1									
17. Service Length	-.068	.080	-.019	.087	-.031	.104	-.040	-.036	.114	-.190*	.128	-.031	-.004	-.105	.186**	.325**	1								
18. Extension	.042	-.111	-.073	-.066	.004	.130	.091	.032	.065	-.113	.097	-.112	-.059	.008	-.033	.034	.010	1							
19. Experinecen	.165*	.042	-.036	-.079	.028	-.004	.129	.022	-.079	.035	.411**	-.103	.239**	-.132	.402**	.163*	-.045	.074	1						
20. Type of Duty	-.006	.042	.030	-.012	-.019	-.183*	-.059	-.014	-.057	.377**	.122	.135	.094	-.005	.021	-.021	.159*	.156*	.000	1					
21. West Africa	.209**	.139	.062	.159*	.196*	.122	.087	-.179*	.008	.316**	.254**	.111	-.011	.062	.030	.051	-.053	.066	.117	.080	1				
22. East Africa	-.190*	-.187*	-.186*	-.283**	-.330*	-.248*	-.008	.294**	-.189*	-.360*	-.146*	.028	-.011	.120	-.094	.150*	.268**	-.101	-.104	.189*	-.399*	1			
23. Asia & Pacific	.204**	.228**	.238**	.124	.226**	.091	-.022	.192**	.074	.151*	-.002	-.070	.038	-.039	.109	.258**	.137	.250*	-.020	.030	.189**	.167*	1		
24. America	.010	-.037	-.045	.002	-.001	-.059	.077	-.004	.010	.199**	.008	.046	.062	.009	.143	.010	.093	.089	.023	.059	-.220*	-.167*	-.251*	1	
25. Europe	-.150*	-.047	.031	-.068	.012	.134	-.128	-.023	.143	.970**	-.107	-.137	-.049	-.179*	-.105	-.056	.192**	.123	-.013	-.353*	-.326*	-.371*	-.156*	.205*	1

Significance Levels for Pearson Correlation Coefficients: ***** p<. 05 (2-tailed) & ****** p<. 01 (2-tailed)

Other significant relationships obtained were those between organizational commitment and gender, and experience. The results of gender and experience indicated a positive and identical significant correlation with organizational commitment, r = .16, p<.05. It can be interpreted that male peacekeepers of the TNP are less likely to be committed to their respective IGOs than their female TNP colleagues. Similar to the results obtained using a t-test, experienced TNP peacekeepers were slightly more likely to be committed to their respective IGOs than officers who were non-experienced.

The results related to continents where the missions are deployed showed significant results as well. There was a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment attitude of the TNP peacekeepers and their mission's continents located in West Africa, r=.20, and Asia and Pacific's, r=.20 (all ps<.01). The TNP peacekeepers working in West Africa and Asia Pacific's regions were more likely to be committed to their organizations when compared their counterparts working in other regions of the world. However, there was found to be a negative significant relationship between the level of organizational commitment and the mission's locations, Europe, r= -.150, and East Africa, r=-.19 (all ps<.05). Therefore, the TNP peacekeepers deployed in Europe and East Africa were slightly more likely to be less committed to their respective organizations than their TNP colleagues, located in the other continents of the world.

Before describing the multivariate analyses used in the study, it appears appropriate to discuss two issues related to the bivariate analysis correlation matrix. First, in a Pearson's r test, any causality between two variables is not assumed because there may exist other measured or unmeasured variables influencing the results, which is called as third variable problem. Therefore, the association between two variables might be as a

result of a third variable, which might explain the relationship of both of variables (Field, 2009). Second, multicollinearity is a problem for multivariate analysis; accordingly, Pearson's r is a useful test for identifying variables that are very highly correlated, thus causing multicollinearity (Brace et al., 2003; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Although there is a debate among researchers as to the extent to which the variables may correlate (Brace et al., 2003), as a cut off point, researchers mainly accept the correlation coefficient values lower than .90 as the indication of a lack of possible multicollinearity (Brace et al., 2003; Field, 2009;Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Warner, 2009). In this study, although the researcher identified some correlation coefficient values with large values - but quite below the cut-off value - such as for distributive justice between POS r=.724 (p<.01) and Organizational Politics r=-.711 (p=.01), these results did not indicate any collinearity issue. On the other hand, this method of inspection might be inadequate for uncovering more subtle types of multicollinearity. In addition to this inspection process applied, in multivariate analysis section VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) and Tolerance statistics were performed using SPSS to better understand if "a predictor has a strong linear relationship with other predictors" (Field, 2009, p. 175).

5.7 Multivariate Analyses

As described in the literature review, the theoretical model applied in this present study was based on the theoretical framework of equity and the literature related to organizational commitment. In this conceptual framework, the model consisted of employee and organizational level factors that were hypothesized to predict organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers.

To this end, the regression analyses consisted of one main model and 3 sub-models, which was developed and analyzed.[31] Since equity theory assumes that inequitable behaviors generate discomfort for others, organizational justice elements are potentially significant for sustaining equity, and by extension organizational commitment to an organization; and hence, Model I included only organizational justice elements, which constituted one of the main assumptions of equity. Second, organizational relevant independent variables, and then employee level variables were added for the second and third sub model, respectively. Finally, the full Model (Model IV) included organization and employee level variables with demographics related to personal and organization characteristics that explain the organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers. Each of the sub models was observed to examine the variations on the effects of indicators on organizational commitment. Furthermore, before performing the analysis, the researcher controlled the data for regression diagnostics and assumptions[32] in order to see if the data were adequate for a proper analysis (Berry, 1993); thus, missing data, outliers, and regression assumptions, which are multicollinearity, normality, linearity and homescedasticity of the variables were examined by a variety of tests.

Regression Diagnostics and Assumptions

In order to identify the extent to which missing values exist in the data, missing value analysis in SPSS was performed. All of the missing values were represented under

---

[31] In their research, Sampson and Groves (1989) developed similar a model and found that "the three dimensions of community social disorganization mediate over one-half of the effects of Shaw and McKay's three structural factors (SES, mobility, heterogeneity) on the most general indicator of crime (pg. 791). The method that they proposed in their study was applied to this study in order to examine how the variance and significance would change for the independent variables when tested in parts.

[32] The main assumptions of ordinary regression analysis are having interval or dichotomous variables, avoiding outliers, multicollinearity, linearity and independence among variables, normality, and homescedasticity (Berry, 1993; Devaus, 2002)

10%, and the MCAR test, Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 196.460, Sig. = .707 (greater than .05), indicated that the pattern of missing values were random,[33] which allows one to apply almost any imputation method of potential remedies (Hair et al., 2009). To this end, the pairwise method was used as the imputation method because of the appropriate data of the study. This method only uses existing all-available valid data of the study; hence, this "method maximizes the data utilized and overcomes the problem of missing data"(Hair et al., 2009, p. 53).[34]

The researcher also assessed the presence of outliers that might have possible harmful effects on the multivariate analyses of the study. A multivariate detection method, the Mahalanobis D^2 measure, was used in order to identify outliers in the study's multivariate data.[35] Only three observations (Case Number: 175, 97, 174) were found to be outliers that were different at 0.001 level (D^2/df, df=13). In addition to the above analysis, the researcher also controlled the results with a further test, known as Cook's D analysis. Cook's D test is used to flush out influential cases, and is used to identify multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).[36] Cook's D values ranged from 0 to

---

[33] Since it is not significant, greater than .05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis and accept that the missing values were distributed randomly. If it was significant, we would reject the null hypothesis and accept that the missing values are non-random, which requires further tests.

[34] There are different options for imputatiton such as Likewise (complete cases are used in the analysis), Hot or Cold Deck, case substitution, or mean substitution. In fact, they are mostly juxtaposed as two basic approach: using only valid data or using replacement values for the missing data (Hair et al., 2009, p.53).

[35] There are three methods of for detecting outliers: univariate, bivariate and multivariate methods. Since "most multivariate analyses involve more than two variables" and the other two methods require large numbers of graps, multivariate detection is the most appropriate method to detect outliers. That is "a multivariate assessment of each observation across a set of variables" is appropriate (Hair et al., 2009, p. 65).

[36] In fact, every outlier is not necessary to be an influential case, which can be in three forms: outliers, leverage points, and influential; however, as the broadest category, influential cases cover every type of case that might affect the regression results (Hair et al., 2009, p. 185).

.049; yet, only one case (Case Number: 102) had extremely large value (.077). Since this was below the cut-off point 1.0, the case was not considered to be problematic.[37] In conclusion, none of the cases were deleted because they were found not having important changes on the results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, pg.76).[38]

Following the diagnostics applications, the regression assumptions were assessed. First, both the VIF (Variable Inflation Factor) and tolerance measure tests[39] were conducted for a purposes of detecting a possible multicollinearity issue. Multicollinearity is "the degree is the degree of intercorrelation among predictor variables" (Warner, 2009, p. 1023) and it limits the to explain "how changing the independent variable changes the dependent variable" (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 302). The VIF values ranged from 1.0 to 3.1, and were the highest for Distributive Justice variable (3.17). In the VIF test, values under 10, or even more stringently fewer than 5, do not indicate any multicollinearity problem. Furthermore, tolerance values were between .315 and .937, and the lowest value was again for Distributive Justice variable (.315). Since none of the tolerance values were below the cut-off point, which is .20, there was no multicollinearity problem within the data. Next, the assumption of independence of error was tested by a Durbin-Watson test. The substantive meaning of the assumption was that "the error term is uncorrelated with each independent variable" (Berry, 1993, p. 28). The value for the

---

[37] Despite the fact that there are different ideas about the acceptable level for Cook's D value, in general, cases with values higher than 1.0 are considered to be possible outliers (Fox, 1991.pg. 29;Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.75) Stevens also suggests that if a case is below 1.0, there is no real need to remove that case (Stevens, 1992, p.118).

[38] In terms of residuals, casewise diagnostics indicated that only two cases, 23 and 102, were found to lie outside the limits (99% of the cases lie between ±2.5), which is well below %1 and tenable.

[39] Variables that have tolerance level below 0.2 for the tolerance test and values equal or higher than 10 for the VIF test might possibly indicate multicollinearity problems (Field, 2009).

Durbin-Watson test was 2.12, which is very close to 2 and falls into the acceptable range for the test, and the assumption of independent errors was not violated.[40]

In addition to the above tests, the researcher tested the assumption of normality by utilizing skewness and kurtosis statistics tests and examining the histogram and P-P Plot[41]. First, the researcher conducted a visual control of the histogram and P-P Plots, which demonstrated a normal distribution. The values of the residuals for Skewness and Kurtosis (Skewness = -.393, Kurtosis = .776) were in the range, which is between -1 and 1. Based on these results, the model met the assumption for normality.[42] The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were tested by observing the plot of the standardized residuals against the standardized predicted values of the dependent variable based on the model (Field, 2009, p. 229). As a result of the observation, the researcher concluded that the data were randomly and evenly spread out in the plot; hence, the assumptions were not violated.

---

[40] The Durbin-Watson statistic has a range from 0 to 4 with a midpoint of 2. The values close to 2 are acceptable and indicate that the residuals are uncorrelated. However, the values higher than 3 and lower 1 may indicate problem (Chen, et al., 2003; Field, 2009). The researcher also checked the Durbin-Watson table in Meier et al. (2006), and the further analysis also indicated that for a population of 200 cases and more than 6 variables, the finding was well – above the proposed value (1.83) for rejecting the possible correlation with .05 confidence (p.533).

[41] The Skewness and Kurtosis (excess Kurtosis value for SPSS) test indicate normality. The values, greater than the absolute value 1.0 refer to a non-symmetrical distribution in a SPSS analysis (Walker & Maddan, 2009, p.141). The Kolmogorov and Smirnov test is not suggested since in a large sample, a very small deviation from normality can cause low significance levels (De Vaus, 2002, p. 76-77).

[42] Although small numbers are good for grouping variables, such as dummy variables in this study, it is good to use samples over 100 for parametric tests (De Vaus, 2002, p.295) For grouping variables, it is important to have group rates at least over 20% to 80%. Less than this, for example 90% to 10% distribution, might also cause problem. However, in these circumtances, the normal distribution of each group measured seperately is more important.

Multiple Regression Analysis for Models

Since this study met the regression assumptions, the aforementioned 3 restricted and 1 full models, 4 in total, were tested, and a combination of the models is represented in Table 20 for the purposes of the present study. By doing so, the researcher aimed to answer the following research question: "How do organization and employee relevant factors, and socio-demographic characteristics[43] affect commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers toward their respective IGOs, either the UN or EU?". As an enter method for predictors, the researcher utilized the hierarchical (blockwise) forced entry method by utilizing prior studies and the literature (Field, 2009).

As demonstrated in Model I (Table 5.19), 46% (R2=46) of the variance in TNP peacekeepers' organizational commitment attitudes was explained significantly by Model I (F= 49.32, p<.001). The model consisted of three predictors, including TNP peacekeepers' perceptions of procedural and distributive justice, and awareness of process fairness. Model I indicated that there is a positive relationship between commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers and their procedural (B=.58, p<. 001) and distributive justice (B=.48, p<. 001) perceptions holding awareness of process fairness variable constant in the model. This means that controlling for other variables in the model, whilst a one unit increase in officer's perceived procedural justice led to .58 increase in organizational commitment attitudes of the TNP peacekeepers, a one unit increase in officer's perceived distributive justice led to a .48 increase in officers'

---

[43] Mowday et al. (1982) emphasizes the importance of personal and organizational characteristics, which affect an employee's commitment to his or her organization. In this context, since there was no prior study at the international level with respect to poliçe officer's commitment and in the context of equity theory, the researcher, utilizing his past experience and interviews, identified 4 personal and organizational related variables: IGOs, Missions in Africa, Extension Situation and Marriage Status. Although statistically it was possible to use Stepwise enter method, the researcher considered this approach to have more practical significance.

commitment attitudes. However, when compared using standardized regression coefficients, which allowed the researcher to compare the relative importance of contributing variables, distributive justice and procedural justice had roughly similar influence (β=.35 and .34, respectively) on level of organizational commitment among TNP peacekeepers. These results demonstrated similar findings to previous studies with respect to positive relationships of the two important elements of equity concept. However, this model confirmed that there was no relationship between the awareness of process fairness, which was assumed to measure officers' awareness about the procedures in an organization and emerged from the sub-dimension of procedural justice construct, and officers' level of organizational commitment among TNP peacekeepers.

Model II included all organizational level variables, POS, job satisfaction, and organizational politics in addition to the variables in Model I. This model also explained a significant portion of variance in organizational commitment ratings, R2=55, F= 34.82, p<.001. The results, in Table 5.19, showed that TNP peacekeepers' perceived POS (B=. 21, p<. 001) and job satisfaction (B=. 55, p<. 001) was significantly and positively correlated with level of organizational commitment. As in the first model, procedural justice (B=. 37, p<. 001) had a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment. These findings show that even when taken into account procedural justice and job satisfaction variables, whose influences were identical on organizational commitment (β=.22), POS had the highest association (β=.29) with organizational commitment. Nevertheless, although distributive justice and organizational politics had a positive and negative relationship, respectively, with organizational commitment, the

relationships were not significant as expected by the hypotheses of this study depending

on the previous research and bivariate findings.

Table 5.19. Regression Analysis of A Series of Nested Models [44]

Estimated coefficients from a series of nested OLS models of attitudinal Organizational Commitment by predictors of Organizational – Employee Level and Personal– Organizational Characteristics (N=196)

Predictors	Model I			Model II			Model III			Model IV		
	B	S.E	β	B	St.E	β	B	St.E	β	B	St.E	β
Constant	7.90			6.01			6.84			7.72		
Organizational Level												
Procedural Justice	.58	.12	.34***	.37	.12	.22***	.40	.12	.23***	.33	.12.	.20**
Aware. Of Process Fairness	.19	.15	.08	-.04	.15	-.02	.01	.15	.00	.01	.14	.00
Distributive Justice	.48	.10	.35***	.16	.11	.12	.23	.12	.17*	.29	.11	.22**
Perceived Org. Support				.21	.06	.29***	.22	.06	.30***	.20	.06	.28***
Job Satisfaction				.55	.16	.22***	.58	.16	.23***	.64	.15	.26***
Organizational Politics				-.07	.16	-.04	-.07	.15	-.03	-.06	.15	-.03
Employee Level												
Work Family Conflict							.08	.20	.02	-.03	.19	-.00
Supervision Satisfaction							-.28	.10	-.16**	-.24	.10	-.14*
Personal and Organizational Characteristics												
IGO (Reference=UN)										-2.63	.78	-.21***
Africa (R=Others)										-.30	.63	-.03
Extension (R = Yes)										-1.0	.60	-.08[a]
Marital Status (R = Married)										-1.41	.63	-.11*
R²/ Adjusted R²	.46 / .45			.55 / .53			.57 / .55			.62 / .59		
F	49.32***			34.82***			27.91***			22.63***		

Note: *p<. 05 **p<. 01 ***p<. 001, [a]p<. 10
B=Regression Coefficient β=Standardized Regression Coefficient

The Model III (Table 5.19) revealed that this model also explained significant variance in the dependent variable, the attitude of organizational commitment, R2=57, F= 27.91, p<.001. The regression coefficient of procedural justice, distributive justice, POS, job and supervision satisfaction was significant, which indicated that these variables had

---

[44] The design of the table was derived from "The Chicago Guide to Writing about Multivariate Analysis" (Miller, 2005, p. 336) Moreover, researchers suggest that it is better to assign larger groups as Reference groups; hence, in contrast to independent samples t-test, some groups were identified differently for multiple regression such UN=0 (Reference group) EU=1 (Weisburd & Britt, 2007, p. 481).

an association with organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers. Interestingly, although there was a significant relationship between supervision satisfaction and organizational commitment, this relationship was negative (B=-.28, p<. 01), which was contrary to direction of the study's hypothesis and bivariate analysis, and furthermore, there was no significant correlation between work family conflict and officers' level of organizational commitment among the TNP peacekeepers. The relationship of supervision satisfaction indicated that for each additional one-unit increase in supervision satisfaction, the organizational commitment level of TNP peacekeepers decreased -.28 units when holding other variables in the model constant. More interestingly, when examining the relationship of the independent variables with the dependent variable, the relationships could be juxtaposed from high to low as follows: POS (β=.30), procedural justice and job satisfaction (β=.23), distributive justice (β=.17, p<.01).

A final full model (Model IV) included all independent variables of the study and organizational – personal characteristics (Table 5.19). The full model improved from the restricted models and significantly explained 62% of the variance in the TNP peacekeepers' level of organizational commitment by variables of organizational – employee relevant and personal and organizational characteristics (F=22.63, p<.001). All of the significant variables in the restricted models, which were procedural (B=.33, p<. 01), distributive justice (B=.29, p<. 01), POS (B=.20, p<. 001), job satisfaction (B=.64, p<. 001) remained significant and positively related with organizational commitment, but supervision satisfaction (B=-.24, p<. 05) continued to have a negative relationship with this variable. These B values (regression coefficient) also showed the extent to

which a one unit increase in the predictor increased or decreased the organizational commitment level of the TNP officers in IGOs. However, the null relationship between organizational politics and work family and organizational commitment continued to persist. When observed for standardized regression coefficient values, results were as follows: procedural justice (β=.20), distributive justice (β=.22), POS (β=.28), job satisfaction (β=.26), and supervision satisfaction (β=-.14). More to the point, in spite of the contribution of the control variables, none of the significant predictors from the previous models changed dramatically in strength. While the POS had the highest positive significant relationship (β=28) with the dependent variable, supervision satisfaction had the lowest and negative significant association (β=-14) with the level of organizational commitment. Therefore, these findings were consistent with previous research and bivariate findings for all independent variables except for work-family conflict and supervision satisfaction.

In terms of control variables, the results showed that the organizational commitment scores of EU peacekeepers were significantly different from the UN peacekeepers among the TNP officers. Regression analysis showed that even when controlling for all other variables in the model, including organizational and employee level variables, the TNP peacekeepers in the UN missions were more likely to be committed to their organizations than those who worked for the EU missions. The organizational commitment level of the officers decreased -2.63 point in the EU missions compared to those who scored in the UN missions.

In terms of commitment levels, peacekeepers in Africa missions were not significantly different from the comparison group, who were working in other continents.

Willing to get an extension was one of the indicators for officers who implied they would like to continue to work with the respective IGO, where he or she had been working for. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between officers who applied or will apply to get an extension and those who would leave the mission at the end of their assignment periods (B=-1.0, at p<.10 level). The findings indicated that officers who wished to extend their assignments within their respective IGOs were more likely to be committed than their counterparts who would possibly leave the mission on time. In other words, peacekeepers who would not remain for periods longer than those specified would tend to show 1.0 unit less commitment than their counterparts who would continue for periods longer than the designated time frame. Another interesting finding is that marital status was significantly related to organizational commitment to IGOs. Peacekeepers, who were single or had similar status (divorced, separated etc.) had significant and negatively related with organizational commitment. In contrast to the assumptions of this study, relying on the propositions of previous research, despite the fact that work family conflict was insignificantly related to commitment, non-married officers showed significantly greater negative relationships with organizational commitment than married officers (B = -1.41, p<.05). Therefore, married peacekeepers would be 1.41 units more likely to be more highly committed to their IGOs than those who were not married. This finding might partly demonstrate the influence of marital status on organizational commitment.

In sum, whilst supplementing these control variables improved the model, this contribution did not appreciably change the association of organization- employee level variables and organizational commitment. In conclusion, both the model's significance

and the results indicated that in large part the final model confirmed the hypotheses of the study except for work family conflicts, organizational politics, and supervision satisfaction.

5.8 Quantitative Findings and Hypotheses Testing

This section of the quantitative component of the dissertation assesses the hypotheses, despite the fact that the last chapter of this dissertation deeply elaborates and extends possible explanations with respect to the study construct, hypotheses, and even the emerging anomalies among outcomes of the various analyses of this study and existing literature.

The hypotheses (H1 and H2) of this study based on organizational justice components of equity theory and stated that "Officers who perceive more procedural justice and distributive justice are more committed to their respective organizations". According to the results of the multiple regression using the hierarchical enter method and bivariate analysis, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were accepted. The multiple regression analysis using the full model indicated that either procedural or distribution justice perceptions of the TNP peacekeepers was one of the significant predictors of organizational commitment in IGOs ($\beta=.20$ and $\beta=.22$, respectively), when all other independent variables were controlled for and constant. Furthermore, the bivariate analysis also indicated similar findings and demonstrated that TNP peacekeepers' perceived procedural justice was significantly and positively correlated with their organizational commitment attitudes (correlation coefficient=60 and .61, respectively, at $p<.01$ level).

Another organizational relevant variable's hypothesis states, "Officers who perceive more organizational support are more committed their respective organizations". Both multiple regression results using the full model (β=.28) and the Pearson correlation coefficient results (r=.67, p<.01) indicated that the POS perceptions of TNP peacekeepers were significantly and positively associated with their organizational commitment attitudes in IGOs. Based on these results, Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

Hypothesis 4 stated, "Officers who are satisfied with their job are more committed to their respective organizations". Based on the outcomes of the multivariate and bivariate analysis, Hypothesis 4 was accepted. The OLS analysis indicated that when controlling all other variables, job satisfaction had a significant and positive relationship with the organizational level of TNP peacekeepers (β=.26). In accordance with these results, the correlation coefficient indicated a similar significant relationship between POS and organizational commitment as well (r=.58, p<.01)

The last hypothesis of organizational level variables, based on the model of this study, H5, stated "Officers who perceive less organizational politics are more committed to their respective organizations.". Although the results of the bivariate analysis indicated that there was a significant and highly negative relationship between the variable, organizational politics and dependent variable (r=-.56, p<. 01) as the expected by this study, the results of multiple regression analysis did not reveal any significant relationship between these variables. These anomalies indicate the existence of possible overlapping variance among some of the independent variables. However, based on the OLS analysis, H5 was rejected in this study.

Based on the employee relevant construct in the theoretical model, Hypothesis 6 stated, "Officers who have less conflict with their family life are more committed to their respective organizations". Both multivariate (β=-.0) and bivariate (r=-.11, small size effect) analyses were non significant; thus the results indicated that there was no significant relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment levels of the TNP peacekeepers. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was rejected in this study. The findings in this study, which contradicted the findings in the literature, can be attributed to various factors such as the construct of the sample of this study, which is further discussed in the discussion section.

The last hypothesis, based on the theoretical model, Hypothesis 7, stated, "Officers who are satisfied with their supervisors are more committed to their respective organizations". The results of the bivariate and multivariate analyses of supervision satisfaction and the dependent variable showed a discrepancy. The Pearson correlation coefficient was .26 (p<.01). This result demonstrated that there is a significant and positive relationship between supervision satisfaction and the organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers, as supposed by the theoretical model of this study. However, multiple regression analysis revealed that when controlling for all other predictors constant, there was a significant and negative association between supervision satisfaction and organizational commitment (β=-.14, p<.05). In brief, this anomaly can be explained by the existence of overlapping variance among some of the predictors. Therefore, based on the regression analysis, which was utilized to test hypotheses, Hypothesis 7 was rejected.

The last hypothesis of the study, Hypothesis 8, stated, "There is no significant difference between officers in EU missions and those in UN missions in terms of commitment attitudes toward their respective organizations". In order to test this null hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The test result indicated that there was a significant difference between officers who work for the UN and those who work for the EU in terms of their organizational commitment attitudes toward their respective organizations (t (183)=2.35, p=0.02 (at p<. 05 level, two-tailed)). The findings revealed that the type of the IGO affects organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers. Therefore, the null hypothesis, H8, was rejected in this study and the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Findings and Results of Qualitative Data

5.9 Sample

This study employed a mixed methods approach that consisted of both quantitative and qualitative analyses. The qualitative component of the study enhances our understanding in the context of the research area rather than simply testing hypotheses. To this end, during the survey period, interviews were also conducted with various peacekeepers, who contributed to the researcher's understanding of their varied perspectives and views. This investigation, in turn, improved the researcher's deeper understanding of the peacekeeping context and did so in a more complex way than was possible with only the quantitative component. The interviews helped the researcher to develop a more comprehensive approach concerning the study context in terms of not only the peacekeepers' general views and criticisms about the study context, but also the

factors affecting the commitment attitudes of the peacekeepers, and by extension, possible adverse outcomes caused by a lack of commitment in the IGOs.

A set of (13) predetermined interview questions were asked to the participants. 10 interviews were conducted with peacekeepers in the missions where more than 5 officers worked in order to obtain a broader picture of the -peacekeeping missions. Officers were interviewed from (1) UNMIT, (1) UNOCI, (1) MINUSTAH, (1) UNMIL, (1) UNMISS, (1) UNAMID, (1) MONUSCO, and (3) EULEX units. Of those 10 peacekeepers, 1 of them was female, 1 of them was a non-ranked officer, and 8 of them were ranked peacekeepers in the TNP. 6 out of 10 TNP peacekeepers held middle or high-level supervisor positions.

A snowball-sampling method was employed for the purpose of the interviews, because this method allows a researcher to reach his or her personal contacts in the research area; and more to the point, by utilizing this method, it was possible to reach individuals who the researcher thought would be good representatives of the population. Although these selected interviews were only conducted in the missions where TNP peacekeepers were deployed, these missions can be considered a good representative of both the UN and the EU peacekeeping missions in terms of their size and importance in the peacekeeping system. That is, these missions not only constituted almost all the peacekeeping missions where the UN or the EU deploys police officers; but they also provided a good picture of peacekeeping missions, in general.

Moreover, in order to obtain the general sentiments of the survey respondents, the survey instrument offered a comment box. This comment box emphasized the last question of the interview, which asked, "Is there anything that you would like to add to

your comments?" This provided a great opportunity for a researcher to include additional views related to the research. Since the information provided was anonymous, respondents could feel confident in writing their ideas down freely in the box, and could express views they could not report in the questionnaire or the interview. Sixty-nine respondents voluntarily commented in this box. These comments consisted of complaints, suggestions, and comments about the research context. However, only 40 useful comments were retained and used for further qualitative analysis.

In sum, 40 comments from the survey and roughly 40 digitally transcribed pages were analyzed for the qualitative component of this study. As was also explained in the methodology chapter of this study, the NVivo 10 software program was utilized in order to better categorize the emerging themes (nodes) within the data.

5.10 Perspectives of Peacekeepers

From the qualitative analysis, three broad categories or themes emerged in the context of perceptions of peacekeepers; by doing so, many different categories or themes of view divided among three broad categories. The first main category indicated their general views about IGOs; the second major category represented their views about this study's main concepts; and the third addressed possible outcomes, which may arise as a result of the manner in which the IGOs operate. Therefore, the emergent themes (nodes) were elaborated under these broad categories.

5.10.1 Perceived value of IGOs

The peacekeepers' perceptions, either negative or positive, about their organizations are crucial aspects of this research designed to better understand the study context. By asking respondents about their sentiments concerning the IGOs and the

missions' contexts, the researcher attempted to detect how their views might change among missions and organizations and how this might shape their commitment attitudes before and during the mission. The peacekeepers did not have a holistic perception about the IGOs, and their views revealed two points of view with respect to the IGOs. These points of view are the structural aspect and the operational aspects of IGOs. Although most of the TNP peacekeepers acknowledged the need for institutions, the majority of the officers found them to be dysfunctional.

In support of the structural view, one of the officers said "The reason why the UN was founded is very optimistic and necessary for humanity. In case of a conflict between or among nations, it is a very good impartial instrument for an intervention from outside the parties and has a very rational purpose". A peacekeeper in a supervisory position added, "It is the fact that the success of these peacekeeping missions is controversial, however, it is the best option that we have in our hands, or in other words, it is better than nothing". Another officer revealed similar views, claiming "There is no other organization like the UN providing the opportunity to communities with sharply different views and cultures, to live together in poor or war-ravaged areas of the world". Similarly, a high level TNP officer in a supervisory position acknowledged, "It is necessary for the world's peace. Anyway, these missions are mostly established by the invitations of national authorities wherever a problem arises."

However, in terms of functionality, the views of officers were very pessimistic about the IGOs. One officer revealed,

> *"I believe that this organization is not operating well. There is no communication between the upper echelon and the lower employees. The communication is neither going up nor coming down. The employees are just working daily without any future plans."*

Another officer referred to the operational problems with the UN Charter. According to him/her, "The biggest handicap about the UN is that only five countries have the power to decide what to do. All countries have to be included in the decision-making process. Can you imagine? If one country says no, then nothing happens". These interviews clarify the dilemma in officers' perceptions of IGOs. However, their overall views showed parity for both organizations. A peacekeeper that had worked in several missions in the past stated, "I believe that the EU mission is very new; hence, they are very novice." Another officer revealed his/her experience as follows;

> *"I think the individuals are more influential in the decision-making process than the organization's rules because nobody investigates if a high level manager did something right or wrong. For example, a high level manager changed the structure of the police and he had no idea what he did. He did not even ask anybody. He just changed it. Even he could not explain why he made these changes. Then, it was understood that the new system did not work. There was no meeting or experience sharing. They manage here with daily politics".*

In sum, these observations indicate that although IGOs have tremendous organizational structures and admirable founding purposes, they also have serious operational deficiencies. This emergent theme suggests that most employees' behavioral problems in IGOs might result from the way that IGOs operate rather than their organizational structures.

5.10.2 Reasons to Join

It is important to acknowledge that the reasons for joining an organization or making a decision to remain in an organization might be important components of an employee's sense of attachment to an organization. To this end, interviewees were asked why they decided to join the IGOs and factors affecting their decisions. The interviews

demonstrated that the reason for joining the organizations mostly shaped their future decisions with their respective organizations. For example, officers who joined to an IGO for economic reasons did this because he/she wanted to continue to enjoy a high salary and to extend his/her career in the organization that he or she worked for.

In general, the ability to gain career and international experience was the most prominent factor in their decision making process. Economic factors and representation of the TNP were the other leading factors affecting their decisions. A country's involvement in international politics was another dominant factor explaining the peacekeepers' deployment in a mission; however, the TNP officers stated that this was not reason for their deployment in missions. In other words, they mostly did not consider their deployments as political decisions taken by the TNP headquarters.

As mentioned previously, the respondents believed that international organizations were the best places and options for them to develop their language skills. By doing so, they planned to obtain "P" level positions in the UN or high-level supervisory positions in IGO missions. According to the belief of the majority, as they developed their mission experiences and language abilities, they would have the opportunity to apply or receive tenders from the IGOs for better positions. As an experienced peacekeeper stated, "The reason for joining my first mission was to improve my English. However, when I came to my current mission, my first priority was to get a high level position in the mission, and by doing so, to be in a decision making position. That is what I did. Therefore, I improved my career and personal connections, and by extension, my chances to get a better or 'P' level position in other or future missions."

Similar to the above personal expectations, a majority of the respondents aimed to improve their financial situation. A peacekeeper said "to be honest, what pushed me to work here was money." Likewise, another officer contributed "Of course, the world's peace is not the prominent reason to be here. This is not the case for us; this is even truer for other officers. An officer from Africa can make money in just two years compared to the forty-eight years that he or she has to work for the same amount of money in his or her hometown." On the other hand, interestingly, a young and ranked TNP officer who has a high level position in the mission responded,

> *"It is true that I came here to earn money. Nonetheless, this is my first mission and I have seen that the experience that I got here is more valuable than money. Having an experience with hundreds of officers from around the world and sharing your views with them is so valuable that there is no monetary reward to compare to its contribution to me. Even if they gave nothing, it would have been worthwhile to come here."*

Whilst economic conditions and career development were deemed important for joining and remaining with the organization, it was national politics that required some countries to send officers to work in the missions. As an interviewee extended "Some European countries send their officers to keep themselves informed about the developments in Balkans and neighbor countries."

The interviews made clear that there were several different reasons for joining a peacekeeping operation ranging from global politics to personal expectations. However, among these reasons, personal issues such as economics and career development seem to generate the strongest incentives for officers to remain in their respective organizations. As one of the interviewees put it, "Whoever does not come here for the purpose of economic or career development would wish to return in a few months time."

5.10.3 Change in Commitment Attitudes

The essential purpose of this study was to explore the attitudes of organizational commitment and factors affecting these attitudes. It was important for the researcher to have a general view of commitment attitudes of peacekeepers; hence, interviewees were asked to describe their sense of commitment and the main factors affecting this toward their respective organizations after they joined the mission.

In general, TNP peacekeepers' commitment attitudes and the main factors that influenced their commitment attitudes, varied among them. Mostly, peacekeepers' positive or negative commitment attitudes were shaped by factors both macro and micro level in nature, such as their expectations from their organizations, their multicultural working environment, inequities within the organization, their relations with supervisors, the mission that they worked in, the professional working hours, and sometimes the personal characteristics of the peacekeeper. Although the organization and mission site mattered for the peacekeepers to some extent, the findings mainly indicated that the TNP peacekeepers' commitment attitudes emerged from similar causes regardless of the organization or mission site where they worked. These causes, in other words themes, are elaborated in more detail in this section below.

5.10.4 Knowledge About the Organization

It is important for an organization to be well understood by its employees. If employees understand the organization's context and goals, they can feel more attached to it and can better serve the organization because they share the same values and aims with parallel to the organization. The theme that emerged from the present interviews indicated that the TNP peacekeepers generally had a broad understanding about the core

values of their organizations; however, this knowledge was limited to the induction trainings, which are provided to newcomers in the first weeks of the mission.

Most of the interviewees responded that for both of the organizations, the core values of integrity, respect for diversity and professionalism were the most important values that the IGOs sought in their employees. These values were officially expected from the UN employees. The interviewees believed that these were of tremendous value for helping an international organization to operate efficiently. However, their general sentiment was that because of the lack of governance and control, these values did not exist day-to-day professional life of the operatives. From another perspective, the TNP peacekeepers believed that these values were simply understood by employees in case they needed to keep away from trouble, but they were not employed in their daily lives. Even the induction trainers had similar sentiments and acknowledged the informal motto of the missions, which is "Enjoy the mission". Thus, feelings of mismanagement in the IGO context did not emerge as a result of a lack of knowledge or a misunderstanding of the organizations' expectations, but were caused more by unsatisfactory outcomes of particular missions.

It was obvious that the rhetoric and practical life did not match in the IGOs' mission settings studied, which is an issue of paramount importance for the existence of IGOs in global governance. However, the majority of interviewees stated that for the good of the mission and local people, instead of having very bold guidelines in the work force life for the sake of professionalism and performance at job, it was better to perform less well, but to have better personal relations in the work environment.

5.10.5 Organizational Justice

Another common in the interview responses was a lack of equity or justice in the practical life of organizations, in contrast to the highly professional rules and regulations in their charters. A peacekeeper stated, "In general, the system is quite fair. It takes into account competence and diversity in assignments." Similarly, one peacekeeper supervisor responded that "Here it is like a global village and it is possible to see a representative from each nation and continent in different positions, from either Europe or Africa."

However, their views were not so optimistic with respect to the allocation of common goods among organization members. Drawing from their experiences, they found no universal egalitarian understanding, because the perception of justice differed among individuals. Hence, some of the international peacekeepers did not perceive it wrong to assign someone to a supervisory position if they were from his or her home country. Their general sentiment was that the code of conduct, which regulates the operations of missions, was not regarded at all. For instance, a TNP peacekeeper in Africa said that

> *"Once, I went to the headquarters where civilians also work. There was a VIP (Very Important Person) sign on one of the restrooms. It is unbelievable. I do not know the other missions, but this is how it works here. This is a peacekeeping mission and you cannot have this discrimination so open. What makes you so privileged?"*

More interestingly, TNP peacekeepers in EU missions found the operation of their respective organizations quite one-sided when compared to their counterparts in UN missions. A TNP peacekeeper said, "They assigned one of the TNP peacekeepers to an important position, but Brussels (EU headquarters) repealed this appointment since we are a contributor country to the EU mission. They treat us as if we are from a third world

country". Likewise, another high-level supervisor in the mission and TNP chief admitted,

"I told them you may do whatever you want and you may assign whomever you want. You may not choose one of us. But, at least, do not indicate it in written official papers."

Similarly, one of the peacekeepers in an EU mission commented:

"There were 30 German and 13 Turkish peacekeepers -over hundred peacekeepers in total- in our department. When we first came they did not invite us for the morning meetings. I warned them if you do not invite us, we would immediately return home. There are 7 to 8 supervision positions and 4 to 5 of them are Germans. There was no chance for others. I told them I had experience in two missions with the UN, and in my previous mission in Africa I even had the authorization to demand a helicopter for flights for some of my operations. But the way you work here does not exist in African tribes. They even give other tribes a chance. You, here, do not allow anybody to survive."

Peacekeepers regarded the egalitarian organizational managements of the IGOs' official rules and regulations highly. However, in practice, they devalued the way that their organizations operated in terms of distributing their common goods. They also perceived some assignments could not be done in an absolutely equal way, because, some of the officers -more specifically, those from failed states- did not have enough experience to occupy a supervisory position when compared to their European counterparts and some of them even had no knowledge of how to use a computer. Besides, according to the interviewees, it could also be a problem to assign a non-rank officer to a high-level supervisory position because he or she might not be used to giving orders or managing a unit.

Regardless of their home country rank, whilst officers in supervisory positions emphasized the existence of procedural justice, others reported the lack of distributive justice in the organization. However, the general sentiment was that the unequal allocation of common goods did affect their commitment attitudes toward the

organizations that they worked for. This was especially common among the members of the EU peacekeepers.

5.10.6 Organizational and Nation State Politics

Although IGOs are multicultural and multinational organizations by nature, the national issues that emerged from the interviews indicated that the issues related to specific nations or states already had a significant impact on how the employees worked in their environments. There were two components to this issue with connected pros and cons. The first one was the national balance promoted by IGO's charters. The second, the dominance of some nations, mostly reflected donations from countries, and members of the Security Council in the UN, or founder countries in the EU.

National balance is one of the main core values of IGOs and is used in order to hinder the hegemony of specific states in the missions, and by extension a similar hegemony in IGOs. Therefore, national and gender balance is considered necessary for the success of international operations. A TNP officer who was a supervisor said,

> *"I declare the vacancies and everyone has an equal opportunity to get the position. But it is also important to protect diversity. For example, if the first peacekeeper in the interview roster and any other equivalent position are both from the same nation. So you may prefer the second officer in the roster, if there is not too much difference between first and second in terms of competence. Maybe you may think that first one deserves the seat, but in this way, you protect diversity, which is more important for the success of mission."*

In some cases, this approach, which definitely affects the attitudes of peacekeepers toward their organizations, might be allowed for the sake of the continuance of the mission. Another peacekeeper relayed the other side of the story, stating,

"There are some officers who are very capable of doing some duties in my department. But I cannot assign them for the sake of national balance because I have other officers in my department from the same nation. So, I have to supervise or give the chief position to someone that does not deserve that seat. There are some of them, who are uneducated and make no contribution to the mission. But I cannot do anything about this."

In terms of national balance, a peacekeeper summarized the approach in the missions as follows: "There is no policy that deports a peacekeeper to his/her home country, if he or she failed. The main reason for that is to protect diversity and multicultural environment. No one wants to be very harsh to each other." However, this approach needs to be considered in light of its negative impacts on the success of the mission. Interviewees generally agreed that some positions should be given regardless of the candidate's nationality.

In general, violation of the national balance rule results in the dominance of some nations in the missions. According to interviewees, there are some nations that have priorities in assignments and in critical decision-making processes. Some high-level positions are definitely designated for some donor states, or the members of Security Council, or the founders of the EU. More interestingly, in some cases, regional countries also dominate in the missions in spite of the fact that some of them are from less politically powerful countries. For example, from the general sentiment of the interviewees, it seems that African peacekeepers dominate the missions situated in Africa and prevent strongly the advancement of peacekeepers from other regions.

The dominance of some nations provides gains for local people. A high level officer suggested "Since it was a colony of Portugal and inherited its criminal law from Portugal, it is very logical to assign a head of criminal departments from Portugal. It

takes time for me to learn the criminal law but he or she already knows it from his or her country". However, in contrast to the these views, another interviewee stated, "Since this was colony of France, most local people do not like French officers to be here."

The findings indicated that this type of dominance was more common in the EU missions. An EU peacekeeper stated, "Although the position was specifically designated for officers who are Captains or higher, they appointed a German non-rank officer to this position" and added, "Even some positions are designated for some countries. For example, the Chief of Border Security positions are mostly filled by German officers, no matter how competent you are for that position. Because of that I do not feel that I am part of this organization." Accordingly, the general sentiment about the dominance of some countries in the missions was negative, which adversely impeded the peacekeepers' high-level of commitment towards their organizations.

5.10.7 Logistical Issues

As in Maslow's hierarchy of needs pyramid, which promotes the priority of physical demands in an individual's life, the findings of the interviewees suggested that logistical issues in missions have an important influence on shaping a peacekeepers' commitment attitudes. "These are failed states. That is why we are here. It is not appropriate to expect high-quality life conditions here. That is what we knew before coming and that is how I persuade myself." Said one peacekeeper. However, another officer justified the fact that logistics had important effects on their lives: "You do not have to think what you are going to eat tonight or where you will shop if you work in headquarters and you can easily focus on your duty."

The EU officers displayed more satisfaction with their life conditions, despite the fact that they were less contented with their organizations. An interviewee said, "If I were in another mission, I could not stay long. I have the same life conditions as in my hometown. It is very close to Turkey and I can go wherever I need to. Here it is very safe and I feel as if I am at home." This actually might represent congruency with the findings in peacekeeping literature, which proposes that regional organizations are more successful in missions because of cultural and locational proximity to the mission location.

In general, there were two main issues between and among the missions, especially in the UN. First, officers in some African missions mentioned suffering through adverse life conditions such as power outages, water deficiencies, and a lack of food supply when compared to their counterparts in other continents:

> *"When I first came to the mission, I had to live in a UN container with another international peacekeeper. The rent was so high. I had to pay one-forth of my salary back to the UN. The Internet was very slow. The food was a problem. We had to cook in the container. There was not any other option for us.",* complained an officer about his/her mission conditions in Africa.

Second, interviewees sometimes said that there were sharp differences in living conditions between headquarters or cities and more remote towns or villages. A TNP officer said,

> *"Although I have the highest position here, this region is almost 450 km (280 miles) from the capital. They transport me with a helicopter here because there is no safe road. However, I cannot find a market to shop here. I have to buy everything in the capital before coming here. There are persons worse off than me who work in towns. The problem is that we get the same salary with those working in headquarters, which has every kind of support there."*

Sometimes, it could be very difficult to work with a person from another nation even in very good conditions. A peacekeeper also explained, "Although I respect them, it is very difficult to work with people from different cultures in the same office. There are some who eat their food and leave it open for several days in the office as it is. It smells very bad to me but this stinky food does not bother them at all". Another officer felt similarly, "In my previous mission, I was working with a guy who eats monkey. He was a good guy. I respect his culture. However, it was very difficult to patrol with him in the same vehicle since he smelled very nasty. Sometimes, I thought, what the hell am I doing here?" Therefore, an officer's very close colleague in his/her work environment might have an adverse effect on his or her commitment attitudes.

In sum, as one peacekeeper aptly stated, "Logistics depend on where you came from. Here, in Africa, it could be a problem for a European to live in a barrack in a town, but it could not be a problem for an African officer who might be living in the same life conditions in his/her hometown." Hence, the emergent theme with respect to the influence of logistics on a peacekeeper's attitudes can be argued to be limited solely by the perceptions of the TNP peacekeepers in this study's context.

5.10.8 Support from the Organization

The interviewed peacekeepers' general sentiments demonstrated that the theme of lack of organizational support emerged as one of the most important factors that affected their commitment attitudes toward their respective organizations. Similar to the findings of other themes, this feeling was common among peacekeepers regardless of the mission, continent, and organization.

Peacekeepers generally stated that their attachment level to their organizations closely paralleled the extent of their organizations' attachment to them. Most of them stated that police and soldiers are perceived as second-class and non-productive employees in the IGO system when compared to the civilian personnel. However, they believed that while civilian staffs produce less work for the mission environment, interestingly, those individuals of civilian staff consider themselves as the owners of the UN or EU. Sometimes, "Some civilian peacekeepers behave in the same way even from countries which only recently had a mission established. Just a few years ago, they had a UN mission in their home country" said one peacekeeper. However, this was not limited to the behaviors of civilians. Most of peacekeepers agreed that either the UN or the EU supported their civilian personnel more than their police peacekeepers, and felt there was a secret hierarchy among employees of international civilians, volunteers, local civilians, and police and soldiers.

In some cases, this situation contradicted the reasons for the existence of missions, and by extension the IGOs. As one peacekeeper aptly emphasized:

> *"This mission place really needs to be secured. That is why we are here. Therefore, police and soldiers are the real elements of this mission. Therefore, civilians work here to support us. Nevertheless, it works in a counterclockwise way. As if they are not here for us, we are here for their existence in this mission".*

Most of the peacekeepers responded that this situation really hurt their commitment to their organization. They also believed that the discrepancy in salaries and the assignment period in the mission were the two leading factors underlying the problem. According to the interviewees, in many cases, civilian personnel get two or three times higher salaries than police peacekeepers, even in the same workplaces. And,

the civilian personnel are assigned for 4 to 5 years to the mission and might have the opportunity to be transferred to another mission in the future. According to the interviewees, civilians consider themselves permanent in the IGO system. This approach was rooted in the mission working culture because of the perceived low-value of police professionals in some parts of the world.

In accordance with these statements, an experienced supervisor said,

"In case of a severe problem, they do not support you. For example, if something happens to you on your duty in your home country, they take care of you for life. Conversely, here, they would like to keep this relation as short as possible. If anything happens to you, they evaluate the harm on you and pay some amount of money designated by the headquarters. If you are dead, they just pay 50.000 dollars to your family and do not take care of anything afterwards. But this is not the case for international civilians."

This was also the case in non-adverse situations. The peacekeepers interviewed stated that this discrepancy existed in basic everyday life. For example, according to them, while civilians have UN passports and UN email addresses, most police peacekeepers do not even have UN domain email addresses in missions. "I pay 720 dollars to live in a container in a camp and I share it with someone else. But civilians have special offices, VIP restrooms and reside in their luxury homes. They just pay 400 dollars for this. They intentionally try to keep uniformed officers away from civilians' social life environments," said another peacekeeper in Africa. One of the interviewees stated, "Police peacekeepers got warnings from headquarters because they were involved in too many traffic accidents by their assigned cars. However, they know that whilst police units drive 50.000 km in a week, civilians drive just 2-3 thousand km. in a week. So, how can you compare them?". A peacekeeper described this discrepancy from another perspective, "Despite the fact that there is special unit, which is responsible for

investigating prisons here and they have enough civilian staff to do this, police peacekeepers do this job for purposes of the civilians' comfort."

In sum, TNP police peacekeepers do not perceive themselves as the real players in the organization. Most of them feel that they just do their duties and cannot play a role in the management cycle, and thus they are not valued within the organization, which decreases their sense of commitment toward their organizations. They regard the civilians as employees living in ivory towers. Consequently, a supervisor peacekeeper said, "This gives me the sense that whatever I do I cannot go further. I am looking for professional vacancies in the UN system, and most of them are for civilian positions that I cannot be eligible for with my police background. Therefore, I disregard my position despite the fact that it is a very high level position here." However, another police peacekeeper in a supervisory position said "This can be considered as fair because they do not have any other support or warranty in their lives other than here. More or less we have this support. I think, in this case, it generates a balance between civilians and uniformed personnel."

5.10.9 Satisfaction with the organization

Based on the respondents' comments, another finding that emerged in this research was the importance of peacekeepers' satisfaction from their organization in forming their commitment attitudes. Peacekeepers' mostly stated that their satisfaction with the organization and supervisors generated positive incentives towards the organization and improved their commitment attitudes. More interestingly, interviewees' general sentiments suggested that supervisor satisfaction and relationships with their co-workers were as important as job satisfaction. These factors appeared to have a very

strong influence on their attitudes toward their organizations; in other words, these findings indicated that these actors in the workplace shaped their workplace attitudes.

A considerable number of respondents were highly satisfied with their jobs in the IGOs. They generally regarded the work conditions and schedules as professional. The general sentiment that emerged from interviews was that as the success of missions was the main purpose for the organizations, the organizational system did not undervalue their personal life and created satisfactory situations for them to work more effectively and to help them to attach themselves to the organization. A peacekeeper summarized the general view shared by other TNP peacekeepers as follows:

> *"I explored the working system here. It is all for human beings. It is based on almost 40 hours for a week. If you work overtime, then you deserve your leave. There is not such an understanding that an officer has to employ overtime duties that is given by his/her immediate chief. Every duty that you are responsible for is listed in the job description. No one can order more or less than this. So, you do not have to work overtime as it is very common in our home countries. Even if you work overtime, they compensate it. My organization has a lot to learn from here."*

Another peacekeeper said, "My loyalty to my organization is through my immediate chief. He is experienced and a very competent person. More to the point, he transfers all his knowledge to me as well. The only reason I work very hard is so that I will not have to leave him alone." On the other hand, another officer claimed, "Many times we reported our transportation problem. Once 10 peacekeepers, under my command, were waiting at the airport for transportation. The head of the office saw them and did not even come to a stop and just passed by. He was supposed to try to help us." In the context of this study, these cases show how a supervisor can affect an employee's workplace attitudes. Peacekeepers generally stated that their immediate chief or supervisor was very important for their workplace performance, because whatever they

did or how they performed was limited by the capacity and perspective of their supervisors; hence, they believed that as long as their chiefs esteemed their workplace outcomes, their performance might have a real meaning. Another peacekeeper in a supervisory position said this explicitly:

"Unfortunately, because of national balance, sometimes, we have to appoint someone who is incompetent for that position. However, this harms peacekeepers' commitment attitudes because when they see someone, who is incompetent and in chief position, they immediately devalue the organization. In short, they say why am I working under this guy?"

In terms of co-workers, interviewees generally agreed that if they expected to be successful in the IGO workplace, they should not have red lines in the workplace because the workplace relations mostly relied on interpersonal skills rather than occupational competence. Sometimes, these workplace relations could be harsh between representatives of certain nations. The system requires peacekeepers, including supervisors, to not be harsh in their personal relations; however, this could work in reverse for some nations. For example, interestingly, one peacekeeper stated,

"The relations with co-workers are very important here. For some nations, it is very harsh. For African peacekeepers, it is very important. They are even supposed to open their chief's car door. An African peacekeeper is expected to show his/her respect and open the car door of other higher ranked African peacekeepers that are neither in a supervisor position nor from the same country. Unfortunately, this type of hierarchy sometimes works among them."

More interestingly, similar findings emerged in EU missions as well. A EU peacekeeper explained,

"Because of German peacekeepers' harsh attitudes, the peacekeepers from other leading European countries are not satisfied with the conditions. This mission is called best practice of EU. But they call this failed practice and write this on social media as well. And they are very unhappy that German peacekeepers are mostly in supervisory positions and impose on them."

These findings indicate that national relations or culture already shaped the behaviors of employees when working under an IGO. This is possibly because of the existing dominance of nation states over the IGO system.

On the other hand, in general, the IGO working environment appeared to generate a flexible working environment that led to satisfaction among the TNP peacekeepers who worked overtime and who faced harder conditions in their home country. The results also demonstrate that they enjoyed being from an outsider culture in these mission areas. Since they were not accepted as a part of any region or culture among other peacekeepers, none of the regional culture or hegemony issues could generate dominance over them; therefore, they were highly satisfied with the flexible working environment of missions.

5.10.10 Family Issues

An important relationship between the family and work is clear in the study results. The peacekeepers' general sentiment was that their families' support had a significant and positive influence in shaping their commitment attitudes toward their organizations. Cultural and family values are very important among some cultures, so at least for TNP peacekeepers, this finding might be valuable.

The views represented different aspects of work-family relations among peacekeepers. A single peacekeeper said, "Since my mother is very proud of me for working the UN and talks about me to our relatives and neighbors, I feel very attached to the UN". Another participant said "In fact, being away from my family does not have a severe affect on me. I knew the mission conditions before coming here, and the education

and health services are so bad that I would not want to bring my family here. And they do not allow your family to use the helicopter even in case of an urgent evacuation of the mission". An officer in an African mission said "I know the conditions are very difficult here, but I would stay here for ten years if my wife was here" showing a strong attachment of TNP officers to their families. The general sentiment was that even if they could not bring their families to these missions, at least, family support with minimal problems was very important for them. An officer in the EU mission described his/her experience as follows: "My first mission was in Afghanistan and I could not go there with my family. It was terrible. When you have a problem at home and you are too far away to solve that problem, it hurts you more. The only reason I am here is that I could come with my family. I do really like to work for my organization."

The statistical tests conducted in the quantitative component of this study did not yield any statistically significant relationship between family and work in terms of commitment; however, this might be because of the attitudes of respondents with respect to family related issues. In some cultures, it is very common for employees not to relate to family and workplace issues concurrently and they prefer not to reveal family problems. Nevertheless, the interviews, which gave the researcher a chance to contact participants and form person-to-person connections, helped this research to obtain a more in-depth view of participants concerning this issue.

5.10.11 Future of IGOs and peacekeeping

The future of an organization is important for an employee when he or she feels attachment to the organization and its operations. When employees have the sense of being a part of an organization, they care the future of the organization that they work for.

Thus, in spite of having lots of discontentment about their IGOs, TNP peacekeepers generally attached importance to the future of their respective missions, and by extension the success of their respective IGOs. They consider themselves a part of their organization for at least a specific period; therefore, they feel responsible about the success and efficiency of IGO operations in the mission site.

They generally believed that it was best for a peacekeeper to see local people living on their own without any support and help from international organizations or states. The peacekeepers interviewed stated that their missions were constructed through the use of international financial support, which in turn, was linked to the common good of the world's citizens, and this money could be used in other places where there was more need, if their missions became successful. They mostly perceived the success of their IGOs as a way to increase the happiness of the local people. For instance, one peacekeeper stated, "I am here in one of the richest countries of the world in terms of underground sources. However, when you look at their problems and living standards, they are in terrible conditions. Of course, I wish peace for this country."

It is clear that the peacekeepers care about the success of their deployed missions. However, they generally believed that the IGOs, especially those linked to the UN, have lost respect in the context of their past mission operations because they mostly just stabilized the situation and did not otherwise contribute to the country that they served. This belief persists because of unsuccessful UN operations in the past, such as those in Rwanda and Bosnia. In accordance with these findings, some of the interviewees did not believe that their mission could be successful because of the way that IGO staffs perform

for their organizations. More interestingly, one peacekeeper was so disenchanted with the system that he/she did not hesitate to emphasize this as follows:

"I wish them to be unsuccessful. Anything against this is impossible. I want these guys on management positions to have shame upon them. And I want them to live with this shame until they die. I wish all international media put them on the cover and they cannot walk in the street because of this shame; hence I want them to be unsuccessful. I believe that they deserve this. A system like this cannot be successful."

However, they also generally believe that local government or politicians are so inefficient and corrupt that local people generally need the UN or EU. Respondents generally agreed that if the IGOs left the mission area, the situation could get worse. Moreover, in some missions, IGOs are the only source of revenue for the local people. For example, one peacekeeper said, "Selling food and accommodation to us is the only monetary source for the local people here. We pay 600 dollars for rent. But if we leave here, nobody pays 60 dollars for those homes." Therefore, IGOs generally assist with the stabilization of the mission countries, but they do not generate a robust environment for fast and rapid development, as they are there to prevent the state from failing.

5.11 Summary of Qualitative Findings

A series of interviews were conducted that included a majority of large size missions in order to obtain a general picture of the missions, and by extension IGOs. When compared to the quantitative analysis, the qualitative analysis demonstrated the phenomenon in question, which was organizational settings of peacekeepers, from a broader and deeper perspective. These interviews also provided the opportunity to reveal other underlying factors that affect commitment attitudes of peacekeepers that could not be revealed in the quantitative analysis. Furthermore, the general sentiment of the

interviewees with respect to issues in their workplace provided the opportunity to this researcher to gain a better understanding of the IGO context and problems related to this context.

It is obvious that without taking into account an organization's working settings, it could be difficult to extend suggestions and offer ideas about its employees. All in all, the general sentiment that emerged from the respondents was that IGOs have wonderful founding and management charters in rhetoric. However, they have severe problems related to their daily operations in practical life.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Overview and Objective of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore the organizational commitment of peacekeepers and the factors that affect it. More broadly, this research examined the commitment attitudes of the employees of IGOs. This study found several important empirical findings, not only for organizational management studies, but also for peacekeeping and IGO researchers as well. Accordingly, this chapter provides an overview of the broad conclusions of this study that could enhance our understanding in both of these scholastic fields.

All organizational management studies aim to provide an in-depth contribution to the knowledge base of the organizations researched; by doing so, they try to understand factors that influence the organizations' effectiveness and success. However, most organizational management studies are not sufficiently comprehensive for explaining all facets of organizational behavior or the human decision-making process. Thus, a majority of these studies focus largely on one component of the organizational context in order to develop explanations for the overall organizational management process.

In line with these limitations, although the main purpose of this study was to explore commitment attitudes of peacekeepers and factors affecting these in the context of IGOs, the researcher also assumed that this study would provide an opportunity for improving our understanding of the organizational behaviors of IGOs. The literature on the subject indicates that commitment has significant outcomes related to organizational performance and success; thus, it was felt that if this research could enhance our

understanding in terms of commitment attitudes of peacekeepers and factors affecting these in the peacekeeping setting, this would help the researcher to gain a broader understanding of the IGO context. It was also believed this present data collection approach and settings would make it possible to evaluate how efficiently IGOs operate, and their organizational structures and modes of functioning. By so doing, it was thought it would also be possible to develop strategies for improving the structures of and behaviors within IGOs.

It seemed reasonable to expect that if the commitment level of peacekeepers was found to be high and no unfavorable factors were detected in IGO settings, such an organization would be more likely to operate successfully. This present study found that there was evidence of unfavorable organizational environments and life experiences in the IGO settings studied; thus, it is appropriate to posit that we would not expect a high-level of success from these international organizations and their employees. In short, the subtle purpose of this present study was to explore and evaluate the organizational behaviors of IGOs through the perceptions of peacekeepers that serve under their commands.

In this context, this study found several significant factors that influence the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers. By so doing, the researcher gained an understanding of how IGOs might improve their capacities to operate more efficiently. Since this study was more interested in the functional dimensions of IGOs than their structural dimensions, the researcher believed that peacekeeping missions where IGOs represent their best practices would be ideal sites for investigating this issue.

To this end, TNP police peacekeepers were selected as the research sample. There were two reasons for selecting Turkish police peacekeepers in the context of achieving this study's research aims. First, security is of the utmost importance in peacekeeping missions. Very often, the success of the mission depends on the efficiency of uniformed peacekeepers. Excluding the military component of missions, police peacekeepers generally constitute approximately 75 percent of the missions' international staff and play a significant role in the function of mission agents.

Second, Turkey is a secular and democratic country, located in a geographic hub of diverse ethnicities, cultures and nations. Moreover, as a result of the TNP's organizational structure as a national police organization, the TNP officers mostly have the same educational and training background, which shapes their professional life in the field. In accordance with these facts, TNP peacekeepers are one of the most neutral peacekeepers working in peacekeeping settings. Excluding individual prejudices, it can be argued that ethnicity, religion, and geographic issues generally do not motivate their behaviors. This is an important advantage because this embedded cultural multi-identity helps them to develop a better international presence among the communities of the mission. Depending on how communities perceive the UN or EU police, however, peacekeepers' attitudes and behaviors can change in accordance with such perceptions. Otherwise, their role is limited to serving as "Ottoman's grandsons", which, in fact, is partly a compliment in some Europe peacekeeping missions, or where modern "colonists" are serving as European peacekeepers, regardless of their home country in Europe.

Furthermore, since peacekeepers are deployed in peacekeeping missions for specific time periods, some might aptly argue that employees can hardly develop different types of commitments to different organizations. Nevertheless, it is possible to develop different forms of commitment to different forms of this construct - just as a doctor may feel committed to his or her occupation without feeling an equivalent commitment to the hospital that he or she works for. Peacekeepers can similarly develop separate commitment attitudes for both their national organizations and the IGOs for which they work. Overall, the TNP peacekeepers developed average level commitment attitudes toward their respective international organizations, however these commitment attitudes mostly developed as a result of their personal values and professionalism rather than the way IGOs operate. Day-to-day operations negatively affected their commitment attitudes and revealed the failures embedded in IGO systems. In this regard, it is important to acknowledge that this form of dual commitment and temporary deployment in the peacekeeping missions also induced problems within the respective organizational structures.

In sum, although the quantitative component of this dissertation was limited to exploring the factors that affect the commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers, the qualitative component aimed to explore the potential consequences of the high or low of commitment attitudes of peacekeepers as well. The researcher examined the narratives and experiences of peacekeepers in order to obtain a broader picture of the peacekeeping setting, and by extension, the IGOs. The findings of the qualitative component as well as the previous experience of the researcher paralleled many of the findings found in the literature. In this chapter, both the observations and experiences of the researcher are

represented instead of solely summarizing the findings of the qualitative and quantitative analyses, which were broadly represented in the Analysis and Findings chapter.

6.2 Findings of the Study

Both the quantitative and qualitative findings, based on the theoretical model, which was developed by examining the equity theory and extant literature, indicated a significant influence from the proposed model on organizational commitment. Both the present study and the researcher's experiences and observations that he had as a peacekeeper in Kosovo helped the researcher to extend his opinions about the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers and their potential consequences for IGOs.

In the first part of this study, this research examined the relationships between organizational commitment and the components of the conceptual framework of equity by using OLS regression. This analysis demonstrated that there was a strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and distributive justice, procedural justice, POS, and job satisfaction. Interestingly, the relationship between organizational commitment and supervision satisfaction was negative. Moreover, in contrast to the assumptions of this present study, no relationship was found between commitment attitudes of peacekeepers, and organizational politics, and work-family conflict. These relationships did not differ after including variables in the analysis to control for the effect of demographics in the model.

More to the point, the findings indicated that both the type of IGO and the peacekeepers' willingness to extend their deployment had a strong relationship with the commitment attitudes of the peacekeepers. The UN peacekeepers showed more commitment than their counterparts working for the EU. However, the peacekeepers that

worked for African missions did not differ from their counterparts who worked in the other parts of the world.

This study also assumed that non-married peacekeepers would possibly have a higher-level of commitment to their respective international organizations because family responsibilities would not interfere with their jobs. However, the quantitative analysis showed that married peacekeeper had higher sense of organizational commitment to their organizations compared to their non-married counterparts. More importantly, in the quantitative analysis, the work-family hypothesis was rejected and the data concluded that family issues had no relationship with commitment. Overall, the quantitative component of this dissertation indicated that family-related issues had no relationship with organizational commitment attitudes among TNP peacekeepers.

Although there was no research question looking for the effects of demographics, independent samples t-tests and a one-way ANOVA were utilized to determine if the demographics and work experience would have a differential impact on organizational commitment. Independent samples t-tests revealed that experienced and supervisor officers were more committed to their respective organizations than the others. The tests showed that experienced officers who had been in the mission two or more times were more committed than their counterparts who came to the mission as the first time.

A one-way ANOVA indicated that the location of the mission (East Africa and Europe vs. West Africa) was also important in shaping commitment attitudes of the peacekeepers. The continent of mission location impacted commitment attitudes of peacekeepers and differed among regions or continents. Peacekeepers in East Africa were less committed than their counterparts in West Africa and Asia Pacific. More to the point,

the test also indicated that officers who just came to mission were more committed than their colleagues who had been in the mission 7 to 12 months.

In the second component, the qualitative assessment focused on understandings beyond the relationships between the factors studied and the commitment attitudes of officers. This aspect of the study also revealed that fairness is the most important construct that affects the commitment attitudes of officers. The interviews indicated that lack of equity, which seemed to arise in the form of inequity in assignments, the unfair distribution of positions, and the partial support given to some organization members over others, commonly exists in the daily lives of peacekeeping and IGOs. This part of the analyses also confirmed that work-family conflict was very important in forming the organizational commitment attitudes of TNP peacekeepers. Organizational politics was also one of the leading concerns of the TNP officers. On the other hand, although the supervisor was not deemed especially important as an actor for their organizational behaviors or decisions, and peacekeepers did not see the supervisors as the real representatives of the IGOs, the supervisor's behaviors were perceived as important to them in the context of their daily work life. The results of the qualitative analysis partly acknowledged the fact that the TNP peacekeepers developed commitment attitudes to their respective organizations, not as a result of the quality of the operational functions of the IGOs, but rather due to the personal characteristics and cultural values of the TNP peacekeepers.

In conclusion, this study found that there was a strong perception of unfairness among TNP peacekeepers toward the IGOs they worked for. Thereby, these findings might help IGO managers to better understand the peacekeeping context and employee

behaviors and the importance of equity perceptions among peacekeepers. Furthermore, this might motivate them to redesign their operational functions in their organizations.

6.3 Possible Consequences of Commitment Attitudes of Peacekeepers

As discussed in the literature review of this present study, the existing literature suggests that the uncommitted employees of an organization will possibly have negative impacts on a range of workplace outcomes such as organizational effectiveness, absenteeism, job performance, retention, intent to leave, employee health and well being, turnover, tardiness, failure to meet deadlines and tasks, and organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, it is important to elaborate on the possible organizational consequences, which can arise in the peacekeeping setting due to the presence of having either low or highly committed peacekeepers in their work settings.

After leaving his position as Secretary of State to teach at Harvard, Henry Kissinger found himself challenged by the academics in his new milieu. His remark, "academic politics are so vicious precisely because the stakes are so small." is apt here. This is because I believe that this comment aptly describes the position of the IGOs and peacekeeping missions in world politics. That is, the member and sponsoring countries of IGOs mostly see few gains from the successes of IGOs; hence, peacekeepers of those countries also develop similar feelings toward the IGOs they work for in parallel. As they have a national identity and sometimes a job in their respective countries, they might consider that they do not have too much to lose in the IGO settings, and by extension, there is no obligation that forces them to work for the success of IGOs – it is merely a job in a different place. Neither successful nor failed outcomes of the peacekeeping mission generate significant changes in their lives after the mission. Furthermore, Celik (2010)

found that peacekeepers that are more committed to their national organizations were more likely to adapt more easily to their home organizations after the end of the mission. That is, since keeping their national ties strong makes their life easier after the end of mission and there are existing problems embedded in the IGO system, they do not prefer to develop commitment attitudes toward the IGOs, which is discussed broadly in the next sections.

Indeed, uncommitted peacekeepers are not rare in the peacekeeping settings. It can be argued that the root of the problem emerges from two components. First, the IGOs cannot generate an international identity for peacekeepers over their national identities because the IGOs are not especially strong actors that can dominate and influence an individual to develop commitment attitudes, as do national entities. Second, the IGOs do not have a strong institutional memory that can shape the commitment attitudes of their staff. Therefore, the experience of the mission is limited by the experience of the peacekeeper that has the longest period there. The point is that these influencing factors are reproduced in the organizational cycle. That is, those uncommitted peacekeepers, in turn, develop the same adverse consequences or perpetuate the problems; thus, the IGOs cannot generate a consistent organizational citizenship behavior and institutional memory due to the presence of uncommitted peacekeepers.

On the basis of the aforementioned arguments, it might be argued that peacekeepers always seem to prefer to play the role of representing of their national countries. That is why they do not comply with the strategic decisions of IGO headquarters, and their behaviors are shaped by national norms rather than international citizenship behavior. This situation is very similar to other global problems. For example,

pollution or environmental degradation in failed states largely does not concern the communities of the developed countries; however, the NGOs or other actors of global civil society provide limited assistance to the communities of these failed sites. In accordance with these facts, in practice, today's IGO peacekeepers are not efficient and committed in implementing peace any more than the members of NGOs and global civil society.

There is an ongoing debate as to whether the IGOs are effective and sufficient in sustaining the world's prosperity and security. I argue that although it is not possible to expect absolute success, the history of IGO missions appears to reflect a series of human tragedies. More importantly, these tragedies have mostly taken place after the IGO peacekeepers were deployed to the mission, or sometimes when they were at the scene. In addition to this, historical evidence shows that in the first phases of IGO intervention at a mission site, a temporary truce is more likely to occur in the mission area; however, as the parties or belligerents observe the apathetic behaviors of peacekeepers, the conflicts begin to emerge again in the mission context. This is what the international community recently observed in Kosovo and in the division of Sudan into two countries.

The researcher also observed that there were departments in the mission that were no longer necessary for its success; however, since those offices were originally established at the beginning of the mission and there were peacekeepers working in these departments, there was no policy to redeploy those peacekeepers to sites where they could prove to be more beneficial for the mission's success. Likewise, some departments even preferred not to close the operational cases that they investigated in order to maintain the existence of the department. In other words, the success of the mission

might be ignored for the sake of the peacekeepers' comfort. Furthermore, for example, according to the researchers' field observations in Kosovo, it was not a problem to travel in the country five years ago at all. However, the interviews revealed that at the time of the interviews it was very difficult to travel to the Northern part of Mitrovica, which is one the biggest cities of the country and separated by a river. While Serbian communities reside in the North, Albanian communities reside in the South of the city. The EU police were patrolling North Mitrovica with helicopters or armored vehicles and the bridge that connects the two sides was closed at the time of the interviews as a result of rising ethnic conflicts in the region. In line with this management approaches, we cannot disregard the contribution of apathetic attitudes of IGO personnel to the existing situation when we considered that peacekeepers had existed in the field for along time since 1999 when the UN mission was first initiated.

Peacekeepers sometimes shape the local police's organizational culture. This can occur in a good or bad way. In general, peacekeepers are highly satisfied with their working conditions in the missions because they mostly do not have to work overtime, nor take on too much responsibility compared to their home organizations, at least among TNP peacekeepers. These favorable conditions improve their attachment to their respective IGOs. In line with this fact, Celik's (2010) comprehensive study found that TNP officers who are more satisfied with their jobs in the mission would be more likely to have a hard time reintegrating into their home organizations. Although this finding is of concern for contributor countries, this is a beneficial finding for IGOs, which, in turn, might leverage from this finding the desire to improve their organizational management processes.

However, this satisfaction expectancy outcome is misused in some peacekeeping missions. Consequently, according to the researcher's experience and the interviews of this study, it is very common to hear the mottos, "Enjoy the mission" or "Take it easy" at those mission sites. Unfortunately, to some extent, this has been the final purpose for peacekeepers in most of the missions. The problem is that this generates a certain type of organizational culture for some local police organizations. Since international police peacekeepers select, train and guide them for their duties, they adopt the peacekeepers' behaviors as a model to transfer into their local organizational culture and behaviors. In other words, peacekeepers are the professionals who were selected to serve in the mission; thus, the local police and community keep their eyes on the peacekeepers whose careless behaviors can either raise the tension in a check point or make questionable the legitimacy of peacekeepers in a police training program. Overall, they transfer what they learn to their organizational culture as long as they see committed and professional peacekeepers and when the peacekeepers misbehave, it infects the local police as well.

In this respect, sometimes, there may emerge failures due to the institutional memory or the aforementioned organizational culture developed in the mission context. For example, according to my previous observation, it was very common for peacekeepers to have long coffee breaks in the coffee shops next to their work places in the morning, after lunch and in the late afternoon. This resulted in at least 2 to 3 hours of leisure time away from work everyday. The findings of the qualitative component of this dissertation also revealed that although the UN transferred the mandate to the EU in Kosovo, the members of the Kosovo police organization had already continued to adopt a similar working schedule culture in their organizations. Accordingly, the EU

peacekeepers had taken on similar working habits at the time of interviews. Thus, uncommitted peacekeepers directly influence the formation of the institutional memory of a local organization and can even affect the succeeding IGO's working setting in an unfavorable way.

Organizational culture is something, however, which is very difficult to change. In some cultures and communities, it may take years to change values, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals. When we expect this change in the context of security forces, this change might take more time, because the personnel who work for security forces such as police and military are not as receptive to change as civilians. Being a police officer is not just having a job; it is also a lifestyle with its own culture that influences people in their social lives. Ors (2011) in his outstanding research suggests that police officers have similar working cultures regardless of their home organization and are more prone to work in cooperative regional or multilateral arrangements. Along similar lines, an anonymous Turkish diplomat claimed to the Turkish news media that although cooperation exists among national police organizations in high density, this cooperation does not exist similarly at the political level between Turkey and the other parties. Therefore, it is appropriate to argue that in terms of having similar understandings, particularly in pursuing criminals, police may work more compatibly together compared to the civilians.

However, we have to acknowledge that each police organization has different values and priorities. When considering that police officers are not prone to change, it would be questionable whether one should gather different national police contingents for a specific time to work for an IGO and expect a change in their values and attitudes.

Since every country has a different quality of service and professionalism, we cannot expect a consistently high quality level within the IGOs given the average professional quality of the contributing countries. Even in risky situations such as in police operations or riots, this quality will be experienced at the lowest level because "a chain can only be as strong as the weakest link." In the case of a riot in a peacekeeping mission, all police units are supposed to have some form of moderate training that can help quell the problem; however, the presence of an inexperienced and unattached officer might cause the death of his/her peacekeeper colleagues. In this regard, it is difficult to work in such an insecure environment with coworkers; similarly, it is also difficult to enhance strong commitment attitudes in this type of organizational environment.

The fragmented structure of IGOs has both advantages and disadvantages. In many missions, peacekeepers do not understand the language of the local people. In some missions, they cannot even communicate among themselves In Haiti, for example, peacekeepers can speak either English or French. This situation results in the emergence of another mission milieu inside a mission. As in Haiti, except for bilinguals or Canadian peacekeepers, who mostly know both languages, peacekeepers do not feel any ownership of the mission. That is why, in order to avoid communication encounters, the interviews in such kind of mission settings suggested that peacekeepers did not want to take supervision positions or responsibilities and prefered to return their home country soon after gaining enough capital for their future.

Especially in non-executive missions, police peacekeepers can only suggest where failures in the system exist, and this is a psychological obstacle for them, as they do not feel they have any influence on the system. This advisory position leads them to be good

representatives of the system instead of being good producers. Since they only have the power to report mistakes, rather than doing something to deal with these failures, most prefer to be onlookers instead of contributors to the system. This type of behavior hinders the development of the mission context positively, and in turn, maintains the status quo in the mission site.

Likewise, most may be stuck in an uncomfortable limbo between local politics and IGO politics. Failures and mistakes are possible in every type of organization, but one should not have to cover or hide the failures of employees, to some extent, and Organizations should expect mistakes of their employees and try to compensate for these failures in order to promote the sustainability of the organization. This type of support is very important for an organization if they want employees to become attached to the values of the organization. When we consider that IGOs, more or less, have universal values and their employees generally are supposed to behave in this proposed way, the local mission context should not suppress the peacekeepers' attitudes and behaviors for the sake of the relationships within the mission bureaucracy. However, for example, in some missions, it is very common for a small mistake by of peacekeepers in social media to come to the attention of the upper echelons of the country such as the President or Prime Minister, which in turn, might suppress the peacekeepers' attitudes and behaviors for the sake of local politics. It is good to remember that mission areas are already problematic or failed, and that is why there is an IGO mission. In line with the aforementioned facts, the interviews in parallel to my experience in the mission also demonstrated that it is very common in the missions to do no more work than required,

and to preserve the status quo due to those aforementioned political and social factors that prevent peacekeepers from committing to more universal values of service.

Correspondingly, the peacekeepers' general sentiments also showed that civilians are mostly stuck between the realities of the mission and the expectations of New York or Brussels, the headquarters of the UN and EU, respectively. However, in many cases, organizational success requires taking necessary risks. Yet, it may be argued that civilian chiefs often disregard the needs of the mission or local people and prefer to implement their headquarters' expectations for the sake of good relations with the headquarters. The universal politics that emerge seem to disregard the role of universal values and result in the formation of unfair environments for the employees of IGOs. In sum, these realities and findings generally suggest that there are serious problems that appear in the IGO settings due to the low commitment attitudes of employees towards their organizations, both in the UN and EU.

6.4 Contributions to theory

Although there are various factors that can affect an employee's commitment attitudes, the study utilized only organization and employee relevant factors in the conceptual framework of equity. Equity theory is a robust theory that is used to explain the organizational settings. To the author's best knowledge, in particular, this is the first study that utilized this theory in an international setting and the findings of this study could contribute empirically to the literature of equity theory. Therefore, equity theory and the existing literature aptly shed light on the specification of the model, which consisted of the independent variables. Therefore, the factors, which were included in the model, expanded the scope of organizational commitment and equity theory. More to the

point, the findings of the study are congruent with the model of the conceptual framework of equity, developed for this study. The equity model explained a large amount of the variance of the organizational commitment attitudes of the TNP peacekeepers. Overall, it was found that the equity perceptions of the TNP peacekeepers significantly affected their organizational commitment.

However, the findings, specifically the qualitative findings, revealed that transactional theory is also very appropriate for explaining the commitment attitudes of the peacekeepers. Transactional theory assumes that "there is an exchange between a leader and a follower wherein the leader is satisfied with an outcome that fulfills the particular contractual obligation" (Haberfeld, 2006, p. 83). The transactional leaders do not want to take responsibility and interfere only when the standard work quality is not met in the work environment (Bass, 1990). While transactional leaders prefer to reward workers for their good performance at following routine tasks, those leaders also choose to punish their employees by using their position of power if the employee performs poorly (Kanungo, 2001). This type of leadership is expected to be counterproductive in the long run. However, sometimes, organizational politics, seniority, contract provisions, or inadequate resources can limit the ability of the leader; therefore, there is nothing that the leader can do to motivate employees because there is no power to reward or punish employee behaviors (Bass, 1990).

Transactional leadership is very common in IGOs. These types of leaders mostly engage in processes and rules rather than considering outcomes or moral consequences of the tasks. In one of the researcher's observations, two peacekeepers received warning notices since they crossed the Serbian border when they were working for the War

Crimes Unit in Kosovo. These officers were responsible for searching out either War Criminals, lost individuals or corpses. Their failure might be a serious mistake for nation states whose borders had existed for decades; however, in the case of the Kosovo mission where the borders were not clear and independence was not yet declared, this unintentional act might have been taken as normal.

Indeed, war crimes are committed against humanity, and during the conflict they can be committed anywhere within the borders of the country. If you have evidence as a police officer, you have to follow it as soon as possible. In this case, the officers crossed unknowingly. Afterwards, their leadership officially warned them threating to cancel their right to request for official extension to stay for longer periods in the mission. They were told to behave according to the strict rules of the mission and not to try to aim for any more desirable outcomes. The general attitude of the supervisors was not to take any responsibility more than necessary. Official written reports hindered the peacekeepers' ability to carry out robust investigations in the field. Political regulations triumphed over international justice, to the detriment of the peacekeepers' morale.

6.5 Policy Implications for IGOs and peacekeeping

This present research study attempted to derive a picture of the organizational management of IGOs and peacekeeping missions where the IGOs are expected to show their best practices. This research went beyond the examination of organizational commitment attitudes of peacekeepers and factors that affect it, because both the quantitative and qualitative analysis shed light on the fact that there are impediments to the quality of operational functions of IGOs, especially in their field operations. Therefore, the researcher would recommend generating broader policy implications for

IGOs and peacekeeping missions by using data from this present study and the researcher's experience in a peacekeeping mission. This background allowed the researcher to extend suggestions for both operational and structural reforms in the context of peacekeeping and IGOs. Overall, these potential policy recommendations for IGOs are discussed below and follow their implications broad to narrow.

This study also revealed that IGOs had quite unfair management environments within their organizations in their daily functions. It is possible to see various perspectives on the implications for the IGO systems. One aspect of IGOs is their security role in international relations, which constitutes one of their most important components. Both global and regional IGOs that operate in different parts of the world encounter significant obstacles in carrying out their security role. However, regardless of what their role is and what they are burdened with, effective management can only be achieved by a top-down along with a bottom-up commitment from the organizations' employees. As in any organization that wants to achieve this target and practice its organizational goals in the field, this study proposes structural, policy, and personnel reforms for improving the basic organizational structures and functions of IGOs. These reforms can enhance equity in the organization and advance the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers.

Structural Changes

Global and regional IGOs need a sea change in their organizational behaviors. Although peacemaking is only one component of IGOs, it is the most important element of their organizational structures. Therefore, as long as they are not successful in the field, they should not be successful in world politics regardless of their perfect and

egalitarian charters and constitutions. Likewise, if the world has already experienced 125 peacekeeping operations in its history (Heldt & Wallensteen, 2005) and security and peace is not easily achieved in world politics at all, it may be argued that these organizations are not functioning at all adequately.

With respect to the realist approach in international relations studies, I argue that the underlying problem lies in the structures of IGOs, which operate by relying on the power races between superpowers and the unequal distribution of votes among states in the IGO charters. The states are already the main policy makers of the system, and they, in turn, shape the politics of IGOs. Both the UN and EU have a bad reputation for intervening too late to impact ethnic conflicts such as in Bosnia and Rwanda. The question is who were the late ones, the UN or EU? Or, were the powerful states at fault?

The same scenario continues recurring in world politics today. For example, if the UN had reasonable grounds to intervene to Syria –keeping in mind that it is questionable to intervene in a nation state, could it intervene in Syria because of ongoing massacres in the country in spite of China and Russia's vetoes to UN Security Council resolutions? The IGO system should be independent regardless of the power of the nation states. There is not too much to be gained when they intervene in a conflict after the death of one million people such as in Rwanda, thousands in Bosnia, or now in Syria. In order words, late coming peace is not a true peace anymore. That is, if you are on the ground as a peacekeeper, it is important not to be perceived as modern colonist of a 21st century or a latecomer by the communities that you serve. When they believe in you as a peacekeeper, you commit yourself to serve them better.

In line with the above arguments, if IGOs could improve their organizational structures, they would be able to generate a global identity for their workforce. If behaving like global citizens is encouraged among IGO staff, this could help devalue their national identities and emphasize their international character. A similar transformation is evident in US politics. For example, according to the researcher's experience talking with Turkish nationals living outside Turkey, either in Europe or the US, while Turkish immigrants to the US identify themselves as Americans, the Turkish community, even the third generation in Europe, views themselves as "Turkish living in Europe". When the host country welcomes immigrants and gives them a sense of attachment to a superpower state, the immigrants prefer to be identified with the host country, rather than their home country.

This form of attachment can be engendered within IGOs as well. However, this is only possible by reconstructing IGOs as independent institutions. This may be achieved by collecting taxes or donations from communities of the world rather than giving the control of IGOs to superpowers or donor states. Additionally, to some extent, there are NGOs in the realm of world politics that could succeed in creating this form of management one independent from any outside authority.

Policy Change

The IGOs policy systems, especially those oriented around peacekeeping, function by the motto, "If it ain't broke, don't fix it". The researcher's observations and the narratives of the peacekeepers demonstrated that peacekeeping missions all have similar prescriptions written by their headquarters. The only major difference between types of missions is that they can take either executive or advisory roles; however, this

minor difference is even less important than the living conditions of the mission on the behaviors of peacekeepers. Therefore, the IGOs need to make modifications to the models that they employ in peacekeeping missions. For this purpose, the following arrangements are proposed:

- Each mission site has different characteristics; thereby, global and regional organizations have to take the mission site and community characteristics into consideration, and then, they must decide what type of peacekeeping to mandate at the site. While cooperation among IGOs could be useful in some places, a single IGO might be more efficient in others. For example, the UN and AU have cooperative sites in the Darfur (UNAMID) mission, but the dominance of the politics of African countries in the mission could hinder the peacekeepers' attachments to the mission area.

- The mission's organizational goal should be to implement an efficient workforce in the mission area and enhance the mission capacity. That is, peacekeeping missions do not belong to regional organizations or countries neighboring the mission area. Therefore, the mandate has to prevent the dominance of any form of country or regional politics in the peacekeeping setting. Furthermore, the contributing peacekeepers have to be individuals who can teach global ethical values to the local people rather than individuals who have cultural proximity. This will bring fairness to the organization's politics and increase the attachment of the peacekeepers to their respective IGOs.

- A multidimensional peacekeeping definition must include all the activities needed to improve the local situation in the long term. Mostly, peacekeepers have the

belief that "there is nothing I can do here" or "it is not worthwhile to work hard, after we leave, they will be as before". This is particularly true because the IGOs mostly do not have long-term political appointments in the peacekeeping settings; hence, when appointees leave the mission, the local former politicians and bureaucracy take control again. If only for this reason, local people may wish to see the IGOs remain in the mission area. To this end, it is important to implement comprehensive models for the development of mission sites.

Personnel Change

Both civilians and uniformed personnel might have difficulty developing a sense of commitment toward their organizations because both of them work under the work contracts of their respective IGOs for either longer or shorter terms. Accordingly, employee rotation is very common in IGOs. Some may argue that the biggest global companies have high employee turnovers and are quiet successful in their jobs. However, IGOs are not global companies seeking profits. Their first priority is to construct an egalitarian and sustainable world for the communities of our planet to live in peace. Viewed in this way, it is important to develop structural, policy, and personnel reforms under the current IGO systems in order to have a committed workforce that functions efficiently.

The best option would be hiring long-term employees for IGOs. Although some might claim that it is less expensive way to deploy peacekeepers from contributing countries for the short term, however, when considered the arguments in this present study and international relations studies, some can easily argue that the IGOs can operate more successfully by deploying less man power than the current number of peacekeepers

in the mission areas. This is possible by hiring more sophisticated and committed personnel for longer terms with higher salaries. The longer stays lead to stronger institutional memory within the IGOs as well, and by extension, they help to develop more positive organizational citizenship behavior that will enhance commitment attitudes in the work settings.

Furthermore, these personnel have to be involved in all units of life in the mission areas. For example, General Samuel McCroskey opened Biarritz American University in France during WWII and converted area hotels and casinos to labs and classes, where 10000 US soldiers graduated in a one-year period. This type of idiosyncratic model might be implemented in the missions where peacekeepers, providing graduate level certificates from a UN University, and increasing the value of the organization as workplaces.

6.6 Limitations

This study is not without its limitations. The data from the variables examined in this study were collected at a single point in time from each respondent through surveys and semi-structured interviews, and are cross-sectional. They only provide a "snapshot" of peacekeepers' opinions and attitudes at a specific period of time. Therefore, this study has the limitations of all cross-sectional studies. In line with this fact, the main limitation of this present study was that the researcher had no control of the independent variables.

In addition, generally speaking, it is not possible to explain the behavior of individuals and organizational outcomes solely through employees' perceptions. That is, despite the fact that there can be numerous other factors important to the analysis, this research was limited to the model developed as a result of an exploration of the literature and in light of equity theory. Therefore, this study examined the phenomenon in question

by holding other factors constant. By so doing the data analysis allowed us to make inferences concerning the relationship between the factors and the commitment attitudes of peacekeepers. The correlational data analysis helped to produce causal inferences for the study, but it was not possible to generate a causal relationship between the variables of this study.

In line with the aforementioned limitations, the questions asked in the online survey were limited in numbers by both the technological concerns and the participation rates. Since it was an online survey and there was no control of respondents, it would be problematic to obtain higher response rates. Living conditions, including Internet access vary among the peacekeeping missions. Although the model was somewhat comprehensive, it cannot be argued that this study included all possible variables to explain the construct. Although the interviews allowed for the revelation of some underlying subtle factors, the qualitative data did not constitute the main research evidence of this present study.

Although there were methodological justifications for choosing TNP peacekeepers as the sample of this study, this study's generalizability to other peacekeepers and IGO staff is also limited. The TNP peacekeepers were the representatives of only one national contingent; and furthermore, the job rotation was a routine one among peacekeepers because their duty on the mission only lasted for a specific period of time. Therefore, in terms of methodology, the study was limited for purposes of generalizing the findings to all TNP peacekeepers because these findings are only generalizable for the TNP peacekeepers that served the IGOs during the implementation of this present research. Furthermore, slightly more than 20% of the TNP

peacekeepers did not participate in this study. The existing shortcomings of this present study do not prevent us from making inferences about peacekeeping and IGOs' organizational settings, but the empirical findings are limited to the TNP peacekeepers who served in the IGOs during the months of October through December 2012.

The other limitation was that this study was conducted thorough a web-based questionnaire using Internet technology. Although the interviews were conducted by phone or face to face, the participants of the questionnaire were not under the control of the researcher. So, it was not possible to control respondents in terms of their training and participation in the questionnaire. Although all possible necessary instructions were included in the questionnaire, it cannot be guaranteed that all of them understood the requirements of the questionnaire or shared their frank and sincere perceptions with the security of anonymity.

The researcher used all available technological resources such as controlling for IP addresses, email filtering, and geo-location to identify the participants' locations and prevent anyone from double participation in the questionnaire. However, some of the peacekeepers were working in the same department or offices, sharing the same home, or even living in the same container, therefore there were identical IP addresses among the respondents. It was also not possible to distinguish the email addresses of respondents who preferred to join through the email solicitation of the researcher's personal contacts, since there were no identifying emails addresses in those cases. Interestingly, some of the IP addresses indicated the locations of the missions' neighboring countries, especially for those in Africa, because of technological limitations of the region. As a result, it was not

totally possible to train and control for overexposure of the participants, as is possible in hand-delivered questionnaires.

Lastly, the questionnaire, which was used for the quantitative analysis of this study, was a Turkish translated version of the original questionnaire. Although all the appropriate steps were followed for the translation of the questionnaire's items, some perceptional problems may have appeared nevertheless. When considering cultural and geographic differences, there might be differences between cultures and nations; hence, their perception of commitment and sense of values may show disparities.

6.7 Future Research

The findings of this study brought forth numerous suggestions for further research. This study was interested in exploring the commitment level of peacekeepers and the factors affecting this; however, further research should explore the possible consequences of peacekeepers' commitment attitudes in their organizational settings. Although this study was conducted using the assumptions of previous research with respect to organizational outcomes of commitment attitudes of employees, when considering that IGOs have unique working environments, new findings for organizational management research may emerge. If further research is done to develop our knowledge about the possible consequences of organizational commitment, it could be possible to envision improvements in the quality of organizational management in IGOs.

Since previous research on peacekeeping mostly focused on secondary data and exploring to what extent peacekeeping operations and IGOs are effective in their operationalization, researchers should focus on acquiring primary data regarding the field

of peacekeeping operations. To develop IGOs' organizational performance, these further areas of research should focus on the deployment phase of peacekeepers rather than on their national assignments or return policies. Since most research centers are nation based, their area of interest is generally limited to their national contingents' success and to the reorientation of their national forces. Existing research focusing on the attitudes and behaviors is very limited in the context of peacekeeping and IGO sites. Prospective researchers may want to assess the perceptions of peacekeepers and communities of missions in order to obtain a better understanding of life at the grassroots level. This type of research should involve more of a bottom-up rather than top-down approach and would be more realistic for revealing the success of IGOs.

On the other hand, perceptions may not always correlate with the actual behaviors of individuals, which rely on the self-reports by the subjects in question. By extension, the measurement of perception may not be a true indicator of organizational performance. Thus, it is very difficult to measure the organizational success of IGOs that operate globally and are dispersed around the world. However, the actors of the global scene really need to understand how well IGOs and peacekeeping missions operate, and to what extent they are successful in bringing peace to the communities that they serve. For this purpose, more comprehensive longitudinal or experimental research should be implemented in peacekeeping settings to explore causal relationships among effective factors and consequences of organizational commitment in order to improve organizational management in IGOs.

Furthermore, this study was interested in the perceptions of TNP peacekeepers, who constituted a good sample for providing an in-depth view of IGOs and

peacekeeping. However, further research may consider expanding the sample to other international police, soldiers, civilian peacekeepers, and even to the IGO headquarters to explore more sites and should try to obtain more international perspectives. Although they all work under the umbrella of the IGOs, either global or regional, there may be other factors that influence the organizational management in those organizations. Sometimes, even the type of peacekeeper might be an important factor. For example, a police peacekeeper with a Gendarmerie background might exhibit different types of commitment and management attitudes in the mission settings from a peacekeeper with a police background in his or her home country. Similarly, in terms of local staff, this type of study may also reveal idiosyncratic factors embedded in the mission site such as the multicultural or multi-ethnic structure of the mission. Local people supply a significant amount of staff resource needs of IGOs, and this type of factor may be a hidden one that influences different organizational settings, which, in turn, may affect organizational commitment and management in the different IGOs.

More interestingly, researchers could make a very robust contribution by exploring the commitment attitudes and factors affecting peacekeeping and possible outcomes of the commitment construct among different global, regional, and peacekeeping actors such as NATO, the AU, and so forth.

Although this present study used a mixed study approach, further research may focus on the application of more qualitative research in order to extract the in-depth opinions of peacekeepers and documents and develop comprehensive narrative data. By doing so, it might be possible to explore the reasons for additional findings and develop more international perspectives. In this way, it might also be possible to generate more

culturally and nationally sensitive questions, which would lead researchers towards a more broad understanding of the peacekeeping setting and IGOs' organizational environments.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abraham, S. E., Friedman, B. A., & Thomas, R. K. (2005). The Impact of Union Membership on Intent to Leave: Additional Evidence on the Voice Face of Unions. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *17*(4), 201–213.

Adams, J. S. (1963). Towards an understanding of inequity. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *67*(5), 422.

Adams, J. S. (1966). Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, *2*, 267–299.

Adams, J. S., & Freedman, S. (1976). Equity theory revisited: Comments and annotated bibliography. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, *9*, 43–90.

Addae, H. M., Parboteeah, K. P., & Velinor, N. (2008). Role stressors and organizational commitment: public sector employment in St Lucia. *International Journal of Manpower*, *29*(6), 567–582.

Adler, E. (1997). Seizing the Middle Ground. *European Journal of International Relations*, *3*(3), 319–363.

Alexander, Y. (2002). *Combating terrorism: strategies of ten countries*. Univ of Michigan Pr.

Allen, I. E., & Seaman, C. A. (2007). Likert scales and data analyses. *Quality Progress*, *40*(7), 64–65.

Allen, N. J. (2003). Organizational commitment in the military: A discussion of theory and practice. *Military Psychology*, *15*(3), 237–253.

Amernic, J. H., & Aranya, N. (1983). Organizational Commitment: Testing Two Theories. *Relations industrielles*, *38*(2), 319. doi:10.7202/029355ar

Andersson, A. (2000). Democracies and UN peacekeeping operations, 1990–1996. *International Peacekeeping*, *7*(2), 1–22.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social Identity Theory and the Organization. *The Academy of Management Review*, *14*(1), 20–39. doi:10.2307/258189

Babbie, E. (2010). *The practice of social research . Belmont, CA, US: Wadsworth Cengage Learning*. Inc.

Baksh, A. M. (2010, February). Organizational commitment of managerial employees: a unified theory and antecedents. Retrieved September 1, 2012, from http://eprints.usq.edu.au/19481/

Bartone, P. T., Adler, A. B., & Vaitkus, M. A. (1998). Dimensions in psychological stress in peacekeeping operations. *Military Medicine*. Retrieved from http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1998-12073-001

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational dynamics*, *18*(3), 19–31.

Bateman, T. S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of management journal*, 95–112.

Beck, K. (1996). Improving organisational commitment: The police officer's perspective. *No.: ISBN 0-7308-0134-9*, 28.

Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (1995). The development of organisational commitment across the career span of police officers. *No.: ISBN 0-642-22762-4*, 73.

Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (1997). Police officers' views on cultivating organizational commitment: Implications for police managers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *20*(1), 175–195.

Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American journal of Sociology*, 32–40.

Berry, W. D. (1993). *Understanding Regression Assumptions*. Sage Publications.

Bourg, C., & Segal, M. W. (1999). The impact of family supportive policies and practices on organizational commitment to the Army. *Armed Forces & Society*, *25*(4), 633–652.

Boxx, W., & Odom, R. (1991). Organizational values and value congruency and their impact on satisfaction, commitment, and.. *Public Personnel Management*, *20*(2), 195.

Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2003). *SPSS for psychologists: A guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows, versions 9, 10 and 11*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Brockner, J., Konovsky, M., Cooper-Schneider, R., Folger, R., Martin, C., & Bies, R. J. (1994). Interactive effects of procedural justice and outcome negativity on victims and survivors of job loss. *Academy of management Journal*, 397–409.

Broer, H., & Emery, M. (1998). Civilian police in UN peacekeeping operations. *Policing the New World Disorder: Peace Operations and Public Security, Robert B. Oakley, Michael J. Dziedzic, and Eliot M Goldberg, eds.(Washington, DC: National Defense University Press, 1998), 370p*.

Brooke Jr, P. P. (1986). Beyond the Steers and Rhodes model of employee attendance. *Academy of Management Review*, 345–361.

Brunetto, Y., & Farr-Wharton, R. (2003). The commitment and satisfaction of lower-ranked police officers: Lessons for management. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *26*(1), 43–63.

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

Call, C., & Barnett, M. (1999). Looking for a few good cops: peacekeeping, peacebuilding and CIVPOL. *International Peacekeeping*, *6*(4), 43–68.

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. R. (1983). Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organizational members. *Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures, and practices*, *71*, 138.

Carrapatoso, A., & Schlipphak, B. (2011). "Bringing the individual back in" - International Relations and the First Image Subject: International Relations. Presented at the Eurepean Consortium for Political Research, St Gallen. Retrieved from www.ecprnet.eu/joint_sessions/st_gallen/documents/.../14.pdf

Cassidy, R. M. (2004). *Peacekeeping in the abyss: British and American peacekeeping doctrine and practice after the Cold War*. Praeger Publishers.

Castaing, S. (2006). The effects of psychological contract fulfilment and public service motivation on organizational commitment in the French civil service. *Public policy and administration*, *21*(1), 84–98.

Celik, A. (2010). *Assessment of post-deployment reintegration attitudes among Turkish police peacekeepers and its associations with organizational commitment*. Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey.

Chen, X., Ender, P., & Wells, C. (2003). *SPSS Web Books-Regression with SPSS*. Institute for Digital Research and Education. Retrieved from http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/spss/webbooks/reg/default.htm

Cho, K. H., & Lee, S. H. (2001). Another look at public-private distinction and organizational commitment: A cultural explanation. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *9*(1), 84–102.

Clay-Warner, J., Hegtvedt, K. A., & Roman, P. (2005). Procedural justice, distributive justice: How experiences with downsizing condition their impact on organizational commitment. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *68*(1), 89–102.

Code of Ethics for United Nations Personnel. (n.d.). Retrieved from www.unjustice.org/CodOE.pdf

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, *86*(2), 278–321.

Coleman, K. P. (2007). International organisations and peace enforcement: the politics of international legitimacy. *Recherche*, *67*, 02.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of applied psychology*, *86*(3), 425.

Comrey, A. L., & Lee, H. B. (1992). *A first course in factor analysis*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. W. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. Pract Assess Res Eval 2005; 10. *pareonline. net/getvn. asp*, *10*, 7.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Currie, P., & Dollery, B. (2006). Organizational commitment and perceived organizational support in the NSW police. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *29*(4), 741–756.

Dahm, J. (2006). Practical Approaches to EMPLOYEE RETENTION. *Law & Order*, *54*(12), 68.

DeConinck, J. B., & Stilwell, C. D. (2004). Incorporating organizational justice, role states, pay satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction in a model of turnover intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, *57*(3), 225–231.

DeGroot, G. J. (2001). A Few Good Women: Gender stereotypes, the military and peacekeeping. *International Peacekeeping*, *8*(2), 23–38.

Deluga, R. J. (1994). Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *67*(4), 315–326.

Dick, G., & Metcalfe, B. (2001). Managerial factors and organisational commitment-A comparative study of police officers and civilian staff. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *14*(2), 111–128.

Dillman, D. A. (2007). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method*. John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Dornstein, M., & Matalon, Y. (1989). A comprehensive analysis of the predictors of organizational commitment: A study of voluntary army personnel in Israel. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *34*(2), 192–203.

Downie, S. (2002). Peacekeepers and Peace-Builders Under Stress. In *Sharing the Front Line and the Back Hills: International Protectors and Providers: Peacekeepers, Humanitarian Aid Workers and the Media in the Midst* (Vol. 67, p. 02).

Doyle, M. W. (1986). Liberalism and world politics. *The American Political Science Review*, 1151–1169.

Dubinsky, A. J., & Levy, M. (1989). Influence of organizational fairness on work outcomes of retail salespeople. *Journal of Retailing*. Retrieved from http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1990-06290-001

Dunteman, G. H. (1989). *Principal Components Analysis*. Sage Publ.

Durch, W. J, & Center, H. L. . (2010). United Nations Police Evolution, Present Capacity and Future Tasks. *GRIPS Discussion Papers*.

Durch, William J. (1996). *UN Peacekeeping, American Politics, and the Uncivil Wars of the 1990s*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Eisenberg, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(1), 51–59.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, *71*(3), 500–507.

English, B. (2008). "Climate for ethics" and occupational-organisational commitment conflict. *Journal of Management Development*, *27*(9), 963–975.

Ethics in Peacekeeping. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.peaceopstraining.org/e-learning/course-descriptions/7/ethics-in-peacekeeping/

EUFocus. (2008). *EU Focus Fact Sheet*.

European Union External Action. (n.d.). Retrieved February 12, 2013, from https://www.consilium.europa.eu/eeas/security-defence/eu-operations?lang=en

Felfe, J., Schmook, R., Schyns, B., & Six, B. (2008). Does the form of employment make a difference?–Commitment of traditional, temporary, and self-employed workers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *72*(1), 81–94.

Ferris, G. R., Adams, G., Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ammeter, A. P. (2002). Perceptions of organizational politics: Theory and research directions.

Ferris, G. R., Frink, D. D., Galang, M. C., Zhou, J., Kacmar, K. M., & Howard, J. L. (1996). Perceptions of organizational politics: Prediction, stress-related implications, and outcomes. *Human Relations*, *49*(2), 233–266.

Ferris, G. R., Russ, G. S., & Fandt, P. M. (1989). Politics in organizations. In *Impression management in the organization* (Vol. 27, pp. 143–170).

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics through SPSS:(and sex and drugs and rock'n'roll)*. Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage Publications.

Fields, D. L. (2002). *Taking the Measure of Work: A Guide to Validated Scales for Organizational Research and Diagnosis*. SAGE.

Flynn, D. M., & Tannenbaum, S. I. (1993). Correlates of organizational commitment: Differences in the public and private sector. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *8*(1), 103–116.

Fortna, V. P., & Howard, L. M. (2008). Pitfalls and Prospects in the Peacekeeping Literature*. *Annual Review of Political Science*, *11*(1), 283–301. doi:10.1146/annurev.polisci.9.041205.103022

Fowler, F. J. (2002). *Survey research methods* (3rd edition., Vol. 1). California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Fox, J. (1991). *Regression diagnostics*. Newbury Park, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Frost, J. A. (2006). *Predictors of job satisfaction and turnover in police organizations: A Procedural Approach*. University of Illinois at Chicago.

Gade, P. A. (2003). Organizational commitment in the military: An overview. *Military Psychology*, *15*(3), 163–166.

Gade, P. A., Tiggle, R. B., & Schumm, W. R. (2003). The measurement and consequences of military organizational commitment in soldiers and spouses. *Military Psychology*, *15*(3), 191–207.

Giffords, E. D. (2009). An Examination of Organizational Commitment and Professional Commitment and the Relationship to Work Environment, Demographic and Organizational Factors. *Journal of Social Work*, *9*(4), 386–404. doi:10.1177/1468017309346232

Gilpin, R. G. (1996). No one loves a political realist. *Security Studies*, *5*(3), 3–26.

Goulet, L. R., & Frank, M. L. (2002). Organizational commitment across three sectors: public, non-profit, and for profit. *Public Personnel Management*, *31*(2), 201–210.

Gourevitch, P. (1978). The second image reversed: the international sources of domestic politics. *International Organization*, *32*(4), 881–912.

Greenberg, J. (1989). Cognitive reevaluation of outcomes in response to underpayment inequity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 174–184.

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

Gutek, B. A., Searle, S., & Klepa, L. (1991). Rational versus gender role explanations for work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology*, *76*(4), 560.

Haarr, R. N. (1997). "They're making a bad name for the department": Exploring the link between organizational commitment and police occupational deviance in a police patrol bureau. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *20*(4), 786–812.

Haberfeld, M. R. (2006). *Police leadership*. Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F. H., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2009). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 176–190.

Hassan, A. (2002). Organizational justice as a determinant of organizational commitment and intention to leave. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, *7*(2), 55–66.

Heffner, T. S., & Gade, P. A. (2003). Commitment to nested collectives in Special Operations Forces. *Military Psychology*, *15*(3), 209–224.

Heldt, B. (2008). UN and Non-UN Peacekeeping Operations, 1948–2005.

Heldt, B., & Wallensteen, P. (2005). *Peacekeeping Operations: Global Patterns of Intervention and Success, 1948-2004*. Folke Bernadotte Academy.

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behaviour: Its elementary forms*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.

Honouring 60 Years of United Nations Peacekeeping. (2010). Retrieved December 5, 2010, from http://www.un.org/events/peacekeeping60/factsheet.shtml

Hough, P. (2008). *Understanding global security*. Routledge.

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

Intriligator, M. D. (1994). Global Security After The End of The Cold War. *Conflict Management and Peace Science*, *13*(2), 101–111. doi:10.1177/073889429401300201

Iverson, R. D., & Roy, P. (1994). A causal model of behavioral commitment: Evidence from a study of Australian blue-collar employees. *Journal of Management*, *20*(1), 15–41.

Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, *33*(7), 14–26.

Judge, T. A., & Colquitt, J. A. (2004). Organizational justice and stress: the mediating role of work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology; Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(3), 395.

Julnes, G. (1999). Principal component analysis, factor analysis, and cluster analysis. *PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC POLICY*, *71*, 549–598.

Julnes, G. (2007). Identifying Dimensions and Types in Public Administration Research: Introduction to Principal Components Analysis, Factor Analysis, and Cluster Analysis. In *Handbook of research methods in public administration* (2nd Edition., Vol. 134, pp. 515–564). Boca Raton, FL:Auerbach Publications: CRC.

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

Kanungo, R. N. (2001). Ethical values of transactional and transformational leaders. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, *18*(4), 257–265.

Karns, M. P., & Mingst, K. A. (2004). *International organizations: The politics and processes of global governance*. Lynne Rienner Publishers London.

Keohane, R. O. (1989). Neoliberal institutionalism: A perspective on world politics. *International Institutions and State Power: Essays in International Relations Theory*, 1–20.

Keohane, R. O., & Martin, L. L. (1995). The promise of institutionalist theory. *International Security*, *20*(1), 39–51.

Klockars, C. B., Ivkovic, S. K., & Haberfeld, M. R. (2004). *The Contours of Police Integrity*. SAGE.

Krasner, S. D. (1982). Regimes and the limits of realism: regimes as autonomous variables. *International Organization*, *36*(02), 497–510.

Lambert, E. G., Hogan, N. L., & Griffin, M. L. (2007). The impact of distributive and procedural justice on correctional staff job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *35*(6), 644–656.

Lawson, R. J. (2012). The Effect of Viva Assessment on Students' Approaches to Learning and Motivation. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*, *2*(2), 120–132.

Leiter, M. P., Clark, D., & Durup, J. (1994). Distinct models of burnout and commitment among men and women in the military. *The Journal of applied behavioral science*, *30*(1), 63–82.

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

Lipsky, M. (2010). *Street-level bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the individual in public services*. Russell Sage Foundation Publications.

Litz, B. T., Orsillo, S. M., Friedman, M., Ehlich, P., & al, et. (1997). Posttraumatic stress disorder associated with peacekeeping duty in Somalia for U.S. military personnel. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, *154*(2), 178–84.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Chicago: Rand McNally*, 1319–1328.

Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2001). Antecedents of organizational commitment and the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *16*(7/8), 594–613.

Lowe, R. H., & Vodanovich, S. J. (1995). A field study of distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *10*(1), 99–114.

Luthans, F., Taylor, L., & Baack, D. (1987). Organizational Commitment : Ananlysis of Antecedents. *Human Relations*, *40*(4), 219–235. doi:10.1177/001872678704000403

Lyons, S. T., Duxbury, L. E., & Higgins, C. A. (2006). A comparison of the values and commitment of private sector, public sector, and parapublic sector employees. *Public Administration Review*, *66*(4), 605–618.

Maanen, J. V. (1975). Police Socialization: A Longitudinal Examination of Job Attitudes in an Urban Police Department. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *20*(2), 207–228. doi:10.2307/2391695

Markovits, Y., Davis, A. J., & Van Dick, R. (2007). Organizational commitment profiles and job satisfaction among Greek private and public sector employees. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, *7*(1), 77–99.

Martin, C. G. A. (2012). *Understanding terrorism: Challenges, perspectives, and issues*. Sage Publications, Incorporated.

Martin, J. E., & Peterson, M. M. (1987). Two-tier wage structures: Implications for equity theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, 297–315.

Maslyn, J. M., & Fedor, D. B. (1998). Perceptions of politics: Does measuring different foci matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(4), 645.

Mathieu, J. E. (1988). A causal model of organizational commitment in a military training environment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *32*(3), 321–335.

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.

Maxfield, M. G., & Babbie, E. R. (2008). *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology*. Wadsworth Pub Co.

McNabb, D. E. (2010). *Research methods for political science: quantitative and qualitative approaches*. ME Sharpe Inc.

McNabb, N. S. (2009). *The daily floggings will continue until morale improves: An examination of the relationships among organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to turnover*. The University Of Oklahoma. Retrieved from http://gradworks.umi.com/33/52/3352987.html

Mearsheimer, J. J. (2001). *The tragedy of great power politics*. WW Norton & Company.

Meier, K. J., Brudney, J. L., & Bohte, J. (2006). *Applied statistics for public and nonprofit administration*. Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2000). Is the force still with you? Measuring police commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *15*(8), 812–832.

Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2001). Exploring organisation commitment in the police: Implications for human resource strategy. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *24*(3), 399–420.

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: Theory, research, and application*. Sage publications, inc.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology; Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 538.

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.

Miller, B. K., Rutherford, M. A., & Kolodinsky, R. W. (2008). Perceptions of organizational politics: A meta-analysis of outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *22*(3), 209–222.

Miner, J. B. (2005). *Organizational Behavior: essential theories of motivation and leadership* (Vol. 1). ME Sharpe Inc.

Minton, J. W., Lewicki, R. J., & Sheppard, B. H. (1994). Unjust Dismissal in the Context of Organizational Justice. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 135–148.

Mitchell, T. R., & Scott, W. G. (1987). Leadership failures, the distrusting public, and prospects of the administrative state. *Public Administration Review*, 445–452.

Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998). Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior? *Academy of Management journal*, 351–357.

Moorman, R. H., Niehoff, B. P., & Organ, D. W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *6*(3), 209–225.

Morgenthau, H. (1973). *Politics among nations: the struggle for peace and power*. New York: Knopf.

Morrow, P. C. (1993). *The theory and measurement of work commitment*. Jai Press Greenwich, CT.

Mowday, R. T. (1999). Reflections on the study and relevance of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *8*(4), 387–401.

Mowday, R. T., & Colwell, K. A. (2003). Employee reactions to unfair outcomes in the workplace: The contributions of Adams' equity theory to understanding work motivation. *Motivation and work behavior*, 65–82.

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

Mueller, C. W., & Lawler, E. J. (1999). Commitment to nested organizational units: Some basic principles and preliminary findings. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 325–346.

Mullenbach, M. J. (2005). Deciding to Keep Peace: An Analysis of International Influences on the Establishment of Third-Party Peacekeeping Missions. *International Studies Quarterly*, *49*(3), 529–556.

Naumann, E. (1993). Antecedents and Consequences of Satisfaction and Commitment among Expatriate Managers. *Group & Organization Management*, *18*(2), 153–187. doi:10.1177/1059601193182003

Oakley, R. B., Dziedzic, M. J., & Goldberg, E. M. (2002). *Policing the New World Disorder: peace operations and public security*. Natl Defense Univ Pr.

Ors, H. (2011). *What are the lessons that can be learned from Turkey's transnational operational police cooperation experiences* (Ph.D.). Rutgers The State University of New Jersey - Newark, United States -- New Jersey.

Oye, K. A. (1986). Explaining cooperation under anarchy: hypotheses and strategies. *Cooperation under anarchy*, 1–24.

PBS, (Public Broadcasting Service). (2009). Can the U.N. Keep the Peace? . NOW on PBS. Retrieved December 5, 2010, from http://www.pbs.org/now/shows/520/index.html

Perryer, C., & Jordan, C. (2005). The influence of leader behaviors on organizational commitment: A study in the Australian public sector. *Intl Journal of Public Administration*, *28*(5-6), 379–396.

Pinder, C. C. (1998). *Work motivation in organizational behavior*. Prentice Hall.

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.

Press Conference by Force Commander of United Nations Mission in Haiti. (2010). Retrieved December 5, 2010, from http://www.un.org/News/briefings/docs/2010/100218_MINUSTAH.doc.htm

Randall, D. M. (1990). The Consequences of Organizational Commitment: Methodological Investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *11*(5), 361–378.

Randall, M. L., Cropanzano, R., Bormann, C. A., & Birjulin, A. (1999). Organizational politics and organizational support as predictors of work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *20*(2), 159–174.

Remler, D. K., & Van Ryzin, G. G. (2011). *Research methods in practice: Strategies for description and causation*. Sage Publications.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of applied psychology*, *87*(4), 698.

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.

Roberts, J. A., Coulson, K. R., & Chonko, L. B. (1999). Salesperson perceptions of equity and justice and their impact on organizational commitment and intent to turnover. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 1–16.

Russo, M., & Buonocore, F. (2012). The relationship between work-family enrichment and nurse turnover. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *27*(3), 216–236. doi:10.1108/02683941211205790

Sageman, M. (2004). *Understanding terror networks*. Univ of Pennsylvania Pr.

Sampson, R. J., & Groves, W. B. (1989). Community structure and crime: Testing social-disorganization theory. *American Journal of Sociology*, 774–802.

Scholte, J. A. (2005). *Globalization: a critical introduction*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Segal, M. W. (1986). The military and the family as greedy institutions. *Armed Forces & Society*, *13*(1), 9–38.

Seven, H. (2012). *An Analysis of the Effect of Internal Communication Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment in the Turkish National Police (TNP)*. University of Baltimore.

Sheldon, M. E. (1971). Investments and involvements as mechanisms producing commitment to the organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 143–150.

Simon, H. A. (1991). Organizations and markets. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *5*(2), 25–44.

Sims, R. L. (2000). *Bivariate data analysis: A practical guide*. Nova Science Pub Inc.

Sirkin, R. M. (2006). *Statistics for the social sciences*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Snyder, C. R., Shorey, H. S., Cheavens, J., Pulvers, K. M., Adams III, V. H., & Wiklund, C. (2002). Hope and academic success in college. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(4), 820.

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American journal of community psychology*, *13*(6), 693–713.

Spector, P. E. (1992). *Summated rating scale construction: An introduction*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Stebbins, R. A. (1970). On misunderstanding the concept of commitment: A theoretical clarification. *Social Forces*, *48*(4), 526–529.

Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *22*(1), 46–56. doi:10.2307/2391745

Steijn, B., & Leisink, P. (2006). Organizational commitment among Dutch public sector employees. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, *72*(2), 187–201.

Stevens, J. P. (1992). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Stowers, D. P. (2010). *Perceived organizational support and organizational commitment in the United States Army Reserve* (Ph.D.). Capella University, United States -- Minnesota.

Straub, D., Boudreau, M. C., & Gefen, D. (2004). Validation guidelines for IS positivist research. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, *13*(24), 380–427.

Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1993). Workers' evaluations of the" ends" and the" means": An examination of four models of distributive and procedural justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. Retrieved from http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1993-43464-001

Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1997). Process and outcome: Gender differences in the assessment of justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. Retrieved from http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1997-42376-006

Tabachnick, B., & Fidell, L. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5 th.). Pearson.

Tanner, F. (2010). Addressing the Perils of Peace Operations: Toward a Global Peacekeeping System. *Global Governance*, *16*(2), 209–217. doi:Article

UN 2005 Report Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict. (2005). Retrieved from http://www.unric.org/en/unric-library/26575

UN Ethics Office. (2009). Activities of the Ethics Office Report of the Secretary-General Sixty-fourth session. United Nations General Assembly.

UN Ethics Office. (2012). Putting Ethics to Work. Retrieved from www.un.org/ar/ethics/pdf/WorkinTogetherGuide_en.pdf

UN Principles&Guidelines. (2008). UN Peacekeeping Operations: Principles and Guidelines. *International Peacekeeping (13533312)*, *15*(5), 742–799. doi:Article

UN Special Commitee Recommendations on Peacekeeping Operations Report. (2009). United Nations General Assembly Implementation of the Recommendations of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations Report of the Secretary-General -Sixty-fourth session Agenda item 33. Retrieved December 5, 2010, from http://www.securitycouncilreport.org

UNDPKO Fact Sheet. (2013). UN Peacekeeping Fact Sheet. UN DPKO. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/resources/statistics/factsheet.shtml

United Nations Peacekeeping. (n.d.). Retrieved November 26, 2012, from http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/overview.shtml

United Nations Police. (n.d.-a). Retrieved January 4, 2013, from http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/sites/police/work.shtml

United Nations Police. (n.d.-b). Retrieved February 22, 2013, from http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/sites/police/division.shtml

United Nations Standards of Conduct. (2013, February 12). *UN Conduct and Discipline Unit*. Retrieved from http://cdu.unlb.org/UNStandardsofConduct/CodeofConduct.aspx

Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (1992). Examining the causal order of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Journal of Management*, *18*(1), 153–167.

Verrill, D. L. (2011). *United Nations Peackeeping Missions: The Effect of Peacekeepers on Mission Effectiveness*. The University of Texas at Dallas.

Walker, J., & Maddan, S. (2009). *Statistics in Criminology and Criminal Justice: Analysis and Interpretation* (3th ed.). Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Walster, E., Berscheid, E., & Walster, G. W. (1973). New directions in equity research. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *25*(2), 151–176. doi:10.1037/h0033967

Waltz, K. (1979). Theory of international politics. *Reading: Addison-Wesley*.

Waltz, K. N. (1990). Realist thought and neorealist theory. *Journal of International Affairs*, *44*(1), 21–37.

Warner, R. M. (2009). *Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques*. Sage Publications, Incorporated.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management journal*, 82–111.

Weisburd, D., & Britt, C. (2007). *Statistics in criminal justice*. Springer.

Wendt, A. (1992). Anarchy is what states make of it: the social construction of power politics. *International organization*, *46*(02), 391–425.

Williams, L. J., & Hazer, J. T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: A reanalysis using latent variable structural equation methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(2), 219.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of consumer research*, 341–352.

Zeffane, R. (1994). Patterns of organizational commitment and perceived management style: A comparison of public and private sector employees. *Human Relations*, *47*(8), 977–1010.

Zimmerman, G., & Weber, W. (2000). Care for the Caregivers: a program for Canadian military chaplains after serving in NATO and United Nations peacekeeping missions in the 1990s. *Military medicine*, *165*(9), 687.

APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A Informed Consent Form for Questionnaire

You are invited to participate to this survey research developed by Onur M. Koprulu, a Doctoral student from Rutgers University in Newark, New Jersey, USA. The purpose of this study is to measure and assess organizational commitment among peacekeepers that were assigned to work in intergovernmental organizations, the UN or EU. This study will help to broaden the scope of existing knowledge in the field of intergovernmental organizations and their operation.

The questionnaire should take approximately 7 to 10 minutes to complete. Researcher will ask almost (250) TNP peacekeepers that are currently working for the UN and EU to complete the survey.

There are not any foreseeable risks or benefits for you associated with this project. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate in the survey, or not to answer any questions with which you are not comfortable. Furthermore, you can withdraw from the survey at any point without any penalty to you. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing this questionnaire.

Your survey responses will be strictly confidential and data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate, and the data will only be used for academic purposes. Your information will be coded and will remain confidential.

Should you have questions at any time regarding this study or the procedures, please feel free to contact Onur M. Koprulu at 973 873 8258, or email me at: okoprulu@pegasus.rutgers.edu or you can contact my study advisor Dr. Norman Samuels by email at: samuelsn@andromeda.rutgers.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research subject, you can contact the Institutional Review Board Administrator at Rutgers University at 848 932 0150 or humansubjects@orsp.rutgers.edu.

 Thank you very much for your participation and time.

Please start with the survey now by clicking on the Continue button below.

APPENDIX B UN (EU) Police Questionnaire

Introduction Question

Which international organization do you currently work for?

a. UN (United Nations)   b. EU (European Union)

Section 1. Organizational Commitment Scale (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent perceptions that officers might have about the international organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the UN (EU), please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree, with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No.		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1.1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the UN (EU) be successful					
1.2	I talk up the UN (EU) to my friends as a great organization to work for					
1.3	I would accept almost any types of job assignment in order to keep working for the UN (EU)					
1.4	I find that my values and the UN (EU)'s values are very similar					
1.5	I am proud to tell others that I am part of the UN (EU)					
1.6	The UN (EU) really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance					
1.7	I am extremely glad that I chose the UN (EU) to work					
1.8	I really care about the fate of the UN (EU)					
1.9	For me, working at the UN (EU) is the best of all possible international organizations for which to work					

Section II. Procedural Justice Scale (Sweeney and McFarlin, 1997)

Listed below are a series of statements specifically related to your perception of justice of procedures in the international organization for which you work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No.		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
2.1	I am not sure what determines how I can get a promotion in the UN (EU) (R)					
2.2	I am told promptly when there is a change in policy, rules, or regulations that affects me					
2.3	It's really not possible to change things around here (R)					
2.4	In general, disciplinary actions taken in the UN (EU) are fair and justified					
2.5	I am not afraid to "blow the whistle" on things I find wrong with the UN (EU)					
2.6	If I were subject to an involuntary personnel action, I believe the UN (EU) would adequately inform me of my grievance and appeal rights					
2.7	I am aware of the specific steps I must take to have a personnel action taken against me reconsidered					

Distributive Justice Scale (Sweeney and McFarlin 1997)

Listed below are a series of statements specifically related to your perception for justice distribution of opportunities and facilities in the international organization for which you work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No.		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
3.1	Promotions here usually depend on how well a person performs on his/her job					
3.2	My supervisor evaluated my performance on things not related to my job (R)					
3.3	I will be demoted or removed from my position if I perform my job poorly					
3.4	I will be promoted or given a better position if I perform especially well					
3.5	My own hard work will lead to recognition as a good performer					

Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Eisenberger et. al 1986)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent feelings that an officer might have about the support from the international organization for which they work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No.		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
4.1	The UN (EU) strongly considers my goals and values					
4.2	Help is available from the UN (EU) when I have a problem					
4.3	The UN (EU) really cares about my well being					
4.4	The UN (EU) is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability					
4.5	Even if I did the best job possible, the UN (EU) would fail to notice (R)					
4.6	The UN (EU) cares about my general satisfaction at work					
4.7	The UN (EU) shows very little concern for me (R)					
4.8	The UN (EU) cares about my opinions					
4.9	The UN (EU) takes pride in my accomplishments at work					

Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann et. al.)

Listed below are a series of statements that might represent perceptions regarding your satisfaction with your job while you are assigned in intergovernmental organizations. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No.		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
5.1	All in all, I am satisfied with my job in the UN (EU)					
5.2	In general, I don't like my job in the UN (EU) (R)					
5.3	In general, I like working in the UN (EU)					

Work Family Conflict Scale (Family Interference with work) (Gutek et. al. 1991)

Listed below are a series of statements that might represent perceptions that is associated interference of your family's with your work while you are on duty in UN (EU) mission. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
6.1	I'm often too tired at work in the UN (EU) because of the things I have to deal at my family					
6.2	My personal demands regarding my family life are so great that it takes away from my work at the UN (EU)					
6.3	My superiors and colleagues dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work in the UN (EU)					
6.4	My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work in the UN (EU).					

Organizational Politics Scale (Maslyn and Fedor, 1998)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent perceptions of politics in international organizations in which officers are assigned. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
7.1	There has always been an influential country (police) contingent in the UN (EU) that no one ever crosses					
7.2	Opportunities and promotions come only to those who work hard in the UN (EU) (R)					
7.3	I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of a few individuals, not the work unit or the organization					
7.4	Promotion decisions are not consistent with existing organizational policies					

Supervision Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1985)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent perceptions that might be related to your satisfaction with your supervisor while you are assigned in intergovernmental organizations. Please indicate the extent to which you agree, or disagree with the following statements by checking the box that best corresponds to the level of your agreement with each statement. SD (Strongly disagree-1), D (Disagree - 2), N (Neither Agree Nor Disagree - 3) A (Agree - 4), and SA (Strongly Agree - 5).

No.		Participation Level				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
8.1	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job					
8.2	My supervisor is unfair to me (R)					
8.3	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates (R)					
8.4	I like my supervisor					

Section III. Background Information
Listed below are a number of socio-demographic and work experience questions.

Please specify your choice that best describes your situation.

1. What is your age?

a. 25 – 30   b.31 – 35   c.36 – 40   d.41 – 45   e.46 or older

2. Gender   a. Female   b. Male

3. Marital Status   a. Married   B. Single or others (Divorced, Widowed,

Separated etc.)

4. Your highest education: a. High school degree or equivalent

b. Associate degree (e.g.   AA, AS)

c. Bachelor's degree (e.g. BA, AB, BS)

d. Master's or Doctorate degree

5. What is your rank in your home country?

   a. Staff   (Officer, First or Second Sergeant)

   b. First Level Manager (Captain, First or Second Lieutenant)

   c. Middle Level Manager (Superintendent, Third or Fourth Degree Chief

Superintendent)

   d. Higher Level Manager (First or Second Degree Chief Superintendent)

6. Are you a supervisor in your current mission?   a. Yes   b. No

7. How many months have you worked in your current UN (EU) mission?

   a. 3 months or less   b. 4 – 6 months c. 7 – 9 months d. 10 – 12 months e. 13 – 15

months f. 16 months or more

8. Have you applied /Will you apply to get an extension to work in the UN (EU)?

   a. Yes   b. No

9. How many times did you serve for international organizations' missions (including

your current mission)?

   a. My first time   b. 2nd times   c. 3rd times   d. 4th or more times

10. What kind of work are you doing in the UN (EU) mission?

   a. Office/Administrative   b. Patrol/Police Station   c. Field/Operational

11. Which mission are you working in the (UN or EU)?

   For UN   a. UNMIT   b. UNOCI   c. MINUSTAH   d. UNMIK

                 e. UNMIL   f. UNMISS g. UNAMID

                 h. MONUSCO   i. UNIPSIL   j. UNSMIL k. UNAMA l. Others

   For EU a. EUPM (Bosnia and Herzegovina) b. EULEX (Kosovo) c. Others

12. Is there anything else that you want to add to your comments?

APPENDIX C Interview Consent Statement Form

You are invited to participate in a research study that is being conducted by Onur M. Koprulu, a doctoral student at Rutgers University in Newark-New Jersey, USA. The purpose of this study is to measure and assess organizational commitment among peacekeepers that were assigned to work in intergovernmental organizations, the UN or EU. This study will help to broaden the scope of existing knowledge in the field of intergovernmental organizations and their operation.

Approximately 5-10 subjects, who are working as peacekeepers in the UN and EU will participate in the study, and each individual's participation will last approximately 30 to 45 minutes. Participation means providing certain information about yourself: position, agency affiliation, experience within the agency you work for, and experience within the field mission you work in and responding to semi-structured questions which are related to the objectives of this research. Your oral consent grants the investigator named above permission to interview with you regarding the aforementioned subject matters.

All information will be confidential. Confidential means that I will keep this information confidential/private by limiting any individual's access to the research data and keeping it in a secure location. The Institutional Review Board at Rutgers University and I are the only parties that will be allowed to see the data, except as may be required by law. If a report of this study is published, or the results are presented at a professional conference, only group results will be stated. All study data will be kept until the research is officially approved by Rutgers University.

There are no foreseeable risks to participation in this study. You may not have any direct or indirect benefits from this study. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate, and you may withdraw at any time during the study procedures without any penalty to you. In addition, you may choose not to answer any questions with which you are not comfortable.

If you have any questions about the study or study procedures, you may contact me by email at okoprulu@pegasus.rutgers.edu , or you can contact my study advisor Dr. Norman Samuels by email at: samuelsn@andromeda.rutgers.edu.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the IRB Administrator, at Rutgers University at:

Rutgers University, the State University of New Jersey

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs

ASB III, 3 Rutgers Plaza, New Brunswick, NJ 08901-8559

Tel: 848 932 0150

Email: humansubjects@orsp.rutgers.edu

You will be given a copy of this consent form for your records.

Audiotape Addendum to Consent form

You have already agreed to participate in a research study that is being conducted by Onur M. Koprulu, who is doctoral student in the Division of Global Affairs at Rutgers University in Newark, New Jersey-USA. The purpose of this study is to measure and assess organizational commitment among peacekeepers that were assigned to work in intergovernmental organizations, the UN or EU. This study will help to broaden the scope of existing knowledge in the field of intergovernmental organizations and their operation.

You are asked for your permission to allow me to audiotape (sound), as part of that research study. You do not have to agree to be recorded in order to participate in the main part of the study. The recording will last approximately 30 to 45 minutes.

Participation means providing certain information about yourself: position, agency affiliation, experience within the agency you work for, and experience within the field mission you work in and responding to semi structured questions which are related to the objectives of this research.

All information will be confidential. Confidential means that I will keep this information confidential/private by limiting any individual's access to the research data and keeping it in a secure location. The Institutional Review Board at Rutgers University and I are the only parties that will be allowed to see the data, except as may be required by law. If a report of this study is published, or the results are presented at a professional conference, only group results will be stated. All study data will be kept until the research is officially approved by Rutgers University.

There are no foreseeable risks to participation in this study. You may not have any direct or indirect benefits from this study. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate, and you may withdraw at any time during the study procedures without any penalty to you. In addition, you may choose not to answer any questions with which you are not comfortable.

The recording(s) will be used for analysis by the researcher. The recording(s) will be stored in a locked file cabinet and linked with a code to subjects' identity; and will be destroyed after three years of completion of this research.

Your oral consent grants the investigator named above permission to record you as described above during participation in the above-referenced study. The investigator will not use the recording(s) for any other reason than that/those stated in the consent form without your written permission.

You will be given a copy of this consent form for your records.

APPENDIX D Interview Questions

1. What do you think about the UN (EU) mission overall? Tell me about your views and opinions considering your experiences within the UN (EU) as a police officer.

2. What were the main reasons that led you to work for the UN (EU)? And, how satisfied are you with your current situation? Would you consider again joining another peacekeeping mission in the future?

3. Do you have any idea or information about the expectations of the UN (EU) from UN (EU) police officers in the mission? If yes, how did you get this information?

4. In short, commitment can be defined as someone's identification with and involvement in the UN (EU). In this context, do you feel yourself committed to the UN (EU)? Why? Why not?

5. Do you think your commitment to the UN (EU) has increased, decreased, or remained the same sense since you came to the mission? What were the main reasons that increased or decreased your commitment to the UN (EU) so far?

6. What do you think regarding your coworkers' commitment level in the UN (EU)? Tell me about the problems that stem from officers that are not committed to the UN (EU), and what are the factors that make them (not) committed to the UN (EU)?

7. Did you choose to work in this current mission? How do the conditions (such as local people, food, accommodation, equipment, and the relations with co-workers) of the mission to which peacekeepers are assigned impact officers' commitment to the UN (EU)?

8. What do you think that the main criteria of the assignments? Do you think the assignments of officers are fair regardless of their country of origin, rank etc.?

9. How is the relationship with your supervisor affect your attachment to your current organization in overall?

10. Do you think there is a difference in the level of organizational support between international civilian personnel and UN (EU) Police officers? If yes, how would this affect your commitment to the UN (EU)?

11. How non-family working conditions affect your commitment to the UN (EU)?

12. Do you care about the success (future) of the UN (EU) in this mission? Why (not)?

13. Is there anything else that you want to add to your comments?

APPENDIX E E-Mail Invitations

EMAIL INVITATION

Hello,

My name is Onur Koprulu and I am both a doctoral student at Rutgers University and a Major in the Turkish National Police. I am conducting a survey developed to measure organizational commitment among peacekeepers assigned either in the United Nations or European Union.

The survey is voluntary, and all information collected is confidential. Information collected will be used solely for this research.

In order to qualify to participate in this survey you must be a peacekeeper working for either in the UN or the EU. You are kindly invited to participate this survey. It usually takes 7 to 10 minutes to complete the survey.

To participate the survey please click on the link www.questionpro.com .

Your participation and contribution are appreciated.

Sincerely,
Onur Koprulu
The Division of Global Affairs – Doctoral Candidate
Rutgers University - New Jersey - U.S.

REMINDER E-MAIL

This is a reminder requesting your participation in the survey about your experiences as a peacekeeper assigned to the UN or EU.

If you have already completed the survey I would like to thank you for your participation. If you have not taken the survey please visit the URL provided to participate, as you will not be afforded the opportunity to do so once the survey closes.

The survey is voluntary, confidential and should take approximately 7-10 minutes to complete.

To participate the survey please click on the link www.questionpro.com

Your participation and contribution are appreciated,

Onur Koprulu
The Division of Global Affairs – Doctoral Candidate
Rutgers University - New Jersey - U.S.

APPENDIX F IRB Approval

RUTGERS UNIVERSITY
Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
ASB III, 3 Rutgers Plaza, Cook Campus
New Brunswick, NJ 08901

October 19, 2012

P.I. Name: Koprulu
Protocol #: 13-127M

Onur Murat Koprulu
163 Meriline Ave Apt G
Woodland Park NJ 07424

Dear Onur Koprulu:

(Initial / Amendment / Continuation / Continuation w/ Amendment)

Protocol Title: "Examining the Antecedents of Organizational Commitment in the Context of UN and EU Police Contingents in Conflict and Terror Areas"

This is to advise you that the above-referenced study has been presented to the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research, and the following action was taken subject to the conditions and explanations provided below:

Approval Date:	10/10/2012	**Expiration Date:**	10/9/2013
Expedited Category(s):	6,7	**Approved # of Subject(s):**	260

This approval is based on the assumption that the materials you submitted to the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs (ORSP) contain a complete and accurate description of the ways in which human subjects are involved in your research. The following conditions apply:
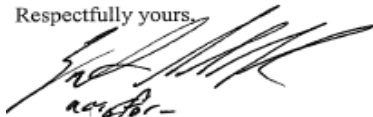
- **This Approval**-The research will be conducted according to the most recent version of the protocol that was submitted. **This approval is valid ONLY for the dates listed above;**
- **Reporting**-ORSP must be immediately informed of any injuries to subjects that occur and/or problems that arise, in the course of your research;
- **Modifications**-Any proposed changes MUST be submitted to the IRB as an amendment for review and approval prior to implementation;
- **Consent Form(s)**-Each person who signs a consent document will be given a copy of that document, if you are using such documents in your research. The Principal Investigator must retain all signed documents for at least three years after the conclusion of the research;
- **Continuing Review**-You should receive a courtesy e-mail renewal notice for a Request for Continuing Review before the expiration of this project's approval. However, it is your responsibility to ensure that an application for continuing review has been submitted to the IRB for review and approval prior to the expiration date to extend the approval period;

Additional Notes: **Expedited Approval per 45 CFR 46.110**

Failure to comply with these conditions will result in withdrawal of this approval.

Please note that the IRB has the authority to observe, or have a third party observe, the consent process or the research itself. The Federal-wide Assurance (FWA) number for the Rutgers University IRB is FWA00003913; this number may be requested on funding applications or by collaborators.

Respectfully yours,

Sheryl Goldberg
Director of Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
gibel@grants.rutgers.edu

cc: Norman Samuels

APPENDIX G Factor Loadings and Reliability

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Organizational Commitment

Item No	Items	Component[a]
		1
7	I am extremely glad that I chose the UN (EU) to work	**.821**
5	I am proud to tell others that I am part of the UN (EU)	**.791**
6	The UN (EU) really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	**.771**
9	For me, working at the UN (EU) is the best of all possible international organizations for which to work	**.743**
8	I really care about the fate of the UN (EU)	**.670**
2	I talk up the UN (EU) to my friends as a great organization to work for	**.667**
4	I find that my values and the UN (EU)'s values are very similar	**.656**
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the UN (EU) be successful	**Removed**
3	I would accept almost any types of job assignment in order to keep working for the UN (EU)	**Removed**

a.1 components extracted.

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Organizational Commitment

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 2	21,1946	20,092	**.533**	**.842**
Item 4	21,6595	19,530	**.534**	**.843**
Item 5	21,1243	19,631	**.688**	**.822**
Item 6	21,7568	18,533	**.660**	**.824**
Item 7	21,0324	19,249	**.721**	**.817**
Item 8	20,9784	19,663	**.556**	**.839**
Item 9	21,9622	18,852	**.630**	**.828**

Cronbach's Alpha   .852

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Procedural Justice[a]

Item No	Items	Component	
		1	2
1	I am not sure what determines how I can get a promotion in the UN (EU) (R)	**.744**	.036
2	I am told promptly when there is a change in policy, rules, or regulations that affects me	**.732**	.134
3	It's really not possible to change things around here (R)	**.679**	.157
4	In general, disciplinary actions taken in the UN (EU) are fair and justified	**.541**	.349
5	I am not afraid to "blow the whistle" on things I find wrong with the UN (EU)	-.058	**.840**
7	I am aware of the specific steps I must take to have a personnel action taken against me reconsidered	.242	**.698**
6	If I were subject to an involuntary personnel action, I believe the UN (EU) would adequately inform me of my grievance and appeal rights	.437	**.646**

[a]Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Procedural Justice

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1 (Reverse)	9,8821	5,280	**.476**	**.581**
Item 2	9,1077	5,715	**.458**	**.594**
Item 3 (Reverse)	9,5282	5,570	**.440**	**.605**
Item 4	9,3744	5,978	**.419**	**.619**

Cronbach's Alpha   .667

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Awareness of Process Fairness

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 5	7,0625	2,635	**.405**	**.629**
Item 6	7,1094	2,475	**.496**	**.510**
Item 7	7,3281	2,284	**.488**	**.517**

Cronbach's Alpha .651

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Distributive Justice[a]

Item No	Items	Component
		1
4	I will be promoted or given a better position if I perform especially well	.834
1	Promotions here usually depend on how well a person performs on his/her job	.787
3	I will be demoted or removed from my position if I perform my job poorly	.765
5	My own hard work will lead to recognition as a good performer	.607
2	My supervisor evaluated my performance on things not related to my job (R)	.605

a.1 components extracted.

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Distributive Justice

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	13,0670	8,830	.614	.706
Item 2 (Reverse)	12,3402	10,371	.428	.769
Item 3	12,7577	9,169	.582	.718
Item 4	12,6443	8,603	.677	.683
Item 5	12,1392	10,431	.428	.768

Cronbach's Alpha .773

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Perceived Organizational Support[a]

Item No	Items	Component 1
4	The UN (EU) is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability	.839
3	The UN (EU) really cares about my well being	.829
6	The UN (EU) cares about my general satisfaction at work	.813
1	The UN (EU) strongly considers my goals and values	.792
8	The UN (EU) cares about my opinions	.788
9	The UN (EU) takes pride in my accomplishments at work	.782
7	The UN (EU) shows very little concern for me (R)	.776
2	Help is available from the UN (EU) when I have a problem	.776
5	Even if I did the best job possible, the UN (EU) would fail to notice (R)	.693

a. 1 components extracted.

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Perceived Organizational Support

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	26,0604	38,554	.723	.915
Item 2	25,8187	39,608	.715	.916
Item 3	25,9011	38,753	.772	.912
Item 4	26,0549	37,522	.784	.911
Item 5 (Reverse)	25,8297	39,822	.623	.922
Item 6	26,0934	38,472	.770	.912
Item 7 (Reverse)	26,0934	38,759	.705	.916
Item 8	26,0110	39,193	.727	.915
Item 9	26,0714	39,437	.711	.916

Cronbach's Alpha .924

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Job Satisfaction[a]

Ite m No	Items	Component
		1
1	All in all, I am satisfied with my job in the UN (EU)	**.900**
3	In general, I like working in the UN (EU)	**.881**
2	In general, I don't like my job in the UN (EU) (R)	**.772**

a.1 components extracted.

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Job Satisfaction

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	7,8454	2,173	**.727**	**.652**
Item 2 (Reverse)	8,0155	1,984	**.549**	**.848**
Item 3	7,7887	2,095	**.682**	**.685**

Cronbach's Alpha .798

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Work Family Conflict[a]

Item No	Items	Component	
		1	2
1	I'm often too tired at work in the UN (EU) because of the things I have to deal at my family	**.883**	.095
2	My personal demands regarding my family life are so great that it takes away from my work at the UN (EU)	**.870**	.185
3	My superiors and colleagues dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work in the UN (EU) (Removed)	.003	.934
4	My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work in the UN (EU) (Removed)	.454	.746

a. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Work Family Conflict

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	1,87	.422	**.606**	-
Item 2	2,15	.657	**.606**	-

Cronbach's Alpha .743

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Organizational Politics[a]

Item No	Items	Component
		1
4	Promotion decisions are not consistent with existing organizational policies	**.915**
3	I have seen changes made in policies here that only serve the purposes of a few individuals, not the work unit or the organization	**.880**
2	Opportunities and promotions come only to those who work hard in the UN (EU) (R)	**.774**
1	There has always been an influential country (police) contingent in the UN (EU) that no one ever crosses	Removed

a. 1 components extracted.

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Organizational Politics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 2 (Reverse)	6,2565	3,708	**.556**	**.862**
Item 3	6,7801	3,267	**.703**	**.720**
Item 4	6,5759	2,940	**.770**	**.646**

Cronbach's Alpha .819

Factor Loadings for Items Measuring Supervision Satisfaction[a]

Item No	Items	Component
		1
4	I like my supervisor	**.892**
1	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job	**.863**
3	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates (R)	**.826**
2	My supervisor is unfair to me (R)	**.644**

a. 1 components extracted

Item-Total Correlations for the Attitudes toward Supervision Satisfaction

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	10,4767	5,063	**.699**	**.751**
Item 2 (Reverse)	10,2591	5,880	**.466**	**.855**
Item 3 (Reverse)	10,3420	5,070	**.678**	**.761**
Item 4	10,4404	5,039	**.758**	**.725**

Cronbach's Alpha .822

CURRICULUM VITAE

Date of Birth: 16.07.1978
Place of Birth: Turkey

EDUCATION

High School Diploma: Police College, Turkey, 1995
Bachelors of Arts: Security Science Faculty, Turkey, 1999
Masters of Arts: Istanbul University, in Public Administration, Turkey, 2002
Master's of Science, Global Affairs, Rutgers University, NJ, USA, 2011
Doctor of Philosophy: Global Affairs, Rutgers University, NJ, USA, 2013

EMPLOYMENT

Turkish National Police (TNP) 1999-2010 Served in various departments as a ranked officer (Lieutenant through Major)
Served as a UN Police Peacekeeper in Kosovo 2005-2006
Fellowship with IACP (International Association of Chiefs of Police) in Washington D.C. in 2008
Awarded Medal of the United Nations and Certificate of Appreciation by War Crimes Department in UNMIK 2006
Received numerous certificates and awards from Ministry of Interior and Governor of Istanbul, Turkey, 1999-2010
Research Assistant, The Division of Global Affairs, Rutgers University, Spring 2013

PUBLICATIONS
"Performance Based Management in City Government: Implementation of CitiStat in Baltimore, U.S.A.", Journal of Contemporary Local Administrations, TODAIE, Volume 20, Number 2, April 2011