

CALIFORNIA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY

Riverside, California

Understanding the Employee Commitment for Organizational Change:

Case of Bureau of Customs Port of NAIA

A Dissertation Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree
Doctor of Business Administration

Renzzo Mari D. Baliao

Dr. Robert K. Jabs School of Business

July 2023

Understanding the Employee Commitment for Organizational Change:

Case of Bureau of Customs Port of NAIA

Copyright © 2023

by Renzzo Mari D. Baliao

Understanding the Employee Commitment for Organizational Change:
Case of Bureau of Customs Port of NAIA

by

Renzo Mari D. Baliao

has been approved by the Dr. Robert K Jabs School of Business in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree Doctor of Business Administration

August 2023

DocuSigned by:
Henry L. Petersen
3405400E30B347E

Henry L. Petersen, Ph.D., Committee Chair

DocuSigned by:
Tad A. Hove

Tad Hove, Ph.D., Committee Member

DocuSigned by:
Dean Tim Gramling
CA2DA3AB550845F

Tim Gramling, LPD., FACHE, Committee Member

DocuSigned by:
Dean Tim Gramling
CA2DA3AB550845F

Tim Gramling, LPD., FACHE, Dean, Jabs School of Business

ABSTRACT

Customs administration is pivotal in supporting a nation's economic activities and competitive advantages by optimizing revenue collection, enhancing operational paradigms, and facilitating trade while managing risks. Customs administrations also implement varying tariffs, taxation policies, and import/export regulations to effectively respond to global supply and demand fluctuations. The Bureau of Customs (BOC) in the Philippines oversees customs operations through 17 ports, including the Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA). With the recent change in the national government, employee commitment to organizational change becomes crucial for aligning processes with the new government's objectives. A mixed methods research design involving a survey questionnaire and focus group discussions was employed, and the findings revealed a high level of employee commitment to organizational change, particularly in affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Moreover, employees perceived individual learning, successful implementation, and improved performance as outcomes of organizational change. The study highlighted the significance of affective commitment on individual learning and presented a complementary partial mediation effect of individual learning on improved performance through implementation success. Although some aspects of the adapted conceptual framework were supported, further research is recommended to explore additional variables and strengthen the understanding of organizational commitment to change.

Keywords: Customs administration, Organizational change, Employee commitment, Customs processes, Philippines

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my teachers throughout the entire course. Their wisdom and guidance have enabled me to develop my reading and comprehension skills as well as enhance my patience and writing abilities, allowing me to effectively synthesize information. I am also immensely thankful to my advisor, Dr. Petersen, who generously devoted his time and effort to the entire writing process despite the time differences caused by our geographical distance. Our video meetings and email exchanges provided invaluable guidance and insights, aiding me in crafting my dissertation and conducting the analysis.

Furthermore, I am grateful to my committee members, Dr. Gramling and Dr. Hove, who dedicated their efforts to reading and improving my dissertation to meet the university's high standards. Their constructive comments and suggestions have enriched my understanding of the field and elevated the quality of my work, thereby contributing to the knowledge base in my subject area. I would also like to thank California Baptist University for providing me with this enriching experience. The course has honed my critical thinking, passion, and determination, leading me to this significant achievement.

To my friends and family, I owe this milestone to your love and unwavering support. Thank you for encouraging me to embark on this journey; now, I am able to offer this success to you. Special thanks to my close friend, mentor, and statistician, Nogin, whose tireless support has been instrumental in the numerous revisions and clarifications regarding statistical methods and tools. This guidance has not only developed my knowledge but also honed my ability to comprehend their relevance.

To my fiancée, Laurenzie, thank you for your patience and understanding throughout my journey. Despite the challenges, your unwavering support in helping me achieve my goals means more to me than I can express. To those whom I have not specifically mentioned, thank you for your prayers and for helping me stay focused on my objectives. Your support has been a constant source of blessings and motivation, encouraging me to persevere and remain steadfast.

Last, I offer my gratitude to the Lord, for none of these accomplishments would be possible without His mercy, wisdom, and guidance. I humbly dedicate this degree to further His purpose, and I am grateful for the opportunity to experience this life-changing achievement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Problem	1
Statement of the Research Problem	3
Purpose Statement	4
Research Questions	4
Hypotheses	5
Scope and Significance of the Problem	8
Operational Definitions	9
Organization of the Study	10
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	11
Theoretical Foundations of Organizational Commitment	11
Predictors of Organizational Commitment	13
Affective Commitment	14
Continuance Commitment	15
Normative Commitment	16
Intrinsic or Personal Characteristics	17
Extrinsic Factors	18
Organizational Change and Change Readiness	19
Trust and Social Relationships in the Workplace	22
Related Studies on Organizational Commitment and Organizational Change	23
Organizational Commitment, Social Relationships in the Workplace, and Readiness for Organizational Change	23
Organizational Commitment, Relationship With Supervisor, Organizational Support, and Change Readiness	25
Individual, Process and Context Factors, Organizational Change Readiness, and Commitment to Change	26
Organizational Commitment, Employee Engagement, and Individual Readiness for Change	28
Determinants of Employee Readiness for Organizational Change	28
Personality Traits, Employees' Commitment to Change, and Organizational Culture	30
Leadership, Readiness to Change, and Commitment to Change	31
Organizational Commitment, Trust in Peers and Supervisors, and Readiness for Organizational Change	32

Role of Employee Commitment, Trust in Peers and Supervisors, and Readiness for Organization Change.....	33
Synthesis	34
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	36
Purpose Statement.....	36
Research Questions	36
Conceptual Framework of the Study	36
Protection of Human Subjects	37
Research Design.....	39
Population	39
Sample40	
Instrument	42
Data Collection	43
Data Analysis	45
Design and Instrument Limitations.....	47
Summary	47
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS.....	49
The Demographic Profile of the Respondents	49
Study Variables	54
Determining the Relationship of the Variables Using Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling.....	75
Assessment of the Measurement Model	75
Model Fit Indices	75
Indicator Reliability Using Factor Loadings.....	76
Reliability Analysis and Convergent Validity Tests.....	78
Cross Loadings.....	79
Discriminant Validity Using Fornell–Larcker Criterion.....	81
Discriminant Validity Using Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT).....	81
Assessment of the Structural Model	82
Indicator Multicollinearity	82
Explanatory Power.....	84
Predictive Power	84
PLS-SEM Results	85
Employee–Manager Relationship.....	88
Job Motivation	89
Role Autonomy	90
Moderating Effect of the Demographic Profile of Respondents	91
Effect of Individual Learning for Organizational Change on Perceived Performance Improvement as Mediated by Perceived Success of Implementation	94
CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	98
Findings.....	98
Summary of Hypotheses Testing.....	100
Conclusion	100

Research Implications	103
Theoretical Implications	103
Practical Implications.....	105
Recommendations.....	106
Enhancing Employee Fit Toward Strategic Vision	107
Strengthening Employee–Manager Relationships.....	107
Enhancing Job Motivation	108
Promoting Role Autonomy	108
Recommendations for Future Research.....	108
Concluding Remarks and Reflection	110
REFERENCES	112
APPENDIX—SURVEY INSTRUMENT	125

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Employee Needs on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as Illustrated by Samaranayake and Takemura	22
Table 2. Number of Employees in Port of NAIA	41
Table 3. Reliability Tests of the Instruments Used in Parish et al. (2008)	44
Table 4. Sex of the Respondents	50
Table 5. Age of the Respondents	51
Table 6. Marital Status of the Respondents	51
Table 7. Educational Attainment of the Respondents	52
Table 8. Professional Level of the Respondents	53
Table 9. Divisions of the Respondents	55
Table 10. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Employee Fit Toward Strategic Vision	55
Table 11. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Employee-Manager Relationship	58
Table 12. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Job Motivation	60
Table 13. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Role Autonomy	61
Table 14. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Affective Commitment to Organizational Change	64
Table 15. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change	65
Table 16. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Normative Commitment to Organizational Change	67
Table 17. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Individual Learning for Organizational Change	69
Table 18. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Perceived Success of Implementation	70
Table 19. Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Perceived Performance Improvement	72

Table 20. Descriptive Summary of the Latent Variables.....	74
Table 21. R^2 and Adjusted R^2 of the Endogenous Variables	76
Table 22. Bootstrapped Factor Loadings of the Latent Variables	77
Table 23. Reliability and Convergent Validity Values of the Measurements of the Author	79
Table 24. Cross Loadings	80
Table 25. Discriminant Validity Using Fornell–Larcker Criterion	81
Table 26. Discriminant Validity Using Heterotrait-Monotrait Test (HTMT)	82
Table 27. Multicollinearity Diagnostics of the Indicators	83
Table 28. Explanatory Powers of the Structural Model based on Effect Size (f^2).....	84
Table 29. Predictive Power of the Model Based on Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and Mean Absolute Error (MAE).....	85
Table 30. PLS-SEM Results using Bootstrapped Path Coefficients	87
Table 31. Hierarchical Regression Results for Moderation Effect of the Demographic Profile.....	92
Table 32. Analysis of Variance of the Models	94
Table 33. Direct, Indirect, and Mediation Effects of Perceived Success of Implementation	95
Table 34. Findings and Answers to Research Questions.....	101
Table 35. Summary of Hypothesis Testing.....	103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Multilevel Framework	20
Figure 2. Conceptual Framework of Madsen et al. (2005)	24
Figure 3. Conceptual Framework of Barber (2010).....	26
Figure 4. Conceptual Framework by Soumjaya et al. (2015)	27
Figure 5. Conceptual Framework by Mangundjaya et al. (2012)	28
Figure 6. Conceptual Framework by N. Shah (2009).....	29
Figure 7. Conceptual Framework by Marchalina et al. (2021).....	30
Figure 8. Conceptual Framework by Mangundjaya (2013).....	31
Figure 9. Conceptual Framework by Samaranayake and Takemura (2017)	32
Figure 10. Conceptual Framework by the Author	34
Figure 11. Proposed Conceptual Framework of the Study as Adapted From Parish et al.....	37
Figure 12. Research Design Notation of the Study.....	40
Figure 13. Structural Model of the Study	97

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

Customs administration is crucial because it aids the economic activities of a country as well as contributes to the competitive advantages of a nation. Cantens (2012) added to this stating that the evolution of customs processes is an imperative endeavor because it will elevate the success of its revenue collection, propel nations to optimize operational paradigms, and improve risk management and trade facilitation.

Kusumawardhani and Diokno (2022) further shared that customs administrations seek to integrate various innovations such as the zero-contact policy, automated routing and monitoring system, use of body cameras, and the establishment of anticorruption commissions all aimed to increase transparency and build credibility. These action plans are all part of a country's efforts in strengthening the functions of the organization to uphold the law, order, border protection, fair trade, and justice and maximize revenue generation. To achieve this goal, customs administrations seek to implement varying tariffs on goods, taxation policies, and various import and export agreements, regulations, and sanctions that help the country uphold its relationship with others while allowing it to respond to supply and demand fluctuations globally (Betz, 2019). By doing so, customs administrations make sure that it also contributes to safeguarding strengths of its nation and balancing it out with its weaknesses. Last, customs administration facilitates maintaining the security and wellbeing of the country through efforts in capturing and intercepting antisocial drugs, money laundering, and other prohibited goods.

In the Philippines, the Bureau of Customs (BOC) is the responsible government agency that operates with matters relating to customs operations in the whole Philippines.

It is under the Department of Finance and is headed by a commissioner who is appointed by the president of the Philippines. The agency mainly operates in three different paradigms—land freight, air freight, and sea freight—in collecting its customs duties and taxes as well as in enforcing laws as one of the primary border control authorities. It comprises 17 different ports, headed by their own district collector, scattered throughout the Philippine archipelago, and each port caters to specific freight types with the exception of Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA), which caters to both land and air freights. In addition to this, each port also has its own organizational structure composed of different divisions pertaining to the internal and external workings specific to the port. Specifically, the port of NAIA is considered one of the biggest ports that is handled by the BOC. In the previous year, NAIA was reported to be the sixth port with the most collection out of the 17 different ports leading in target collections amounting to P37,478,000,000.00 or \$707,132,075.00 (BOC, n.d.). The main function of this port is to ensure the efficient facilitation of the customs bonded warehouses for air freight, the incoming and outgoing international passengers, the safety of the Philippine border against illicit goods, and the duly authorized collection of taxes.

Last May 9 of 2022, the Philippines held its 2022 general elections that elected the 17th president, 16th vice president, senators for the 19th Congress of the Philippines, members of the House of Representatives, governors, vice-governors, members of the *Sangguniang Panlalawigan* (provincial board members), city mayors and vice-mayors, city or municipal councilors, with exception of the smallest unit of Philippine governance – *Baranggay* (town) officials and *Sangguniang Kabataan* (youth councilors) of the country in accordance with the 1987 Constitution of the Philippines. With this change in

the national government, the agency secretaries, undersecretaries, commissioners, and heads of various departments also experience a change in management as they are coterminous with the president of the Philippines unless assigned otherwise. Every 6 years, the employees among these agencies also experience a huge phenomenon that may possibly destabilize the current processes that are placed in the system. Hence, the purpose of this study was to look into the employee commitment to organizational change in the light of the recent events in the Philippines to which the results of the study may aid the commissioner, district collectors, and various division heads in making sure that the goals and objectives of the national government of the Philippines are implemented.

Statement of the Research Problem

As mentioned, each government agency in the Philippines is about to face a significant change in management with the election of its new national leaders, which may destabilize or further establish the current processes that were placed in the system. With this change in the presidency as well as with the commissioner assigned to the BOC, it may be interesting to analyze the employees of the port, specifically the port of NAIA, especially with their fit toward the new strategic vision, quality of relationship with their current managers and supervisors (as well as their future relationship with the top management), motivation, and autonomy toward their individual learning, implementation of their success, and performance in line with the supposed organizational change that are also evaluated with the employees' affective, normative, and continuance commitment toward the organization.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the antecedents of employee commitment to organizational change, employees' individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance among the employees of the Bureau of Customs – Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA). The study focused on the employees of the port of NAIA and delved into aspects of commitment to gather baseline information and analyze the level of the antecedents. The gathered information was then verified via focus group discussions (FGDs) to interpret the results even further, thus giving higher levels of discussion, conclusions, and recommendations thereafter.

Research Questions

To answer the main research problem, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What is the level of the antecedents to employee commitment in terms of
 - a. Employees' fit toward the strategic vision
 - b. Employee–manager relationship
 - c. Job motivation
 - d. Role autonomy
2. What is the level of employee commitment to organizational change in terms of
 - a. Affective commitment
 - b. Normative commitment
 - c. Continuance commitment
3. What is the level of employees' individual learning for organizational change?
4. What is the level of employees' perceived success in implementation of change?

5. What is the level of employees' perceived performance improvement?
6. What is the effect of employee commitment to organizational change on individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance in terms of
 - a. Affective commitment
 - b. Normative commitment
 - c. Continuance commitment
7. What is the effect of employee commitment to organizational change on individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance as moderated by the demographic profile of the respondents in terms of
 - a. Sex
 - b. Age
 - c. Marital status
 - d. Highest educational attainment
 - e. Professional level
 - f. Division
8. What is the effect of individual learning on improved performance as mediated by implementation success?

Hypotheses

Furthermore, the following 23 hypotheses were formulated to support the research questions and to test the relationships and associations of the different variables that are included in the study.

- H1A. Employees' fit toward the strategic vision has no significant effect on employees' affective commitment to organizational change.
- H1B. Employees' fit toward the strategic vision has no significant effect on employees' normative commitment to organizational change.
- H1C. Employees' fit toward the strategic vision has no significant effect on employees' continuance commitment to organizational change.
- H2A. Employee–manager relationship has no significant effect on employee's affective commitment to organizational change.
- H2B. Employee–manager relationship has no significant effect on employees' normative commitment to organizational change.
- H2C. Employee–manager relationship has no significant effect on employees' continuance commitment to organizational change.
- H3A. Job motivation has no significant effect on employees' affective commitment to organizational change.
- H3B. Job motivation has no significant effect on employees' normative commitment to organizational change.
- H3C. Job motivation has no significant effect on employees' continuance commitment to organizational change.
- H4A. Role autonomy has no significant effect on employees' affective commitment to organizational change.
- H4B. Role autonomy has no significant effect on employees' normative commitment to organizational change.

- H4C. Role autonomy has no significant effect on employees' continuance commitment to organizational change.
- H5A. Employees' affective commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on employee individual learning for organizational change.
- H5B. Employees' affective commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on perceived success in implementation of change.
- H5C. Employees' affective commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on perceived performance improvement.
- H6A. Employees' normative commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on employee individual learning for organizational change.
- H6B. Employees' normative commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on perceived success in implementation of change.
- H6C. Employees' normative commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on perceived performance improvement.
- H7A. Employees' continuance commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on employee individual learning for organizational change.
- H7B. Employees' continuance commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on perceived success in implementation of change.
- H7C. Employees' continuance commitment to organizational change has no significant effect on perceived performance improvement.
- H8. Employee individual learning for organizational change has no significant effect on perceived success in implementation of change.

H9. Employee's perceived success in implementation of change has no significant effect on perceived performance improvement.

Scope and Significance of the Problem

I chose this topic because it is personally relevant for him, being a current employee of the BOC port of NAIA and being a direct receiver of this planned change. It enabled him to further his knowledge about his organization's change readiness based on the perspective of his peers. On the other hand, it will also be beneficial for his employer, the BOC, because the results of the study may shed light on how to manage the supposed responses and reactions to the change within the agency. Minimizing resistance will result in the easier achievement of the organization's long-running vision of being a modernized and credible customs administration that is among the world's best. Last, this research may be a starting point for other researchers who plan to study employee commitment and its antecedents and organizational change readiness. Other researchers may also implement it in the other units of the BOC or to other organizations as well.

In terms of the scope and limitations of this study, this study only focused on the Port of NAIA, which handles the air freight in Metro Manila as well as its warehouses that are under customs operations that handle the combination of land and air freight. The locale of this research was NAIA Terminals 1, 2, and 3 as well as the customs bonded warehouse within the vicinity of the passenger terminals. Pertinent data that were used may be limited to the desk research done by the author as well as the primary data gathered through a survey questionnaire adapted from the related works of literature. The respondents of the survey included the employees in BOC-NAIA on the previously

identified terminals and warehouses. Discussion of other port operations aside from NAIA, other related agencies, and airline operators and operations were not discussed in this research.

Operational Definitions

Affective commitment to change. Refers to the desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits.

Bureau of Customs (BOC). A government operated agency that deals with customs matters of the whole Philippines. It mainly operates in three different paradigms—land freight, air freight, and sea freight—in collecting its customs duties and taxes as well as enforcing laws as one of the primary border control authorities.

Commitment to change. A mindset that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative.

Continuance commitment to change. A recognition that there are costs associated with failure to provide support for the change.

Employee–manager relationship. This pertains to the relationship quality among employees and their managers, which comprises satisfaction, commitment, and trust (Erdogan et al., 2006; Henning-Thurau et al., 2002).

Individual learning. Defined as the knowledge-creation process in which the interpretation of information leads to a change in behavior (Lehesvirta, 2004).

Job motivation. Defined as a powerful energizing force with implications for behavior (Meyer et al., 2002).

Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA). The third port of the 17 ports of the whole Philippine customs operations. The main functions of the port of NAIA are to

facilitate the custom bonded warehouses in the vicinity and the airport operations in NAIA.

Normative commitment to change. Denotes a sense of obligation to provide support for the change.

Perceived fit to vision. Pertains to the degree to which a strategy is implemented or is seen as congruent with the overall direction of the organization (Noble & Mokwa, 1999).

Perceived improvements in performance. This involves the perceptions of employees in relation to the organization's financial and nonfinancial performance (Homburg et al., 2002).

Perceived implementation success. This is defined as the extent to which an effort of implementing something is considered successful by the whole organization.

Role autonomy. Defined as the employee's belief that they have the freedom to choose and initiate their actions in relation to their job (Noble & Mokwa, 1999).

Organization of the Study

The primary goal of this study was to investigate the role of different aspects of employee commitment in the success of organizational change initiatives. The study tested a model on the antecedents and consequences of affective, normative, and continuance commitment to organizational change, particularly in the context of BOC–Port of NAIA in the Philippines.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This section includes literature review on the theoretical foundations of organizational commitment to provide a baseline understanding of the concept. Then, there is a discussion on the specific variables to further understand the factors that may affect organizational commitment. Last, it covers extrinsic factors such as corporate social responsibility, which was found to have a significant effect on the organizational commitment of employees.

Theoretical Foundations of Organizational Commitment

According to Allen and Meyer (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) and Messner (2013), organizational commitment is one of the most organic and important parts of an organization that is mutually developed by an individual's association with the organization. This can be manifested in different levels of commitment by an individual's preexisting notions of loyalty. This notion of commitment is considered important because it significantly affects one's engagement and retention with the company (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Ghazzawi, 2008; Tuna et al., 2011). When there is commitment, employees are more likely to engage in their work, especially when the organization enforces their needs to feel safe and supported (Kahn, 1990).

Given this commitment, it can also be argued that employees have a higher level of job satisfaction that can be also used as an antecedent of employee engagement (Ghazzawi & Smith, 2009; Quick & Nelson, 2008; Toor & Ofori, 2009; Tuna et al., 2011). Furthermore, the authors also argued that employees who have high organizational commitment help to advance the organization's goals and objectives. The study finds further associated the concept of organizational commitment with the social

identity theory. This theory is considered relevant to the organization's external image or perceived external image. When there is a positive organizational external image, the employees are more likely to have a stronger identification and commitment toward the organization, as indicated in Tuna et al. (2016), Alias et al. (2013), Demir (2011), and Carmeli et al. (2006).

Deeper understanding of an employee's attachment to an organization can be based on one's attitude, identification, involvement, and loyalty. According to Porter et al. (1974), these concepts are considered crucial in the understanding of one's organizational commitment. These authors further studied an employee's attitude from a perspective that includes the affective relationship between the employee and the organization. Their study developed a theoretical framework known as the exchange theory of employee commitment. Furthermore, Porter et al. defined organizational commitment as "an attachment to the organization, characterized by the intention to remain in it; an identification with the values and goals of the organization; and a willingness to exert extra effort on its behalf" (p. 604).

Alternatively, the side-bet commitment that was proposed by Becker (1960) looked into the considerations of employees as they were influenced by different factors outside the economic benefits of working. Lee et al. (1982) also found that an individual will remain committed to an organization until there exists a situational pressure that will require the employee to consider a cost-benefit analysis to leave the organization. Additionally, it was argued that this kind of behavior is highly subjective to an individual and could not be accounted for fully to understand the long-term employee commitment to an organization. Powell and Meyer (2004) provided strong support that all seven side-

bet categories correlated significantly with the measures of commitment. Furthermore, the findings also addressed the issues pertinent to the dimensionality and measures of continuance commitment to explain the other components of commitment. Still, most of the studies pointed out that the three aspects of Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996), continuance commitment, affective commitment, and normative commitment, were still considered the better predictors of organizational commitment as exhibited in other studies.

Predictors of Organizational Commitment

The study that was conducted by Porter et al. (1974) was revalidated and upgraded to consider the different views of commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) defined commitment as something multidimensional. It meant that commitment is a relative strength of one's identification with, involvement in, and loyalty to a certain organization. Authors such as Vandenberg argued that there are four aspects of organizational commitment, namely, affective, continuance, temporal, and identification (Vandenberg & Self, 1993; Vandenberg et al., 1994). However, this idea of Vandenberg et al. (1994) was further scrutinized as presented in anthologies of the same variables, and results showed they that did not significantly characterize organizational commitment. Thus, the majority of the researchers opted to consider the model of Meyer and Allen (1991), and it became the more accepted dimension of commitment. Similar to previous authors, Meyer and Allen defined the components of organizational commitment as affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

Affective Commitment

This was defined by Allen and Meyer (1990) as “an emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership within the organization” (p. 2). This is further characterized by an individual’s choice to remain committed to the organization because of mutuality and alignment with the organization whether it is through values, priorities, or goals.

Therefore, it could bring about a positive disposition toward an organization because of the feeling of an individual’s values and how they reinforce the organization.

Additionally, affective commitment can be influenced by several factors such as challenges at work, clarity of the work and goals, manageability of work difficulty, management receptiveness and feedback, peers, equity, and importance.

Affective commitment also involves the employee’s process of identifying with the goals as well as internalizing the organization’s policies and culture (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Singh & Gupta, 2015). This was reinforced by Allen and Meyer’s (1990) definition that an individual’s affective attachment to the organization is based on “one’s identification with, along with a desire to establish a relationship with the organization” (p. 2). This could happen once the employee is embedded in the organization. Affective commitment also denotes the consideration of organizations wishing to retain the employee in an economy that is centered on knowledge acquisition and transfer (Ghazzawi, 2008). Even though employees may develop all forms of organizational commitment at different points of their engagement in the organization, it can be said that affective commitment is still the most significant predictor of the long-term retention of

valuable employees in an organization (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019; Singh & Gupta, 2015).

Last, affective commitment is considered the most consistent and strongest predictor of positive organizational performance indicators such as work effort, performance, and productivity. Thus, other researchers also found that affective commitment can be used to evaluate organizational citizenship behaviors as shown in the studies by Mahal (2012), Meyer et al. (2002), and even Mathieu and Zajac (1990). However, it is also interesting to note that affective commitment is considered a negative predictor of higher levels of absenteeism, workplace stress, and turnover as mentioned in Singh and Gupta (2015), Wasti (2005), Vandenberghe et al. (2004), and Iverson and Buttigieg (1999).

Continuance Commitment

Singh and Gupta (2015) defined this type of commitment as the cost-benefit analysis employees are faced with, especially when dealing with finding a new job. An employee tends to remain committed to an organization after evaluating the perceived costs of leaving. This can also be affected by their tenure in the organization, position, length of service, or the mere feeling that one will lose many things such as networks, financial security, and social aspects to name a few, by leaving the organization. Mahal (2012) discovered that the continuance dimension of organizational commitment is considered the most significant factor in an employee's cost-benefit analysis in remaining with the organization. Mahal found that continuance commitment and employee retention do not have any correlation. Instead, it was work experience that contributed to the employee's intention to leave the organization. This finding supported the claim of

Irving and Meyer (1994) that employers who conduct enhancements relating to employees' work experience have a better chance of exhibiting long-term commitment to the organization. This finding in 1994 was also exhibited in 2002 by Meyer et al. because organizational support in the form of human resources policies and practices directly and indirectly influences the development of an employee's organizational commitment.

In terms of determining the continuance commitment, this can be further perceived in the cost associated with leaving the organization. In case the cost of leaving is too high, the employee then is likely to remain (Mahal, 2012). In addition, an employee may consider the high cost of leaving the organization because they might have attached themselves to the investments that they have accumulated during their stay with the organization. These investments include pension plans, ranking, and skills specific to the organization. On the other hand, when an employee is given better alternatives with lower perceived costs, the employee has a higher tendency to leave the organization. The need felt by the employees to stay within the organization is based on profit and continued services, but the termination of benefits is a cost associated with leaving (Mahal, 2012).

Normative Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), this aspect of organizational commitment is a lesser type of personal commitment because it focuses on the feeling of obligation in a way that is formed through societal expectation. Messner (2013) also described the normative commitment as an individual's behavior guided by his or her sense of duty, obligation, and loyalty to a certain organization. Further, a normative committed

employee would stay in an organization because of a moral obligation to do so regardless of how much status or satisfaction an organization provides him or her.

Compared to the other two components of organizational commitment, normative commitment is considered a less common predictor yet an equally viable consideration for employee commitment. Although affective commitment is emotion based and continuance commitment is profit based, normative commitment is based on the obligations of the employee toward the organization. This has been found to be shared among several antecedents and consequences of affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Thus, the main point of normative commitment is determined by the employee's acceptance of the rules and policies and the reciprocal relationship between the employees and employer (Abreu et al., 2013). When discussing the concept of reciprocity, researchers have found it was based on the theory of social exchange, which suggests that a person who is receiving a benefit is under a strong normative obligation to repay the benefit in some way (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Singh & Gupta, 2015). This means that employees who remain committed to the organization have a perceived obligation to repay the organization for investing in them, as an example, giving bonds depending on the training, seminars, or workshops provided to them by an organization.

Intrinsic or Personal Characteristics

One of the factors that is connected to an individual's commitment to an organization includes one's experience, length of service, the effort placed in work, and the remuneration and benefits gained from it. Moreover, personality also plays an important role in the organizational commitment of an employee so that it is considered as something that influences the behavior of the employee in each work situation that is

considered unique and internal (Irshad & Naz, 2011). This was highlighted in the studies conducted by Meyer and Allen (1997), Mowday (1999), and Meyer et al. (2002) that demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education, personal experience, and distinct behavioral differences affect employee commitment. Among the mentioned intrinsic factors for organizational commitment, age was considered the most significant predictor of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This was supported further by the studies of Gursoy et al. (2013, 2008) and Singh and Gupta (2015).

Extrinsic Factors

Intrinsic factors may show significant predictions of organizational commitment; however, extrinsic factors may play more important roles in the commitment of an employee. Culture, ethics, and company practices may also influence employee commitment, as shown in Miao et al. (2014). Brammer et al. (2007) revealed that external activities relating to corporate social responsibility have a positive effect on organization commitment among 4,712 employees of financial services companies. Messner (2013) also mentioned that when ethical standards or values are widely shared by its members, the success of the organization in making sure that its employees are committed is also enhanced. In addition to the initial findings, shared beliefs and behaviors of others add to the uniqueness of the social and psychological environment of an organization, which affects the culture and commitment of the employees in an organization.

Human resource practices that specifically include professional development and training also affect the likelihood of an increased sense of wellbeing, contributing to an employee's commitment to the organization (Kundi et al., 2020). Aside from

commitment, it also significantly contributes positively to an employee's satisfaction and job performance. As exemplified in the study of Lin et al. (2011), it was found that human resource practices that include employee training and development showed a positive impact on the organizational commitment of Taiwanese hospitality employees.

Organizational Change and Change Readiness

According to Kotter (as cited in Barber, 2010), the change that takes place in an organization follows the eight-stage change process to ensure its effectiveness and success of implementation. This process includes the following: establishing a sense of urgency, creating the guiding coalition, developing a vision and strategy, communicating the change vision, empowering broad-based action, generating short-term wins, consolidating gains and producing more change, and anchoring new approaches in the culture.

Aside from these stages, Barber (2010) also cited the relationship between “the abilities, behaviors or temperaments of leaders, and change implementation outcomes for organizations” (p. 8). In the same study, the five general areas of leadership competencies in relation to successful change efforts as identified by Higgs and Rowland (2001) were discussed. These are (a) creating the case for change, (b) creating structural change, (c) engaging others in the whole change process and building commitment, (d) implementing and sustaining changes, and (e) facilitating and developing capability.

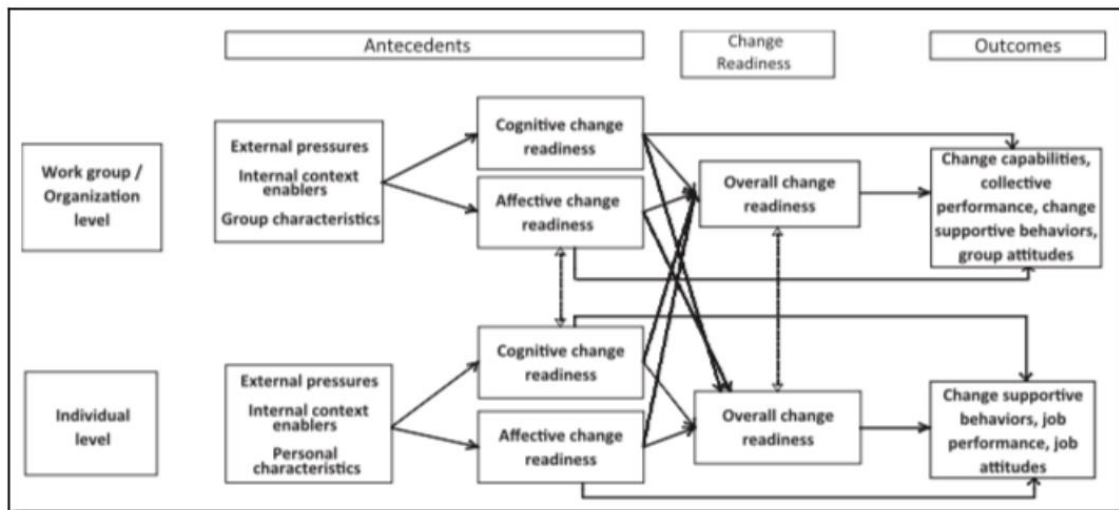
Armenakis et al. (1993, as cited in Mangundjaya, 2012) defined individual readiness for change as “the comprehensive attitude that simultaneously was influenced by the content (what has been changed), process (how is going to change), context (in what situation that the change is done), and characteristic of individual who involved in

the change process” (p. 188). In addition, Ellett et al. (1997, as cited in Mangundjaya, 2012) discussed that individual change readiness can be considered as a “mental attitude of the individual before acting when facing with the change process (either accepting or adopting the organization change)” (p. 187).

This concept of change readiness was further supported by the multilevel review conducted by Rafferty et al. (2013). Figure 1 shows the multilevel framework of the antecedents and consequences of readiness for change.

Figure 1

Multilevel Framework



Note. From “Change Readiness: A Multilevel Review,” by A. Rafferty, N. Jimmieson, and A. Armenakis, 2013, *Journal of Management*, 39(1), p. 113.

Focusing on the individual level of change readiness, the figure showed cognitive and affective change readiness contributes to the readiness of the member of an organization to any change that is to be implemented on them. This can also include the external pressures, internal context enablers, and personal or group characteristics that

can affect the cognitive and affective change readiness. On the other hand, the cognitive components of change readiness were related with two main beliefs by Armenakis et al. (1993, as cited in Rafferty et al., 2013). These beliefs are (a) change is needed and (b) the individual and the organization have the capacity to undertake change. On the other hand, Crites et al. (1994) stated the affective components of change readiness, which are the discreet and qualitatively different emotions.

Organizational readiness for change in the perspective of the employees was discussed. Accordingly, there are seven important antecedents for the change readiness of an organization. To make this more concrete, he studied these aspects in a manufacturing company in Indonesia. By asking the employees to evaluate their organization's readiness for the planned change, I was able to identify the rating on each aspect. According to the results of the study, it was found that acceptance to change received the highest mean rating among the employees at 3.34. This was followed by change initiatives at 3.26. This pertained to the actions conducted by the employers so that the employees could transition into changes smoothly. Managing change also resulted to 3.24 and manage support resulted to 3.04. Overall, the organization is ready for change. However, it can be noted that there are aspects that were rated below 3.0, including perceptions toward change effort, mutual trust and respect, and understanding the vision for change. The results could imply that the organization needs to focus on these aspects to further strengthen its readiness toward the change initiative plan for implementation.

Last, Bernerth (2004), defined readiness as the condition of mind during the change process that reveals the acceptance or willingness to participate in the change process.

Thus, if an employee is not ready for any change imposed by the organization, there is a high tendency of resistance that may negatively affect the change process.

According to Weiner et al. (2020), in the most recent years, the definitions and facets of organizational readiness for change have remained persistent since 1993. Therefore, it could always be traced to an individual and organizational level. On an individual level, the components for organizational readiness for change could involve efficacy, perceived appropriateness of change, and personal valence. On an organizational level, the readiness facets include organizational change efficacy, collective efficacy, and organizational structure.

Trust and Social Relationships in the Workplace

According to N. Shah (2009), the social relationships in the workplace may be related with Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs. As can be seen in Table 1, social relationship matches with the need for belonging, which is the third level in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The matching of the needs given by Maslow were the result of what Samaranayake and Takemura (2017) concluded in their study.

Table 1

Employee Needs on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as Illustrated by Samaranayake and Takemura

Employee's needs	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
Pay/wages/rewards	Physiological need
Promotion/tenure	Need for safety
Social relationships in the workplace, supervisor, and peer relations	Need for belonging
Job satisfaction, job involvement, personal sense of obligation	Self-esteem
Training and skills development	Self-actualization

Note. Adapted from "Employee Readiness for Organizational Change: A Case Study in an Export Oriented Manufacturing Firm in Sri Lanka," by S. U. Samaranayake and T. Takemura, 2017, *Eurasian Journal of Business & Economics*, 10(20), 1–16.

Samaranayake and Takemura (2017) claimed that “trust in supervisors and management can act as a catalyst for employees’ positive attitudes towards organizational change” (p. 5). With this positive attitude, it can be assumed that the organization will be able to minimize or reduce employee resistance to change. Eby et al. (2000) also supported this claim not only for management but also for their coworkers.

Related Studies on Organizational Commitment and Organizational Change

To further determine the strength of the different antecedents of organizational commitment and organizational change based on the literature previously cited, the following sections break down each antecedent and provide the results of various authors’ studies of them. This allowed me to determine the best possible conceptual framework to use for the study to answer the research questions and provide meaningful and effective discussions and conclusions.

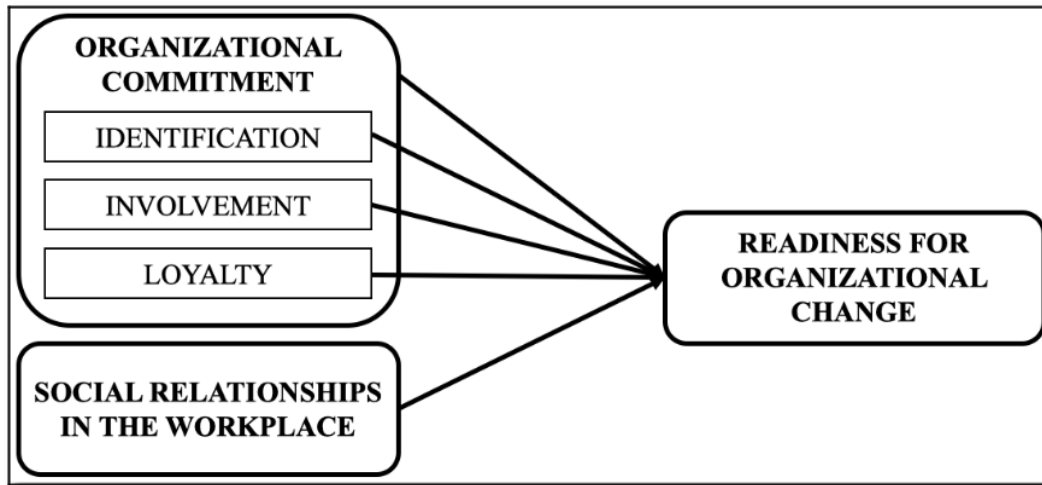
Organizational Commitment, Social Relationships in the Workplace, and Readiness for Organizational Change

Madsen et al. (2005) studied the relationship between organizational commitment, social relationships in the workplace, and readiness for organizational change. The model of their research is shown in Figure 2.

Madsen et al. (2005) further classified organizational commitment into three main components. They include (a) identification or the focus on the connection and pride employees feel toward their organization; (b) involvement, which encompasses the perceived contribution an employee makes to an organization and how a person feels about it; and (c) loyalty, which is determined by assessing an employee’s intentions to leave, particularly if additional compensation is offered by another firm.

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework of Madsen et al. (2005)



Note. Adapted from “Readiness for Organizational Change: Do Organizational Commitment & Social Relationships in the Workplace Make a Difference?” by S. R. Madsen, D. Miller, and C. R. John, 2005, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(2), 213–234.

Aside from these, demographic variables were also gathered by Madsen et al. (2005). These variables included gender, age, marital status, educational level, length of time with employer, and number of children. The reliability of the variables was considered as passing on standards because organizational commitment resulted in an alpha of .81. Further, social relationships resulted to .70, and change readiness garnered an alpha of .82.

After collecting 464 useful responses and using Pearson correlation statistical test, Madsen et al. (2005) were able to show that organizational commitment was strongly related to readiness for organizational change ($r = .45$). In addition, the subscales of organizational commitment, identification, involvement, loyalty, also established significant relationship with readiness for organizational change recording r scores of .39,

.51, and .28, respectively. On the other hand, social relationships in the workplace were able to establish a slight relationship on readiness for organizational change ($r = .18$).

Organizational Commitment, Relationship With Supervisor, Organizational Support, and Change Readiness

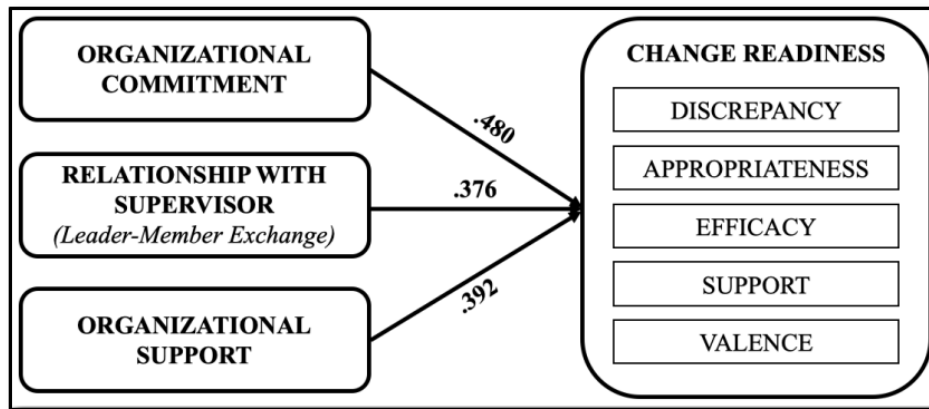
Barber (2010) studied the relationship between organizational commitment, relationship with supervisor, organizational support, and change readiness of the employees in a nursing home located in Rochester, New York. A survey questionnaire with 61 items using a 7-point Likert scale was distributed to the respondents to measure both the dependent and independent variables. At the end of the data-gathering period, a total of 460 employees completed the survey.

In one of the related independent variables, relationship with supervisor, the LMX model or the leader-member exchange model was implemented. On the other hand, change readiness was measured through the five subscales used: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, support, and valence. In addition, demographic profiles of the respondents were also collected by the Barber (2010) including the respondents' year/s of service, age, gender, education, department areas, position, shift, employment status, race, and ethnicity.

The conceptual framework shown in Figure 3 reflects that the three independent variables—organizational commitment, relationship with supervisor (LMX), and organizational support—yield moderately strong correlations with the following r scores respectively: .480, .376, .392. However, none of the demographic profiles of the respondents was able to establish any relationship with change readiness.

Figure 3

Conceptual Framework of Barber (2010)



Note. Adapted from “A Study of Change Readiness: Factors That Influence the Readiness of Frontline Workers Towards a Nursing Home Transformational Change Initiative,” by V. A. Barber, 2010 [Doctoral dissertation, St. John Fisher College], Fisher Digital Publications (https://fisherpub.sjf.edu/education_etd/36/).

Individual, Process and Context Factors, Organizational Change Readiness, and Commitment to Change

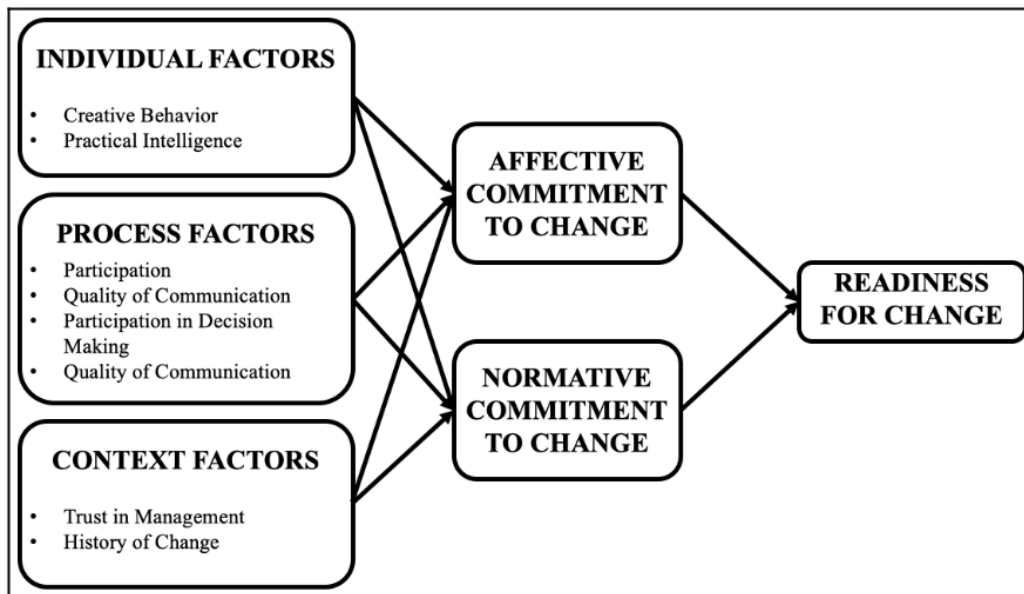
The research conducted by Soumjaya et al. (2015), examined individual readiness for change in relation to individual factors (creative behavior, practical intelligence), process factors (participation, quality of communication, participation in decision making, quality of communication), and context factors (trust in management, history of change). Completed in India, the study focused on six manufacturing and six IT companies gathering 331 responses but with only 305 responses usable. Aside from establishing the relationship between the three factors and change readiness, the mediating effect of the commitment to change on the relationship was also examined. Demographic profiles of the respondents included gender, age, marital status, industry

sector, type of change experienced, total length of work experience, and length of current work experience.

Soumjaya et al.'s (2015) study shows that all three factors had significant relationship with change readiness of the employees/respondents (see Figure 4). However, only affective commitment to change showed a mediating effect on this established relationship. Consequently, it would be more beneficial for organizations to focus on their employees' affections in relation to change to be more effective and efficient in implementing any changes in the organization.

Figure 4

Conceptual Framework by Soumjaya et al. (2015)



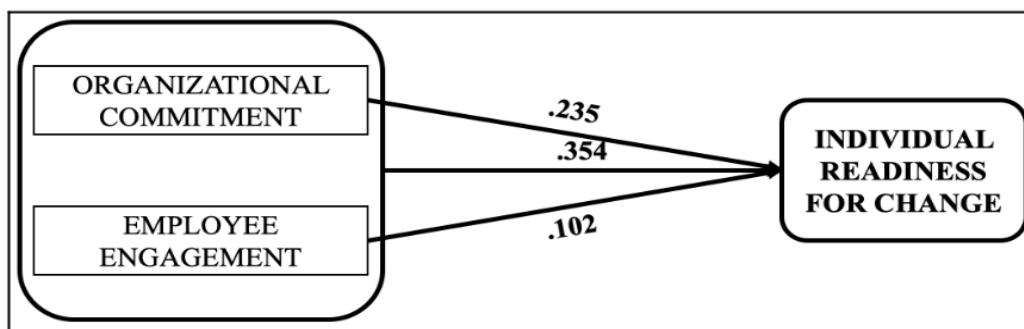
Note. Adapted from “Antecedents of Employee Readiness for Change: Mediating Effect of Commitment to Change,” by D. Soumjaya, T. J. Kamlanabhan, and S. Bhattacharyya, 2015, *Management Studies & Economics Systems (MSES)*, 2(1), 11–25.

Organizational Commitment, Employee Engagement, and Individual Readiness for Change

Mangundjaya (2012) focused on individual readiness for change of personnel employed in four financial institutions, three of which were privately owned, and the other one was government owned. That research employed a quantitative and correlational approach involving 502 respondents. Upon analyzing the data gathered, Mangundjaya was able to establish that both organizational commitment and employee engagement, collectively, had a significant relationship with individual readiness for change (see Figure 5). In addition, organizational commitment recorded a more significant relationship with individual readiness against employee engagement.

Figure 5

Conceptual Framework by Mangundjaya et al. (2012)



Note. Adapted from “Are Organizational Commitment & Employee Engagement Important in Achieving Individual Readiness for Change?” by W. L. H. Mangundjaya, 2012, *Humanitas: Indonesian Psychological Journal*, 9(2), 185–192 (<https://doi.org/10.26555/humanitas.v9i2.344>).

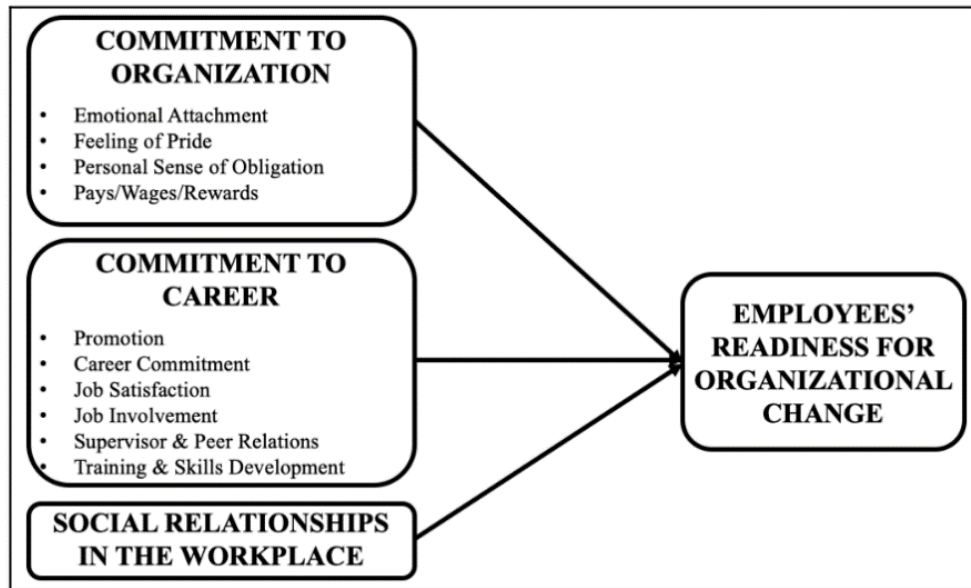
Determinants of Employee Readiness for Organizational Change

N. Shah (2009) studied the employee change readiness through its relationship with various employees’ needs, including emotional attachment, feeling of pride, personal sense of obligation, pay/wages/rewards, promotion, career commitment, job satisfaction,

job involvement, supervisor and peer relations, training and skills development, social relationships (see Figure 6). Aside from this, a demographic profile of the respondents was also part of the study, involving gender, age range, marital status, present employment status, highest educational level, number of dependent, years in their present job, and years with present employer. The respondents of this survey were employees of public universities in Pakistan.

Figure 6

Conceptual Framework by N. Shah (2009)



Note. Adapted from “Determinants of Employee Readiness for Organizational Change,” by N. Shah, 2009, Publication No. U517987 [Doctoral dissertation, Brunel University (United Kingdom)] ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

N. Shah’s (2009) study concluded that social relationships in the workplace and commitment to the organization, including all its subscales, have a significant positive relationship with readiness for organizational change. On the other hand, not all subscales of commitment to career resulted in significant positive relationship with

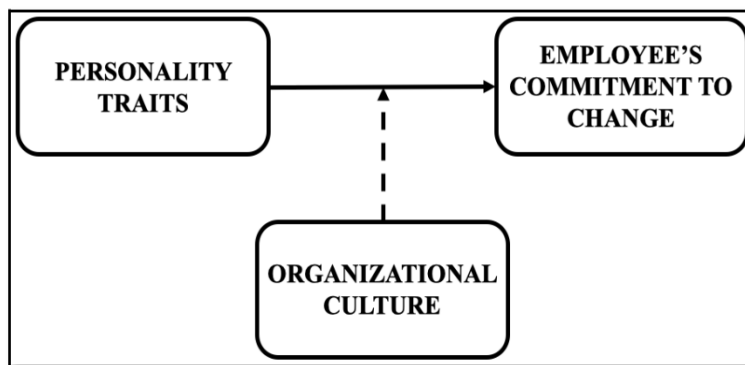
readiness for organizational change. These subscales were supervisor and peer relations as well as training and skills development.

Personality Traits, Employees' Commitment to Change, and Organizational Culture

Marchalina et al. (2021) conducted a study that established the relationship between the personality traits of employees of large Malaysian companies on their commitment to organizational change. In addition, their study also aimed to examine the moderating effect of organizational culture on the said relationship. By sending out a survey questionnaire to several employees, they were able to gather 294 responses, which were used in statistically establishing the relationships among the variables. The researchers were able to prove that personality traits of the employees maintained a significant relationship with their commitment to change ($r = .391$). In addition, a well-defined organizational culture also helped in moderating the relationship between personality traits and commitment to change (see Figure 7).

Figure 7

Conceptual Framework by Marchalina et al. (2021)



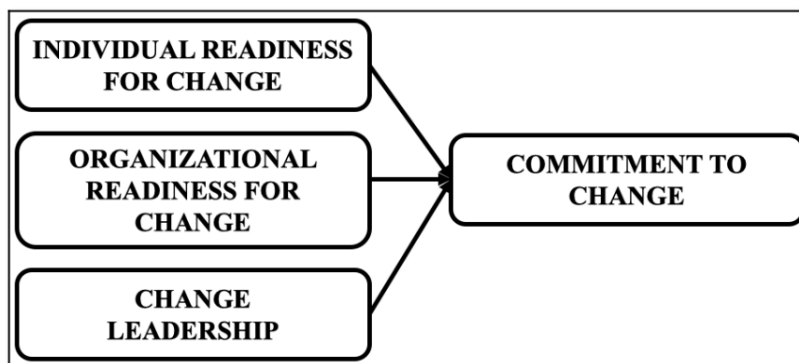
Note. Adapted from “Employee’s Commitment to Change: Personality Traits & Organizational Culture,” by L. Marchalina, H. Ahmad, and H. M. Gelaidan, 2021, *Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences*, 37(4), 377–392 (<https://doi.org/10.1108/JEAS-11-2018-0131>).

Leadership, Readiness to Change, and Commitment to Change

Mangundjaya (2013) proved that three main factors may contribute to an employee's commitment to change. These main variables were change leadership, readiness to change, and commitment to change. In contrast with other studies, this research classified readiness to change by measuring both the individual and organizational readiness. Similarly, it was conducted in a construction company in Indonesia where Mangundjaya was able to gather a total of 186 useful responses. Composed of 93 questions, the survey questionnaire aimed to measure the different variables independently. Aside from these, it also contained several questions on the demographic profile of the respondents, including sex, age, work experience, educational attainment, and position. Mangundjaya deduced that both individual readiness for change and organizational readiness for change have contributed significantly to commitment to change (see Figure 8). However, the study also showed that change leadership was not significantly correlated with commitment to change.

Figure 8

Conceptual Framework by Mangundjaya (2013)



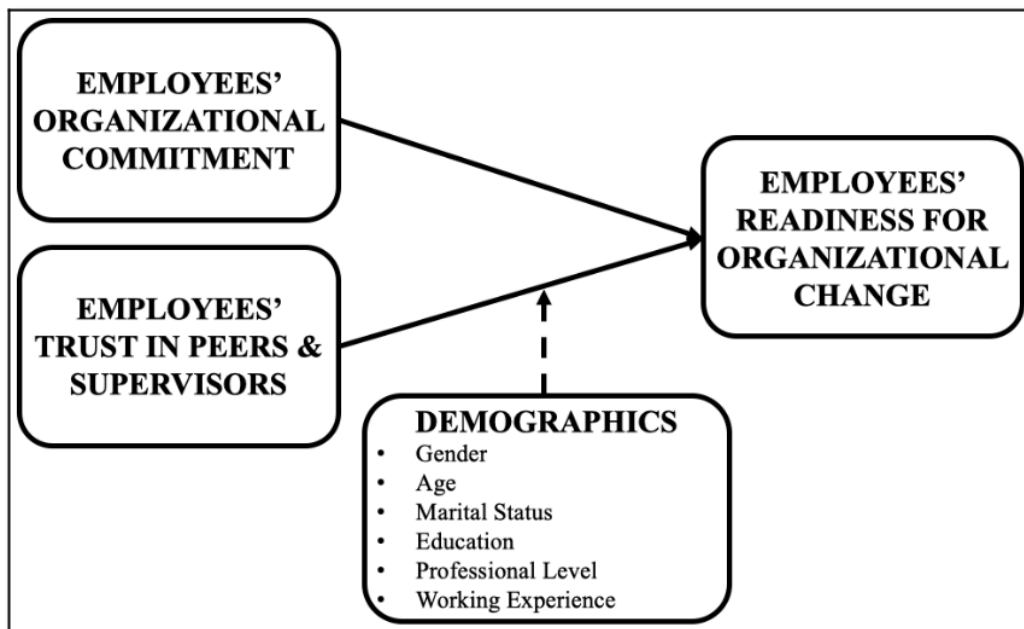
Note. Adapted from “Leadership, Readiness to Change, and Commitment to Change,” by W. L. H. Mangundjaya, 2013, in C. N. Carmen (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 7th International Management Conference*, 7(1), 199–205.

Organizational Commitment, Trust in Peers and Supervisors, and Readiness for Organizational Change

In a study undertaken by Samaranayake and Takemura (2017), a relationship between the employees' organizational commitment, trust in peers and supervisors, and readiness for organizational change was established. Conducted in Sri Lanka, the study involved 185 respondents from an export-oriented firm. The data gathering instrument used was a survey questionnaire, which utilized a 5-point Likert scale in measuring the different variables. Furthermore, demographic characteristics of the respondents (gender, age, marital status, educational level, professional level, and change experience at the current organization) were also gathered. The research is presented in Figure 9.

Figure 9

Conceptual Framework by Samaranayake and Takemura (2017)



Note. Adapted from “Employee Readiness for Organizational Change: A Case Study in an Export Oriented Manufacturing Firm in Sri Lanka,” by S. U. Samaranayake and T. Takemura, 2017, *Eurasian Journal of Business & Economics*, 10(20), 1–16.

Prior to the distribution of the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha for the different variables was measured: organizational commitment (.716), trust in peers and supervisors (.785), and organizational change readiness (.838). All were considered as satisfactory.

Samaranayake and Takemura (2017) conducted Pearson correlation test to establish the relationships of the variables. Therefore, a statistically significant, positive, and moderate relationship was identified between trust in peers and supervisors/management and employee readiness for organizational change ($r = .338$). This relationship is higher as compared to the established relationship between organizational commitment and employee readiness for organizational change ($r = .216$), which is still significant. In addition, among the different demographic characteristics gathered, only the educational level of the respondents was able to establish an effect on the relationship among the variables.

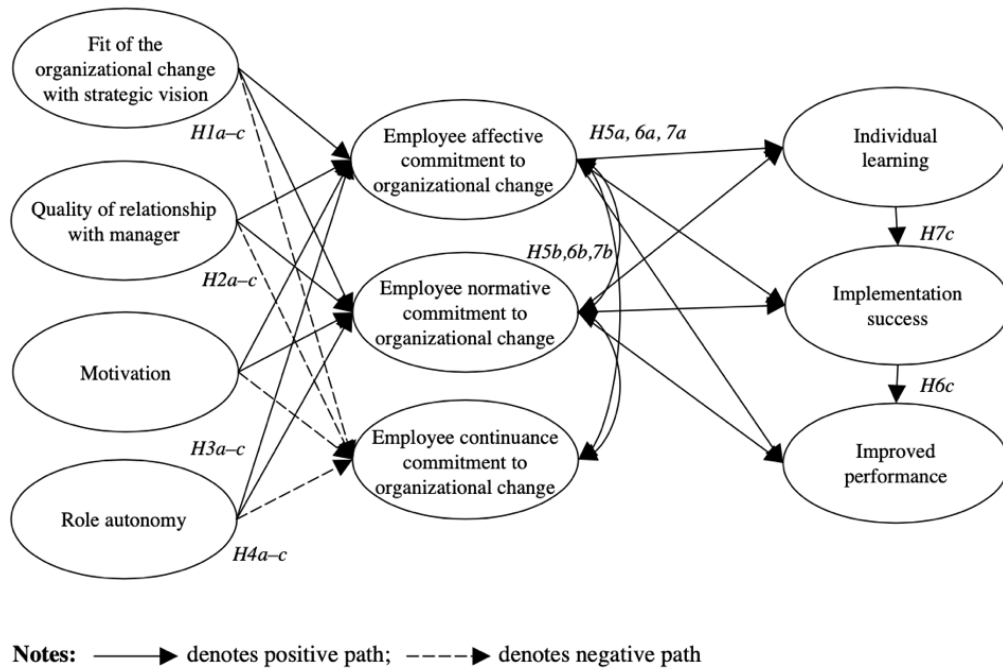
Role of Employee Commitment, Trust in Peers and Supervisors, and Readiness for Organization Change

The study of Parish et al. (2008) as illustrated in Figure 10 focused on the role of employee commitment in the success of organizational change initiatives. The model that the authors tested precisely measures the effects of the antecedents and consequences of affective, normative, and continuance commitment of employees on organizational change. The study was able to use 191 responses from a large nonprofit organization of which the data were assessed through partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). Results showed that antecedents such as fit with vision, employee relationship quality, job motivation, and role autonomy all affects an employee's commitment to change. Further, among the three factors of employee commitment,

affective commitment affects an employee's perception about improved performance, success of implementation, and individual learning on change the most.

Figure 10

Conceptual Framework by the Author



Note. Adapted from “Want to, Need to, Ought to: Commitment to Organizational Change,” by J. Parish, S. Cadwallader, and P. Busch, 2008, *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 21(1), 32–52.

Synthesis

Organizational commitment has been considered a strong organizational driver that can possibly affect different indicators of performance in an organization. Initially, side-bet commitment showed that employees are influenced by other factors aside from economic benefit such as external pressures on an employee (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Still, the three predictors proposed by Allen and Meyer were still considered as a better predictor to organizational commitment in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996;

Meyer & Allen, 1991). This organizational commitment that employees possess can be linked to understanding their readiness for supposed change in an organization. Several authors found that social relationships in the workplace, specifically with supervisors and managers, were significant predictors for organizational change readiness as exhibited in the study of Barber (2010) and Madsen et al. (2005). In addition, personal factors such as external pressures, individual learning, personality traits, and trusts were also considered as significant predictors of organizational change readiness (Mangundjaya, 2012, 2013; Marchalina et al., 2021; Samaranayake & Takemura, 2017; Soumjaya et al., 2015; N. Shah, 2009).

Despite these developments in the literature, there is still an opportunity to look into an in-depth analysis to identify whether different internal and external factors pertaining employee commitment to organizational change affect several factors to change readiness. Thus, this study explored the effects of employee commitment on several factors such as individual learning, success of change implementation, and perceived performance improvement in the context of the Philippines, specifically in BOC NAIA, where changes are going on.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the antecedents of employee commitment to organizational change, employees' individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance among the employees of the Bureau of Customs – Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA)?

Research Questions

Specifically, the research aimed to answer the main question, “What is the employee commitment to organizational change of the Bureau of Customs – Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA)?” To support the answer to the main question, I also aimed to identify the demographic profile of the respondents, level of employee commitment, and organizational change within the organization.

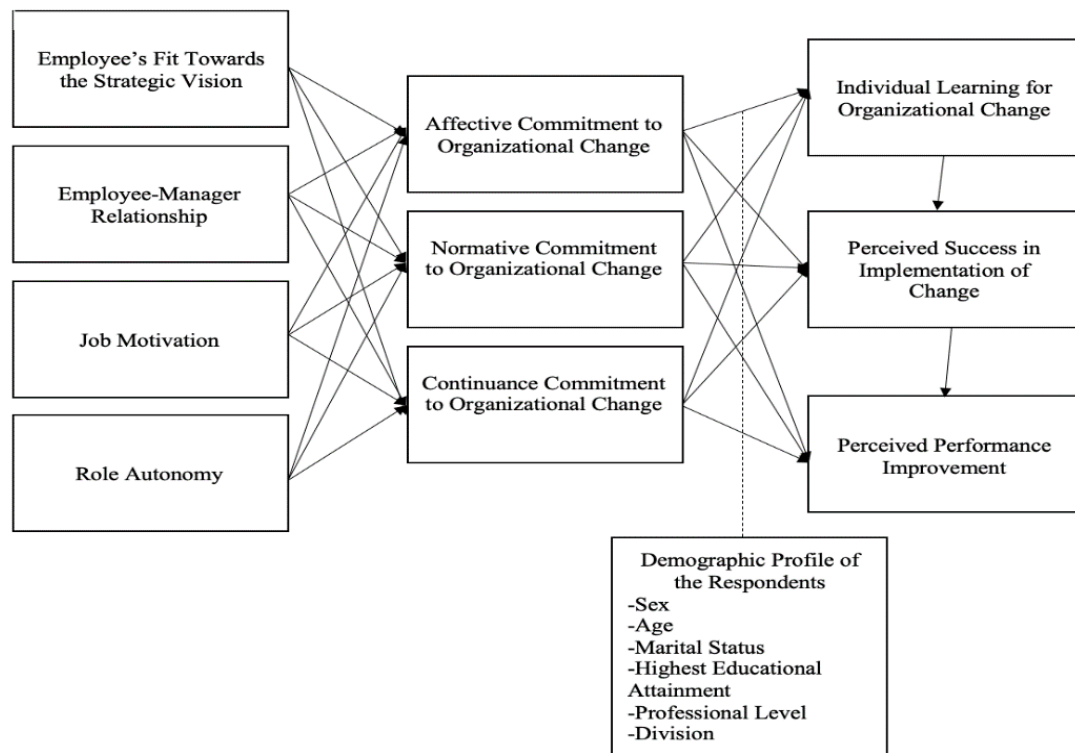
Conceptual Framework of the Study

Based on the review of the related literature and the propositions given in the previous parts, I wanted to determine the employee commitment to organizational change of the employees of Bureau of Customs (BOC), particularly in the Port of NAIA. Given the different antecedents, such as the employee's fit toward the strategic vision, employee–manager relationship, job commitment, and role autonomy, I aimed to know how organizational change affects and contributes toward the affective, normative, and continuance commitment of a member of an organization and on the employees' individual learning for organizational change, perceived success in implementation of change, and perceived performance improvement while also identifying the possible moderating effect of the demographic profile of the respondents on employee

commitment on individual learning, implementation of change, and performance improvement. Given these, I used the conceptual framework presented for this study (see Figure 11) as adapted from Parish et al. (2008).

Figure 11

Proposed Conceptual Framework of the Study as Adapted From Parish et al.



Note. Adapted from “Want to, Need to, Ought to: Commitment to Organizational Change,” by J. Parish, S. Cadwallader, and P. Busch, 2008, *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 21(1), 32–52.

Protection of Human Subjects

In this study, I served as an objective researcher independent from the actual study and upheld the highest ethical standards and practice for the entirety of the study. The research process was deductive and value-free, and the results were used to

determine the effects of the determinants of employee commitment on organizational change of the BOC in the Philippines, particularly the Port of NAIA. Specifically, I used sequential-explanatory design to fully answer the main research question. This entailed the collection of data using a survey questionnaire, and then prior studies and focus group discussions (FGDs) were used to further explain the numeric results of the study.

The initial step in ensuring that the objectivity of the study was that I had to ensure that the respondents were considered as employees of BOC–NAIA. I sent the study to the human resource management of the port with the approval of the head of the port. Once the mass dissemination of the survey questionnaire to the employees was accomplished, I then explained the subject and significance of the study to the participants and asked whether they were willing to participate. I then expounded that the data gathering procedure involved a mixed methods approach in which a survey questionnaire for the quantitative study was administered, and a FGD for the qualitative part would be conducted. For the FGD, those who participated in the survey were asked for their consent if they were willing to participate in the discussion. I reassured the participants that no sanctions or other consequences would come if they chose to participate or not to participate in the study. In the memorandum that the port released, I highlighted and reiterated these conditions. In addition, it was made clear that no identifiable data such as names and email addresses were collected to further protect their identity and status within the BOC NAIA. However, if they consented to participate in the FGD, I had to collect their names and their contact details such as email or cellular phone number. Furthermore, to ensure the anonymity of the FGD participants, I invited the participants to another place away from the work proximity.

The data gathered from the two main procedures were strictly used as a basis for academic purposes and for managerial recommendations. because there is no active review board in BOC NAIA, I gained permission directly from the Office of the District Collector by sharing the purpose of the study and sharing with them the analysis and discussion thereafter. To ensure the utmost confidentiality and anonymity of the smaller divisions, I grouped them according to the nature of their work. The data gathered from the study were only analyzed by a third-party statistician and me to aid in the interpretation of the data. Last, I personally kept the questionnaires and the transcription of the FGDs to further ensure their confidentiality.

Research Design

This study used a mixed methods research design, particularly a sequential-explanatory design. According to Terrell (2015), this design is used when there is an interaction between quantitative and qualitative data. To better understand what is happening, there is a need for qualitative data collection and analysis to better explain the quantitative data that were collected and analyzed. Each research question was answered by means and standard deviations. Furthermore, interviews in the form of FGDs were conducted to validate and support the results of the quantitative results of the study to create triangulation and integration to fully answer the research questions that were presented. To further illustrate how the sequential-explanatory design worked in this study, Figure 12 shows the research design notation.

Population

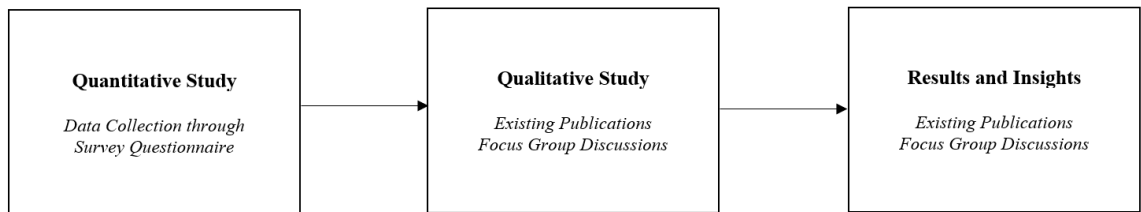
The study focused on the BOC – Port of NAIA, which consists of 420 employees as of August 2022. At the time of this study, there were 24 divisions that were under the

port of NAIA. Table 2 presents the breakdown of the number of employees within the port.

These offices consist of a healthy mix of employees between 20 and 60 years of age having various marital status, educational attainment, and professional levels, the majority being Customs Operations Officer I, III, and V. Customs Operations Officer I is the entry level, and V is the supervisory levels.

Figure 12

Research Design Notation of the Study



Sample

Simple random sampling was used to collect approximately 80% ($n = 336$) of the survey responses during the first stage. To ensure that I would achieve the 336 or more responses, the human resource management of the port disseminated the survey questionnaire to all employees in the port along with the memorandum of the head to increase the likelihood of participation. Despite the efforts, there were only 206 valid responses that were considered in this study. To further validate the number of the responses, an a priori analysis was used to further calculate whether the valid responses were already enough to establish model significance. I anticipated the effect size to be 0.5, which according to Cohen (1988), denoted a large effect. The desired statistical power level was also set to 0.95. Considering the variables, the study has 10 latent

variables to which there are 40 observed variables to directly measure the latent variables.

Last, the probability level was set to 0.05 to claim statistical significance.

Table 2

Number of Employees in Port of NAIA

Division	Number of employees
Domestic Division	3
Customer Care Center	14
Warehouse Assessment Unit	3
Customs Bonded Warehouse Division	51
Cargohaus	10
Central Mail Exchange Center	19
Office of the District Collector	8
Paircargo	8
Philippine Airlines / Philippine Skylanders Incorporated	17
Bonds Division	6
Office of the Deputy Collector for Assessment	5
Operations Division	9
TMW Worldwide Express	4
Collection Division	13
Customs PEZA Clearance Office	5
DHL	14
Export Division	17
Entry Processing Division	20
Macroasia Special Economic Zone	5
Liquidation and Billing Division	9
Passenger Service	97
Law Division	13
Customs Duty Free Shops Division	10
Aircraft Operations Division	60
Total	420

Using an a priori calculator, it was revealed that the minimum sample size to detect effect was at 67, and the minimum sample size for model structure and the

recommended minimum sample size resulted in 100. The sample number for the data collected was more than what was suggested by the results of the a priori calculation.

On the other hand, convenience and purposive sampling was used to identify the 18 interviewees who participated in the three runs of six-participant FGDs to validate the results of the quantitative analysis. Participants of the FGDs were selected from those who participated in answering the survey questionnaire and consented to be a part of the FGDs.

Following the approval of California Baptist University's Institutional Review Board and the Office of the District Collector for BOC NAIA, the survey questionnaire was administered in the port of NAIA. Survey participants were also asked whether they were willing to participate in a FGD to talk about the results of the survey. For those who agreed, their email and their mobile phone numbers were collected. Respondents who consented to participate in the FGD were informed about their rights concerning the Philippine Data Privacy Act of 2012. They were also notified that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point in time with no consequences thereafter.

Instrument

The study adapted the survey instrument used by Parish et al. (2008) to identify the factors relating to employee commitment to the success of organizational change initiatives. According to Parish et al., their 6-point Likert scale measurements were adapted from the existing measures that focused on nonfinancial items. Specifically, they adapted Noble and Mokwa's (1999) measures on employees' fit with vision, role autonomy, and implementation success. Measures on the commitment to the manager and trust in the manager were adapted from the study of Morgan and Hunt (1994).

Satisfaction with managers was adapted from Andaleeb (1996) and Li and Dant (1997). Measures of job motivation were adapted from Ganesan and Weitz (1996). Measures on learning were adapted from Malter and Dickson (2001). Measures on improved performance were adapted from Homburg et al. (2002). Last, measures of employee commitment to organizational change were adapted from the study of Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Table 3 presents the reliability and validity results of the instrument as conducted by Parish et al. (2008) with the use of a tau-equivalent reliability test, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. In addition to the adapted survey questionnaire, I also added questions on the demographic profile of employees on sex, age, marital status, highest educational attainment, professional level, and division.

Data Collection

Before distributing the survey questionnaire, I secured the approval of California Baptist University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Afterward, I also secured an approval and endorsement letter from the Office of the District Collector of the BOC NAIA, Philippines. Upon securing the approval of the study, I administered an initial testing of the survey questionnaire to check its validity and reliability in the context of the Philippines.

Once the survey questionnaire was deemed to be reliable and valid, I formally administered the instrument to the port of NAIA through physical and electronic administering tools, particularly Qualtrics. The administration of the questionnaire was done during off-peak hours so as not to disrupt the operational activities of the port. As mentioned, I collected 206 responses out of the proposed 336 respondents, which is 61% of the proposed target. The results were then processed using different statistical

treatments, particularly descriptive statistics and partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses.

Table 3

Reliability Tests of the Instruments Used in Parish et al. (2008)

Measure	Source	α	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Fit with vision	Noble and Mokwa (1999)	0.838	0.831	0.623
Commitment to manager	Morgan and Hunt (1994)	0.975	0.993	0.942
Trust to manager	Morgan and Hunt (1994)	0.989		
Satisfaction with manager	Andaleeb (1996) and Li and Dant (1997)	0.972		
Job motivation	Ganesan and Weitz (1996)	0.912	0.913	0.942
Role autonomy	Noble and Mokwa (1999)	0.864	0.878	0.711
Affective commitment to organizational change	Herscovitch and Meyer (2002)	0.953	0.954	0.840
Continuance commitment to organizational change	Herscovitch and Meyer (2002)	0.873	0.886	0.727
Normative commitment to organizational change	Herscovitch and Meyer (2002)	0.909	0.844	0.575
Learning	Malter and Dickson (2001)	0.886	0.899	0.753
Implementation success	Noble and Mokwa (1999)	0.920	0.919	0.792
Improved performance	Homburg et al., (2002)	0.960	0.962	0.863

Note. Accepted values for alpha, composite reliability, and AVE are $> .700$.

The quantitative results were relayed to the participants of the three runs of six-participant FGDs to further validate and give insights regarding the results. In aid of this endeavor, the interviews were held both physically in the port and online using Zoom or

Google Meet for those who were working at home. At the end of each FGD, the recordings were transcribed and analyzed in relation to the quantitative results and the recent literature.

Data Analysis

The data that were gathered from the survey responses were processed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics using frequency distribution, mean, and standard deviations were used to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents as well as the levels of the key constructs relating to the study. The responses on individual constructs of the latent variables had individual means and standard deviations, and then later on the overall mean and standard deviation for that certain latent variable were identified. On the other hand, partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to further answer and test the effects of all the determinants of employee commitment on organizational change of the employees of BOC–NAIA. To do this, I used the R programming language with the use of “psych” and “seminR” packages to process the data collected from the study.

According to Hair et al. (2022), this statistical modeling technique is an evolving process that is used to develop different theories in research by focusing on explaining the variances in the dependent variable when examining the given model. Moreover, this process is much more flexible than first-generation techniques such as regression analyses. Aside from this, the small sample size does not cause any issues in identifying the best models, and it does not take any distributional assumptions; it is a high robust modeling technique as long as the missing data are below a reasonable level, and the technique works well with diverse kind of data. In terms of the relationships built among

the constructs of this study, PLS-SEM can easily handle complex models with many structural model relationships to which a researcher can easily identify the possible mediating and moderating effects of different variables involved in the study.

Similar to the methodology of Parish et al. (2008), this method allowed the evaluation of the measurement and structural models based on the theory and the conceptual framework of the study through factor loadings, indicator multicollinearity, reliability analysis, and construct validity. Hence, treatment for the questions was simultaneously analyzed on an individual and aggregated basis. Further, using this algorithm maximized the number of unexplained variances (R^2) of the data, and the construct scores were also used to estimate and predict linear combinations of the variable indicators. Furthermore, the usage of this method along with bootstrapping made the parameter estimates lead to large statistical consistencies and high levels of statistical power. Aside from this, hierarchical regression analysis was used to determine the moderating effect of the demographic profile of the respondents on the variables of the study.

As for the qualitative data that were collected through FGDs, I further analyzed the transcription for common themes to understand the responses of the interviewees. This process enabled me to present the findings of the study effectively. To ensure the proper data governance in accordance with the Data Privacy Act of the Philippines, the data collected from the FGDs were stored and analyzed in a personal cloud-based document editing tool—Google Docs and Sheets—ensuring that it was only I who had the access to all raw data.

Design and Instrument Limitations

The instrument that was used in this study was adapted from the study conducted by Parish et al. (2008). The instrumentation that was used in their study was further adapted from various authors who have used the questions to measure different aspects of an organization.

In addition to this, I also chose the BOC particularly the Port of NAIA because I belong to this organization. Hence, I deemed that it was more convenient to collect responses from this port because it is more accessible compared to other ports and government agencies in the Philippines. Respondents from other ports of the BOC, having different situations and work paradigms, may have different attitudes toward the research topic; the port of NAIA may not represent the other ports as effectively as doing firsthand research in those ports. Although I tried to collect the responses from 420 employees of the port of NAIA, there were some divisions that may appear as underrepresented because of the number of employees. Hence, I compared the first and fourth quartiles of the responses for the demographics and key variables. If there were no significant differences among the results of the model, then it may be concluded that there was no nonresponse bias involved in the study.

Summary

This study aimed to answer what is the effect of employee commitment on organizational change among the 420 employees of the BOC – Port of NAIA in the Philippines. To answer this, the study used a mixed methods research design, particularly a sequential explanatory method because I gathered quantitative data to determine the demographic profile of respondents and the descriptive levels for the key constructs of

the study using the instrument adapted from the study of Parish et al. (2008). The data then were further analyzed using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to identify the possible direct, indirect, moderating, and mediating effects of the variables present in the study. FGDs were also conducted to further validate and analyze the quantitative results to which at the end I triangulated the data and existing literature to ultimately answer the main research question.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS

This chapter presents in detail the results of the analysis of data. The study used a mixed methods research design particularly the explanatory sequential design to answer the main research question, which is to determine the effects of the antecedents of employee commitment to organizational change, employee's individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance within the Bureau of Customs (BOC) – Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA). Descriptive statistics were used to determine the demographic characteristics of the respondents as well as the levels of the measured variables. On the other hand, partial least squares - structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to assess the proposed measurement and structural model of the study, resulting in an assessment of the reliability and validity of the constructs and assertion of the significance of the hypothesized relationships that were presented in the previous parts of the study. To complete the triangulation process, the results of the study are further explained by the responses coming from the focus group discussions (FGDs) that were conducted.

The Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Before answering the research questions that were presented, discussing the demographic characteristics of the respondents can identify the respondents and establish the context of the study. The profiling of the respondents includes their sex, age, marital status, educational attainment, professional level, and the division where they belong within NAIA.

Table 4 presents the frequency and percentages of the sex of the respondents. Results show that 52.4% ($n = 108$) of the respondents were male, and the remaining

47.6% ($n = 98$) were female. According to the Civil Service Commission (CSC) of the Philippines (2014), men continued to dominate the domains of government in the Philippines. The commissioner of CSC also mentioned that the reason why there is a gender imbalance at the higher ranks is that most of the high-level decision making is left to men. But it was also said that the career service, which forms the majority of government employees, selects candidates based on merit and fitness through competitive examinations or technical qualifications, and the majority of the people who have these qualifications were men.

Table 4

Sex of the Respondents

Sex	<i>f</i>	%
Male	108	52.4
Female	98	47.6

As for the age group of the respondents presented in Table 5, the majority of the respondents can be classified as millennials, according to Kotler and Armstrong (2013), of whom 21.36% ($n = 44$) were grouped as 26 to 30 years old, 20.39% ($n = 42$) as 31 to 35 years old, and 17.96% ($n = 37$) were grouped into 36 to 40 years. Although it may be given that millennials are already taking over the current workforce in the Philippines, the majority of the members of this age group could work in various organizations and industries. But in an interview conducted by Serafica (2016), the interview participants pointed out that some millennials choose to work in public office because of plain curiosity to understand what is at the government and that they believe their life stability could be achieved if they work in the government.

Table 5*Age of the Respondents*

Age range	<i>f</i>	%
20 to 25	7	3.40%
26 to 30	44	21.36%
31 to 35	42	20.39%
36 to 40	37	17.96%
41 to 45	26	12.62%
46 to 50	18	8.74%
51 to 55	10	4.85%
56 to 60	12	5.83%
61 to 65	10	4.85%

As for the marital status as presented in Table 6, half of the respondents or 57.30% ($n = 118$) were married, and 41.70% ($n = 86$) are single. The FGD participants mentioned that the reason why most of the respondents in the survey were married, given their age and background, was that government posts or public service could be a good career for them for their future life because it could provide stable work as long as they had civil service license and an available position in the approved listing of positions in the government institution (*plantilla*). Several of the participants of the FGD also mentioned that as long as an employee remains loyal within the government agency, their salary grade and job security will scale up with their age and tenure in the government.

Table 6*Marital Status of the Respondents*

Marital status	<i>f</i>	%
Married	118	57.30%
Single	86	41.70%
Widow/er	1	0.50%
Separated/annulled	1	0.50%

Table 7 presents the educational attainment of the respondents. Based on the results, more than half of respondents are college degree graduates at 66.70% ($n = 137$). This was followed by master's degree holders at 32% or 66 employees. The remaining percentages represent doctoral degree holders at two and one postdoctoral degree holder. Based on the Executive Order No. 292, s. 1987, Book V, Title I, Subtitle A, which Institutes the Administrative Code of 1987 in the Philippines particularly on the CSC, the commission enforces the constitutional and statutory provisions of the civil service, which follows certain rules, policies, and regulations for efficient personnel administration, including position classification and compensation (Republic of the Philippines, 1987). Therefore, to take an entry level position in BOC such as Customs Operations Officer I, the only two important eligibilities that the agency requires is that the application should hold career service (professional) second level eligibility and a bachelor's degree in any field. Those who have a master's degree and other higher educational attainment were employees who possess middle level position and higher-level positions within the agency. This is also in line with the provisions of the mandate of CSC pertaining to the upgrading of an employee's status and position based on the merits and qualifications presented in their personnel data sheet.

Table 7

Educational Attainment of the Respondents

Highest degree earned	<i>f</i>	%
College degree	137	66.50%
Master's degree	66	32.00%
Doctoral degree	2	1.00%
Postdoctoral degree	1	0.50%

Following the previous table, Table 8 presents the professional level of the respondents. Based on the results, almost half of the respondents serve as Customs Operations Officer III at 48.54% ($n = 100$). This was followed by Customs Operations Officer V at 31 responses, administrative aid with 18 responses, Customs Operations Officer I at 17 respondents, and the remaining percentages cover higher level posts or other ancillary posts within NAIA.

Table 8

Professional Level of the Respondents

Professional level	<i>f</i>	%
Customs Operations Officer III	100	48.54%
Customs Operations Officer V	31	15.05%
Administrative Aide	18	8.74%
Customs Operations Officer I	17	8.25%
Chief Customs Operations Officer	9	4.37%
Security Guard	8	3.88%
Supervising Customs Operations Officer	6	2.91%
Assistant Customs Operations Officer	4	1.94%
Boarding Officer	3	1.46%
Attorney II	3	1.46%
Warehouseman	2	0.97%
Contract of Service	2	0.97%
Customs Operations Officer III	1	0.49%
Collection Officer I	1	0.49%
Attorney III	1	0.49%

As presented in Table 7, those who have a college degree can apply for as high as Customs Operations Officer V if they have sufficient relevant training experience and working experience. Similarly, several employees with the item (job title) of Customs Operations Officer V, chief customs operations officer, supervising customs officer could also correspond to the number of the master's degree holder from the educational attainment table. It is also important to take note that having a higher educational

attainment does not automatically guarantee a higher professional level in a government office because it is based on the availability of the item within the plantilla of the government agency.

Table 9 presents the divisions in which the respondents are working. Based on the descriptive results of the data, 54% of the respondents belong to the arrival operations division of NAIA, and 30% belong to the departure operations division. Eleven percent came from the customs bonded warehouse division, and the rest of the percentages were scattered in different divisions and offices in NAIA.

Given the descriptive results, the majority of the respondents came from the arrival and departure divisions of the airport because the agency serves as the entry and exit point for both international and domestic travels. According to NAIA statistics, there was a total of 30,912,162 who used the airport in 2022 alone, of which 15,526,950 was catered by the arrival division, and the departure division handled 15,385,212 for both international and domestic travels, which explains the high response rates coming from this division (Manila International Airport Authority [MIAA], n.d.).

Study Variables

Table 10 presents the descriptive statistics for the level of employee fit toward the strategic vision among the employees of BOC in the Port of NAIA. According to Noble and Mokwa (1999), the fit toward strategic vision pertains to the degree at which a strategy is implemented or is seen as congruent with the overall direction of the organization. This could also pertain to the employees' perception that change initiatives is consistent with an organization's vision that enables them to commit to change (Parish et al., 2008).

Table 9*Divisions of the Respondents*

Division	<i>f</i>	%
Arrival Operations Division	54	54.00%
Departure Operations Division	30	30.00%
Customs Bonded Warehouse Division	11	11.00%
Office of the District Collector	8	8.00%
Collection Division	8	8.00%
Administrative Division	8	8.00%
Customer Care Center	7	7.00%
Cargohaus	7	7.00%
Aircraft Operations Division	7	7.00%
Paircargo	6	6.00%
CMEC	6	6.00%
Bonds Division	6	6.00%
PAL-PSI	5	5.00%
Warehousing Assessment Unit	4	4.00%
Export Division	4	4.00%
Entry Processing Division	4	4.00%
DHL	4	4.00%
Assessment Composite Unit	4	4.00%
Passenger Service	3	3.00%
Law Division	3	3.00%
CPCO	3	3.00%
TMW	2	2.00%
Operations Division	2	2.00%
Duty Free Shops	2	2.00%
Baggage Assistance Division	2	2.00%
X-RAY	1	1.00%
PEZA	1	1.00%
MASEZ	1	1.00%
Manila Domestic	1	1.00%
ECCF	1	1.00%
Disbursing	1	1.00%

Table 10*Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Employee Fit Toward Strategic Vision*

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
fwv1	The change is part of an overall strategic plan within my department	4.922	0.755	Agree	Fitting with vision
fwv2	The change is consistent with other things going on in my department	5.126	0.715	Agree	Fitting with vision
fwv3	I understand how the change fits within the strategic vision of my department	5.010	0.778	Agree	Fitting with vision
	Overall mean	5.019	0.749	Agree	Fitting with vision

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The first aspect examined focuses on whether employees perceive the change as part of an overall strategic plan within their department. The mean rating of 4.922 (*SD* = 0.755) suggests a generally positive perception. Employees agreed that the change is in line with the department’s strategic vision, as indicated by the interpretation “agree” and the qualitative indicator “fitting with vision.”

The next indicator looked at employees’ perceptions of the change’s consistency with other ongoing activities in the department. With a mean rating of 5.126 (*SD* = 0.715), participants gave a favorable perception. The FGD participants acknowledged that the change is congruent with other initiatives not only in the Port of NAIA –BOC but also with the initiatives with the other parts of the government, thereby supporting the bureau and the national strategic vision. Hence, it can be said that there is a fitting with the vision among the employees.

The third indicator focused on employees' understanding of how the change fits within the strategic vision of their department. The mean rating of 5.010 ($SD = 0.778$) indicates a positive perception. Employees expressed agreement with the statement, demonstrating their understanding of the change's alignment with the strategic vision. This also meant that the employees understood how the change fits with the vision of the bureau, the whole airport network, and the national government.

In summary, the overall assessment of employee fit toward the strategic vision garnered a mean rating of 5.019 ($SD = 0.749$); employees showcased a generally positive perception across the measured aspects. This can be also seen with the results of Parish et al. (2008) that their respondents' overall mean resulted to 5.26 ($SD = 1.83$). The consistent agreement with the statements indicates a strong alignment between the change and the strategic vision.

Table 11 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insight into employees' perceptions of their relationship with their managers. According to Johnson and Warshaw (1990), employee–manager relationship pertains to a dynamic process that involves exchange or conversation about topics with managers who are responsible for managing staff under their supervision in the workplace.

The table comprises nine items (em1-em9) that explore various constructs of the employee–manager relationship. The mean ratings range from 4.733 to 4.942, indicating a generally positive perception across all dimensions. These mean ratings, accompanied by relatively low standard deviations (ranging from 0.658 to 0.772), suggest a moderate level of agreement among participants.

Table 11*Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Employee–Manager Relationship*

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
em1	The relationship that I have with my manager is something I am committed to	4.942	0.769	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em2	The relationship that I have with my manager is important to me	4.913	0.754	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em3	The relationship that I have with my manager is something I care about	4.927	0.732	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em4	In our relationship, my manager can be always trusted	4.898	0.687	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em5	In our relationship, my manager can be trusted completely	4.752	0.727	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em6	In our relationship, my manager can be counted on to do what is right	4.874	0.658	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em7	My relationship with my manager seems to reflect a happy situation	4.869	0.757	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em8	My relationship with my manager is very positive	4.733	0.772	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
em9	The relationship with my manager has been satisfactory	4.898	0.761	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
	Overall mean	4.867	0.735	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

Among the different constructs for employee–manager relationship, the question on “the relationship I have with my manager is something I am committed to” garnered the highest mean at 4.942 (*SD* = 0.769), which can be interpreted as employees having a good employee–manager relationship. According to the responses of the participants of the FGD, they became committed to their relationship with their manager because of the

confidence, competence, and firmness of the manager. Furthermore, three of the participants of the first run of FGD mentioned that their commitment to the relationship between their manager was because of their firmness and fairness that induce cooperations that gear toward the change that is being implemented.

Furthermore, to explain the results of the other items, the FGD respondents believe in the trustworthiness and dependability of their managers (em4-em6), indicating a solid foundation of trust within the relationship. This is strongly highlighted by the fact that strong Filipino values carry into the workplace, such as the values of *pakikipawa* or togetherness and *pakikisama* or companionship. These values emphasize that individuals do not work alone but in collaboration with others or groups of people (Bunda et al., 2021). Moreover, employees perceive their relationship with their managers as reflective of a positive and satisfactory situation, contributing to a favorable work environment (em7-em9).

The overall average for the employee–manager relationship was 4.867, with a standard deviation of 0.735. This suggests that employees, on average, hold a positive perception of their relationship with their managers. The verbal interpretation “agree” and the qualitative interpretation of “good employee–manager relationship” reinforce the notion of a healthy and constructive dynamic between employees and their managers within NAIA-BOC.

Table 12 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insights into NAIA – BOC employees’ perceptions of their job motivation. According to Meyer et al. (2002), job motivation

pertains to an energizing force that has implications on behaviors, attitude, and willingness in a workplace.

Table 12

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Job Motivation

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
jm1	My job is exciting and challenging	5.087	0.917	Agree	High job motivation
jm2	My job gives me an opportunity to learn something new and different	4.990	0.883	Agree	High job motivation
jm3	My job is really interesting to me	4.985	0.864	Agree	High job motivation
	Overall mean	5.021	0.888	Agree	High job motivation

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The table includes three items (jm1-jm3) that explore different aspects of job motivation. The mean ratings range from 4.985 to 5.087, indicating a consistently high level of job motivation among participants. The relatively large standard deviations (ranging from 0.864 to 0.917) suggest some variability in responses, indicating that although overall motivation is high, there are individual differences in the intensity of motivation. One respondent from the FGD mentioned that the challenges that they face are due to the character of the personnel who were assigned to them. On the other hand, other respondents also mentioned that the performance measurements that are implemented provide moderate challenge as well as excitement in their work. Aside from these, the type of passengers they deal daily makes the job significantly challenging. As for the other indicators, the respondents find their work to be interesting, indicating a

genuine intrinsic interest and passion for their job (jm3). These findings suggest that employees derive fulfillment and satisfaction from their work, which contributes to their overall job motivation.

The overall average for job motivation was 5.021 with a standard deviation of 0.888. This indicates a high level of job motivation among the participants. The interpretation “agree” and the quality indicator “high job motivation” reinforce the notion that employees are motivated and engaged in their work, finding it exciting, challenging, and intellectually stimulating.

Table 13 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insights into employees’ perceptions of their role autonomy. Role autonomy is a concept that refers to an employee’s belief about having freedom or control over certain aspects of their job that includes decision making and behavior adjustment (Noble & Mokwa, 1999).

Table 13

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Role Autonomy

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
ra1	I had a great deal of autonomy during this organizational change	4.005	1.102	Somewhat agree	Somewhat high level of role autonomy
ra2	I felt I was my own boss in implementing this change	3.675	1.146	Somewhat agree	Somewhat high level of role autonomy
ra3	In implementing this strategy, I could make my own decisions	3.850	1.074	Somewhat agree	Somewhat high level of role autonomy
	Overall mean	3.843	1.107	Somewhat agree	Somewhat high level of role autonomy

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The table comprises three items (ra1-ra3) that explore different aspects of role autonomy during the implementation of an organizational change. The mean ratings range from 3.675 to 4.005, indicating a somewhat high level of role autonomy among participants. The relatively large standard deviations (ranging from 1.074 to 1.146) suggest variability in responses, indicating that individual experiences of role autonomy during the change process may differ.

Employees expressed a somewhat agreeable perception of having a great deal of autonomy during the organizational change (ra1). The mean rating of 4.005 indicates a positive perception, and the standard deviation of 1.102 suggests some variation in employees' experiences. As mentioned by three FGD respondents who have supervisory roles, they are autonomous in terms of implementing their decisions for the examiners in the airport. Similarly, employees somewhat agreed that they felt like their own boss in implementing the change ($M = 3.675$) and had the freedom to make their own decisions in implementing the strategy ($M = 3.850$). Consequently, the respondents mentioned that they have the power to implement deadlines to adhere with the change in line with compliance.

The overall average for role autonomy was 3.843 with a standard deviation of 1.107. This indicates a somewhat high level of role autonomy during the organizational change. The interpretation "somewhat agree" and the qualitative interpretation "somewhat high level of role autonomy" emphasize the presence of autonomy to some extent. To support this conclusion, the FGD respondents felt a higher role autonomy and that they were able to exercise their functions well and contribute more. They also feel vital to the organization, knowing that they have higher involvement.

Table 14 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insights into employees' emotional and affective responses to the change. The table includes four items (ac1-ac4) that assess different aspects of affective commitment to the organizational change. The mean ratings range from 4.942 to 5.189, indicating a consistently high level of affective commitment among participants. The relatively small standard deviations (ranging from 0.676 to 0.822) suggest a relatively high level of agreement among employees regarding their affective commitment to the change. Parish et al. (2008) defined affective commitment to organizational change as the emotional attachment that employees have toward their organization or role within it. It involves feelings such as loyalty and responsibility for the outcomes achieved by the organization.

Employees expressed belief in the value of the change (ac1), perceiving it as a good strategy for the department (ac2), and recognizing its important purpose (ac3). They also believed that things would improve as a result of the change (ac4). The majority of the respondents in the FGD agreed with the statements presented to them. Because of cascading of the mission of the new government and the administration of the port, the methods increased the target are all met and for the better. The changes that were also given increase the organization's rapport and exposure as a competent organization. This also increased the value of the organization on how they could contribute to the Philippine economy. According to the employees, the value, strategies, and purpose of the change were also validated by the third-party auditors and stakeholders.

Table 14

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Affective Commitment to Organizational Change

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
ac1	I believe in the value of this change	4.942	0.769	Agree	High level of affective commitment to organizational change
ac2	This change is a good strategy for this department	5.189	0.676	Agree	High level of affective commitment to organizational change
ac3	This change serves an important purpose	5.068	0.818	Agree	High level of affective commitment to organizational change
ac4	Things will be better because of this change	4.956	0.822	Agree	High level of affective commitment to organizational change
	Overall mean	5.039	0.771	Agree	High level of affective commitment to organizational change

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The overall average for affective commitment to organizational change was 5.039 with a standard deviation of 0.771. These findings suggest that employees hold positive affective attitudes toward the change and are emotionally invested in its success. The high mean ratings and small standard deviations indicate a strong consensus among participants regarding their affective commitment to the organizational change.

Table 15 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insights into employees' perceived costs and pressures related to the change. Authors such as Vandenberghe et al. (2004) and Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) defined continuance commitment as a form of employee loyalty that

arises from an enduring attachment and investment toward employees who are committed to a long-term employment in an organization over another that offers greater job security, wages, or benefits given by a possible second employer considering the changes that they are experiencing.

Table 15

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
cc1	I feel pressure to go along with this change	4.184	1.150	Agree	High level of continuance commitment to organizational change
cc2	I have too much at stake to resist this change	4.461	1.076	Agree	High level of continuance commitment to organizational change
cc3	It would be too costly for me to resist this change	4.607	1.005	Agree	High level of continuance commitment to organizational change
	Overall mean	4.417	1.077	Agree	High level of continuance commitment to organizational change

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The table comprises three items (cc1-cc3) that assess different aspects of continuance commitment to the organizational change. The mean ratings range from 4.184 to 4.607, indicating a relatively high level of continuance commitment among participants. The standard deviations, which range from 1.005 to 1.150, suggest some variability in responses, indicating individual differences in the perceived costs and pressures associated with the change.

Employees reported feeling pressure to go along with the change (cc1) and believed they have too much at stake to resist it (cc2). They also perceived that resisting the change would be costly for them (cc3). These findings suggest that employees feel a sense of obligation and perceive potential negative consequences if they resist the change. The mean ratings indicate a relatively high level of continuance commitment with some variation in individual responses.

Focusing on the two highest means of the constructs (cc2 and cc3), the respondents mentioned that resisting the change would be too much at stake, and it would be too costly for them because they could be legally charged as civil servants. Aside from this, organizational and managerial relationships could diminish if they were to resist the change, which could lead to issuance of show-cause orders, ombudsman cases, or Customs Personnel Order (CPO) that entails the transfer of duties to outposts or far-flung ports (i.e., Tawi-Tawi).

The overall average for continuance commitment to organizational change is 4.417 with a standard deviation of 1.077. This indicates a high level of continuance commitment among the participants and individual experiences varying to some extent. The verbal interpretation “agree” and the qualitative indicator “high level of continuance commitment to organizational change” underscore the perceived costs and pressures associated with the change process.

Table 16 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insights into employees’ feelings of duty and obligation toward the change.

Table 16

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Normative Commitment to Organizational Change

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
nc1	I feel a sense of duty to work toward this change	4.714	0.765	Agree	High level of normative commitment to organizational change
nc2	I do not think it would be right of me to oppose this change	4.786	0.773	Agree	High level of normative commitment to organizational change
nc3	I would feel guilty about opposing this change	4.529	0.996	Agree	High level of normative commitment to organizational change
nc4	I feel obligated to support this change	4.699	0.956	Agree	High level of normative commitment to organizational change
	Overall mean	4.682	0.873	Agree	High level of normative commitment to organizational change

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The table consists of four items (nc1-nc4) that assess different aspects of normative commitment to the organizational change. The mean ratings range from 4.529 to 4.786, indicating a consistently high level of normative commitment among participants. The relatively small standard deviations (ranging from 0.765 to 0.996) suggest a relatively high level of agreement among employees regarding their normative commitment to the change.

Employees expressed a sense of duty to work toward the change (nc1) and believed it would not be right to oppose it (nc2). They also indicated that they would feel guilty about opposing the change (nc3) and feel obligated to support it (nc4). These

findings suggest that employees feel a moral obligation to contribute to the change process and adhere to organizational expectations. The high mean ratings and small standard deviations indicate a strong consensus among participants regarding their normative commitment to the organizational change.

To further explain these results, the FGD participants mentioned that they have a right to oppose; however, they did not feel that they had the power, opinion, or action. As a result, they do not have a choice but to comply. According to them, the prime example of this change is the stricter implementation of the biometrics logging of each employee in the port and bureau.

The overall average for normative commitment to organizational change was 4.682 with a standard deviation of 0.873. This indicates a high level of normative commitment to the change among the participants. The interpretation “Agree” and the qualitative indicator “high level of normative commitment to organizational change” highlight the strong sense of duty, moral obligation, and adherence to organizational norms displayed by employees toward the change initiative.

Table 17 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to provide insights into employees’ perceptions of their learning experiences and its impact on their effectiveness and overall performance.

The table consists of three items (I1-I3) that assess different aspects of individual learning for organizational change. The mean ratings range from 4.675 to 5.029, indicating a consistently high level of individual learning among participants.

Table 17

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Individual Learning for Organizational Change

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
11	It only took me a brief period of time to understand how the change would benefit my company	4.675	0.800	Agree	High level of individual learning for organizational change
12	I feel that as a result of understanding the change, I am more effective in my job	5.029	0.677	Agree	High level of individual learning for organizational change
13	I feel that as a result of understanding the change, I am a better employee overall	4.976	0.774	Agree	High level of individual learning for organizational change
	Overall mean	4.893	0.750	Agree	High level of individual learning for organizational change

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

Employees reported that it only took them a brief period to understand how the change would benefit the company (11). They also felt that because of understanding the change, they were more effective in their job (12) and better employees overall (13). These findings indicate that employees perceive a positive impact on their knowledge acquisition and skill development, leading to increased job effectiveness and overall performance. Furthermore, those who have participated in the FGD mentioned that their duty performance improved because of the increased monitoring of the heads, and it reflected to them as an employee. Other participants also agreed with those statements and mentioned that the more issuances that they have resulted in their better focus and performance. As a result, the processes were more streamlined and shared throughout the

division, and it ultimately increased the ease of doing transactions in the port of NAIA. The high mean ratings and small standard deviations highlight the consistent perception of individual learning experiences among participants.

The overall average for individual learning for organizational change was 4.893 with a standard deviation of 0.750. This indicates a high level of individual learning for the organizational change among the participants. The interpretation “agree” and the qualitative indicator “high level of individual learning for organizational change” shows the perceived benefits of the learning experiences and its positive impact on employees’ effectiveness and overall performance.

Table 18 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, to shed light on employees’ evaluations of the effectiveness and overall accomplishment of the implementation process.

Table 18

Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Perceived Success of Implementation

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
si1	The implementation of this change was effective	4.772	0.753	Agree	High perception of success of implementation
si2	Our implementation effort on this strategy was effective	4.883	0.689	Agree	High perception of success of implementation
si3	I personally think the implementation of the strategy was a success	4.942	0.800	Agree	High perception of success of implementation
	Overall mean	4.866	0.747	Agree	High perception of success of implementation

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The table comprises three items (si1-si3) that capture different aspects of perceived success of implementation. The mean ratings range from 4.772 to 4.942, indicating a consistently high perception of success among the participants. The relatively small standard deviations (ranging from 0.689 to 0.800) suggest a relatively high level of agreement regarding the effectiveness of the implementation process.

Employees reported that they perceive the implementation of the change to be effective (si1). They also believed that their implementation efforts on the strategy were successful (si2) and personally considered the implementation of the strategy as a whole to be a success (si3). These findings demonstrate a positive evaluation of the implementation process, emphasizing employees' confidence in the successful execution of the change or strategy. This can be further explained by the anecdotes coming from the respondents in the FGD. According to them, there was a significant change in the implementation of success because of the better feedback from the stakeholders (i.e., passengers) as shown in the monthly service reports of the port. Aside from the external stakeholders, there was also improved satisfaction from the employees, which they think impacted their commitment to the changes that were happening in the port. The overall average for perceived success of implementation is 4.866 with a standard deviation of 0.747. This indicates a high level of perceived success of implementation among the participants.

Last, Table 19 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and associated interpretations, aiming to provide insights into employees' evaluations of the impact and outcomes of the implemented change.

Table 19*Means, Standard Deviations, and Interpretation for Perceived Performance Improvement*

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
pi1	We improved customer satisfaction as a result of this change	4.990	0.826	Agree	High perception of performance improvement
pi2	We provided a customer benefit as a result of this change	5.141	0.749	Agree	High perception of performance improvement
pi3	We built a positive firm image as a result of this change	5.121	0.802	Agree	High perception of performance improvement
pi4	Overall performance was very high compared to what we expected for this change	4.806	0.785	Agree	High perception of performance improvement
	Overall mean	5.015	0.791	Agree	High perception of performance improvement

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

The table consists of four items (pi1-pi4) that look into various constructs of perceived performance improvement. The mean ratings range from 4.806 to 5.141, showing a high perception of performance improvement among the participants of the study.

Based on the descriptive results, employees perceived improvements in customer satisfaction because of the implemented change (pi1). They believed that the change provided a customer benefit (pi2) and contributed to building a positive firm image (pi3). Moreover, employees perceived the overall performance to be exceptionally high compared to the expectations set for the change (pi4). These findings collectively reflect

a high level of perceived performance improvement resulting from the implemented change. Based on the answers of the research participants, particularly those who joined the FGDs, the performance improvement was reflected in the feedback given to them by the external and internal stakeholders. The stakeholders mentioned that the processes and the issuance of pertinent documents for their requests were faster compared to their previous experiences with the port and the bureau. Furthermore, the feedback of these external stakeholders leaned positively toward the performance of the examiners, which they regarded as excellent. As a result of this performance improvement, the employees of the port and bureau were being recognized as competent workers of the government, and they felt that their efforts were appreciated as reflected in their individual performance commitment (IPCRs) and review and office performance commitment and review (OPCRs). The overall average for perceived performance improvement was 5.015 with a standard deviation of 0.791. This indicates a high level of perceived performance improvement among the participants.

Given the descriptive results of the constructs pertaining to the variables, Table 20 shows the summary of the latent variables that were used in the study. Based on the results, affective commitment to organizational change garnered the highest overall mean at 5.04, which was followed by job motivation at 5.021. Based on the results of the descriptive statistics, the respondents did agree with the indicators presented by the instruments with the exception of role autonomy, which only resulted in “somewhat agree.” Although the answers of the respondents did mention that there was some autonomy in their work, they could not go full on autonomy given the kind of organization they work in. Given that the BOC and the Port of NAIA is operated by the

Philippine government, there are strict measures, protocols, and standard operating procedures that should always be addressed. These protocols can be seen at the citizen's charter of Manila International Airport Authority (MIAA) and the BOC.

Table 20

Descriptive Summary of the Latent Variables

Code	Response	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	VI	QI
fwv	Employee fit toward strategic vision	5.019	0.749	Agree	Fitting with vision
em	Employee–manager relationship	4.867	0.735	Agree	Good employee–manager relationship
jm	Job motivation	5.021	0.888	Agree	High job motivation
ra	Role autonomy	3.843	1.107	Somewhat agree	Somewhat high level of role autonomy
ac	Affective commitment to organizational change	5.04	0.77	Agree	High level of affective commitment to organizational change
cc	Continuance commitment to organizational change	4.42	1.08	Agree	High level of continuance commitment to organizational change
nc	Normative commitment to organizational change	4.68	0.87	Agree	High level of normative commitment to organizational change
l	Individual learning for organizational change	4.89	0.75	Agree	High level of individual learning for organizational change
si	Perceived success of implementation	4.87	0.75	Agree	High perception of success of implementation
pi	Perceived performance improvement	5.01	0.79	Agree	High perception of performance improvement

Note. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; VI = verbal interpretation; QI = qualitative interpretation. The ranges for the VI are as follows: 5.20–6.00 = *strongly agree*, 4.36–5.19 = *agree*, 3.52–4.35 = *somewhat agree*, 2.68–3.51 = *somewhat disagree*, 1.84–2.67 = *disagree*, 1.00–1.83 = *strongly disagree*.

Although there is a high level of existence of the variables in the bureau and the port, it is also important to determine the possible relationships of the variables to further understand the respondents who participated in the study. The succeeding sections discuss the interrelationship of the variables described in this section.

Determining the Relationship of the Variables Using Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling

PLS-SEM was performed to determine the different relationships and effects of the antecedents of employee commitment to organizational change, employee's individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance within the BOC – Port of NAIA. The 206 valid survey data points were processed using R software using the *semnir* package to create the models that answered the research questions and hypotheses presented in the previous parts of the study.

Assessment of the Measurement Model

The measurement model was used to assess the measures and structure associated with the model. The assessment includes the model fit indices, indicator reliability, convergent validity results, and discriminant validity results. In this study, there were ten latent variables that were specifically measured using 39 indicators that were curated to reflect the different underlying theoretical dimensions.

Model Fit Indices

To determine the goodness-of-fit measures of the model, I was able to extract the R^2 and adjusted R^2 . Based on the results of Table 21, latent variables affective commitment to organizational change, normative commitment to organizational change, individual learning for organizational change, perceived success of implementation, and

perceived performance improvement have substantial levels of variance explained, ranging from 54.5% to 68.9% as shown in their R^2 and adjusted R^2 . On the other hand, continuance commitment to organizational change shows a low level of explained variance at 4.2%. Despite this, the model could possibly be a good fit to explain the possible relationships of the variables.

Table 21

R^2 and Adjusted R^2 of the Endogenous Variables

Variable	R^2	Adj. R^2
Affective commitment to organizational change	0.689	0.683
Normative commitment to organizational change	0.473	0.463
Continuance commitment to organizational change	0.042	0.023
Individual learning for organizational change	0.545	0.538
Perceived success of implementation	0.624	0.616
Perceived performance improvement	0.687	0.681

Indicator Reliability Using Factor Loadings

According to Pett et al. (2003), factor loadings is the “extent to which each of the items in the correlation matrix correlates with the given principal component.” The values that were extracted can range from -1.0 to +1.0, indicating that the higher absolute value, the higher the correlation of the items among the different factors that were presented. Table 22 presents the factor loadings of the latent variables of the study. Based on the results, the majority of the loadings passed the .708 threshold recommended by Hair et al. (2021). However, one of the questions—cc1—did not have any significance as presented in the bootstrapped factor loadings. The values in bold indicate the highest factor loading given a set of constructs.

Table 22*Bootstrapped Factor Loadings of the Latent Variables*

Code	fwv	em	jm	ra	ac	nc	cc	l	si	pi	
fwv1	0.840	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
fwv2	0.823	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
fwv3	0.877	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em1	-	0.814	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em2	-	0.833	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em3	-	0.816	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em4	-	0.804	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em5	-	0.798	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em6	-	0.837	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em7	-	0.766	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em8	-	0.767	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
em9	-	0.793	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
jm1	-	-	0.907	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
jm2	-	-	0.905	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
jm3	-	-	0.902	***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ra1	-	-	-	0.904	***	-	-	-	-	-	-
ra2	-	-	-	0.919	***	-	-	-	-	-	-
ra3	-	-	-	0.925	***	-	-	-	-	-	-
ac1	-	-	-	-	0.902	***	-	-	-	-	-
ac2	-	-	-	-	0.807	***	-	-	-	-	-
ac3	-	-	-	-	0.876	***	-	-	-	-	-
ac4	-	-	-	-	0.794	***	-	-	-	-	-
nc1	-	-	-	-	-	0.802	***	-	-	-	-
nc2	-	-	-	-	-	0.822	***	-	-	-	-
nc3	-	-	-	-	-	0.729	***	-	-	-	-
nc4	-	-	-	-	-	0.588	***	-	-	-	-
cc1	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.575	-	-	-	-
cc2	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.798	***	-	-	-
cc3	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.787	**	-	-	-
l1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.790	***	-	-
l2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.819	***	-	-
l3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.849	***	-	-
si1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.903	***	-
si2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.890	***	-
si3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.872	***	-
pi1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.922	***
pi2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.845	***
pi3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.830	***
pi4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.811	***

Note. fwv = employee fit toward the strategic vision; em = employee manager relationship; jm = job motivation; ra = role autonomy; ac = affective commitment to organizational change; nc = normative commitment to organizational change; cc = continuance commitment to organizational change; l = individual learning for organizational change; si = perceived success of implementation; pi = perceived performance improvement; *** 99% confidence level; ** 95% confidence level.

Despite the presence of one insignificant indicator, I decided to retain the question for three reasons. First, Hulland (1999) mentioned that researchers in social sciences often obtain factor loadings that are below .708. Weaker loadings do not necessarily mean a weak question but rather that social sciences were never exact. Second, indicators that are between 0.400 and 0.708 are usually retained to ensure the content validity, which determines to what extent a measure represents all facets of a specific construct (Hair et al., 2021). Third, one of my goals was to confirm the validity, reliability, and usability of the survey instrument in the context of the Philippine government, particularly in the Port of NAIA's BOC.

Reliability Analysis and Convergent Validity Tests

Reliability determines the extent to which a measurement in an instrument is considered as stable and consistent in measuring what it intends to measure when administered in another study. To measure the reliability, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) were used. Hair et al. (2014) mentioned that the coefficients of the reliability tests should not go below the value of .700.

On the other hand, Bagozzi et al. (2011) and Fornell and Larcker (1982) mentioned that convergent validity addresses the multiple attempts to measure the constructs presented in agreement to the variable that it is measuring. Further, convergent validity can be characterized by two or more measures of the same item that could covary highly to be considered as a valid measure of the concept. Thus, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be greater or equal to .500 to establish a convergent validity.

Table 23 presents the reliability analysis and convergent validity values of the model using Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). Based on the results, all the indicators of the variables resulted to values higher than .700 for Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability and above .500 for the average variance extracted indicating that the variables are reliable and valid.

Table 23

Reliability and Convergent Validity Values of the Measurements of the Author

Variable	α	CR	AVE
Employee fit toward the strategic vision	0.808	0.887	0.723
Employee manager relationship	0.934	0.944	0.653
Job motivation	0.891	0.932	0.820
Role autonomy	0.907	0.941	0.841
Affective commitment to organizational change	0.870	0.912	0.721
Normative commitment to organizational change	0.747	0.833	0.558
Continuance commitment to organizational change	0.821	0.832	0.641
Individual learning for organizational change	0.764	0.863	0.678
Perceived success of implementation	0.870	0.920	0.794
Perceived performance improvement	0.877	0.916	0.732

Note. α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. Values of α and CR should exceed 0.700 and AVE should exceed 0.500 (Hair et al., 2014).

Cross Loadings

To further support the validity of the indicator measures, cross loadings were also computed to assess the belongingness of the specific construct loads onto latent variables compared to other latent variables in the study. Table 24 shows the highlighted values that indicate the strong belonging to its respective latent variable. Based on the results of the table, all of the highlighted values are the highest to its latent variable hence establishing a discriminant validity.

Table 24*Cross Loadings*

Code	fwv	em	jm	ra	ac	nc	cc	l	si	pi
fwv1	0.842	0.577	0.525	0.248	0.650	0.427	0.091	0.555	0.561	0.581
fwv2	0.830	0.558	0.485	0.211	0.629	0.501	0.246	0.489	0.525	0.536
fwv3	0.877	0.544	0.628	0.195	0.653	0.472	0.147	0.584	0.610	0.601
em1	0.546	0.817	0.536	0.235	0.616	0.475	0.070	0.558	0.548	0.644
em2	0.588	0.836	0.462	0.246	0.610	0.444	0.059	0.502	0.504	0.642
em3	0.531	0.821	0.389	0.319	0.538	0.464	0.081	0.496	0.468	0.558
em4	0.571	0.811	0.410	0.357	0.560	0.448	0.102	0.535	0.448	0.545
em5	0.449	0.804	0.327	0.440	0.482	0.393	0.043	0.452	0.424	0.489
em6	0.593	0.842	0.484	0.247	0.654	0.495	0.100	0.588	0.521	0.611
em7	0.556	0.770	0.500	0.274	0.556	0.475	0.049	0.549	0.552	0.611
em8	0.474	0.772	0.394	0.378	0.503	0.401	0.004	0.455	0.429	0.548
em9	0.454	0.797	0.447	0.330	0.541	0.494	0.043	0.537	0.509	0.583
jm1	0.604	0.491	0.908	0.094	0.594	0.504	0.100	0.631	0.565	0.610
jm2	0.617	0.541	0.906	0.139	0.646	0.528	0.149	0.645	0.644	0.616
jm3	0.522	0.454	0.904	0.182	0.616	0.525	0.104	0.635	0.588	0.610
ra1	0.311	0.429	0.205	0.910	0.269	0.407	-0.035	0.311	0.238	0.263
ra2	0.155	0.281	0.075	0.917	0.115	0.272	0.013	0.205	0.080	0.075
ra3	0.201	0.307	0.112	0.923	0.188	0.360	0.078	0.226	0.113	0.093
ac1	0.706	0.668	0.626	0.185	0.903	0.577	0.185	0.676	0.668	0.693
ac2	0.624	0.565	0.525	0.261	0.814	0.527	0.251	0.583	0.514	0.561
ac3	0.644	0.575	0.629	0.042	0.877	0.553	0.213	0.599	0.698	0.660
ac4	0.595	0.566	0.533	0.287	0.799	0.615	0.249	0.564	0.578	0.603
nc1	0.528	0.519	0.509	0.494	0.603	0.799	0.072	0.536	0.493	0.505
nc2	0.470	0.517	0.528	0.228	0.597	0.821	0.194	0.555	0.518	0.554
nc3	0.275	0.288	0.353	0.256	0.357	0.744	0.271	0.343	0.305	0.366
nc4	0.292	0.266	0.222	0.096	0.342	0.606	0.411	0.271	0.215	0.311
cc1	-0.020	0.042	-0.087	0.179	-0.005	0.068	0.461	-0.017	-0.019	-0.086
cc2	0.157	0.092	0.068	0.056	0.213	0.204	0.903	0.095	0.224	0.114
cc3	0.168	0.057	0.131	0.024	0.236	0.271	0.946	0.135	0.240	0.141
l1	0.479	0.445	0.566	0.299	0.532	0.490	0.085	0.794	0.538	0.510
l2	0.473	0.595	0.509	0.318	0.547	0.515	0.089	0.827	0.556	0.548
l3	0.610	0.552	0.652	0.100	0.673	0.490	0.156	0.849	0.676	0.666
si1	0.614	0.576	0.611	0.247	0.655	0.524	0.212	0.688	0.905	0.697
si2	0.586	0.549	0.547	0.207	0.649	0.471	0.271	0.637	0.894	0.683
si3	0.576	0.500	0.614	-0.003	0.642	0.469	0.243	0.602	0.874	0.690
pi1	0.602	0.653	0.598	0.133	0.695	0.552	0.179	0.625	0.734	0.922
pi2	0.560	0.618	0.595	0.169	0.633	0.553	0.146	0.654	0.717	0.848
pi3	0.580	0.605	0.619	0.059	0.649	0.480	0.178	0.594	0.622	0.833
pi4	0.565	0.595	0.494	0.236	0.560	0.476	0.037	0.527	0.560	0.814

Note. fwv = employee fit toward the strategic vision; em = employee manager relationship; jm = job motivation; ra = role autonomy; ac = affective commitment to organizational change; nc = normative commitment to organizational change; cc = continuance commitment to organizational change; l = individual learning for organizational change; si = perceived success of implementation; pi = perceived performance improvement.; highlighted values pertain to the values measuring discriminant validity of the question.

Discriminant Validity Using Fornell–Larcker Criterion

Fornell–Larcker criterion was also used to determine the measure of discriminant validity to which the square root of the construct’s average variance extracted (AVE) should result to higher values than the correlations among the constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2021). Based on Table 25, all the square root values of the AVE on the diagonal area were greater than the constructs on the lower area.

Table 25

Discriminant Validity Using Fornell–Larcker Criterion

Code	fwv	em	jm	ra	ac	nc	cc	l	si	pi
fwv	0.850									
em	0.658	0.808								
jm	0.642	0.548	0.906							
ra	0.256	0.382	0.154	0.917						
ac	0.758	0.700	0.684	0.222	0.849					
nc	0.550	0.564	0.573	0.390	0.667	0.747				
cc	0.192	0.078	0.131	0.017	0.261	0.267	0.800			
l	0.638	0.646	0.703	0.279	0.714	0.603	0.137	0.824		
si	0.665	0.609	0.663	0.170	0.728	0.548	0.271	0.721	0.891	
pi	0.673	0.722	0.676	0.172	0.744	0.604	0.162	0.704	0.775	0.856

Note. fwv = employee fit toward the strategic vision; em = employee manager relationship; jm = job motivation; ra = role autonomy; ac = affective commitment to organizational change; nc = normative commitment to organizational change; cc = continuance commitment to organizational change; l = individual learning for organizational change; si = perceived success of implementation; pi = perceived performance improvement.; the bolded items are the values of the Fornell-Larcker criterion.

Discriminant Validity Using Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

In addition to the Fornell–Larcker Test, heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) was also used to assess discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). According to Hair et al. (2021), HTMT provides the mean value of the indicator correlations across different

constructs relative to the geometric mean of the average correlations for the indicators measuring the same construct. Further, HTMT values that are lower than 0.900 were used as threshold for constructs that were conceptually similar, and 0.850 were used for constructs that were considered distinct. Table 26 shows the results of HTMT test that are all within the accepted threshold of conceptually similar constructs of 0.900.

Table 26

Discriminant Validity Using Heterotrait-Monotrait Test (HTMT)

Code	fwv	em	jm	ra	ac	nc	cc	l	si	pi
fwv	.									
em	0.754									
jm	0.756	0.595								
ra	0.283	0.408	0.157							
ac	0.903	0.771	0.774	0.257						
nc	0.666	0.628	0.655	0.417	0.784					
cc	0.196	0.093	0.129	0.140	0.218	0.332				
l	0.805	0.759	0.847	0.337	0.868	0.749	0.135			
si	0.793	0.672	0.751	0.207	0.832	0.629	0.223	0.877		
pi	0.802	0.795	0.763	0.187	0.847	0.709	0.158	0.850	0.882	.

Note. fwv = employee fit toward the strategic vision; em = employee manager relationship; jm = job motivation; ra = role autonomy; ac = affective commitment to organizational change; nc = normative commitment to organizational change; cc = continuance commitment to organizational change; l = individual learning for organizational change; si = perceived success of implementation; pi = perceived performance improvement.

Assessment of the Structural Model

Indicator Multicollinearity

The variance inflation factor (VIF) was used to assess the multicollinearity of the indicators of the variables. According to Hair et al. (2014) and Fornell and Bookstein (1982), the values of the VIF should not go beyond 5.00; none of the indicators exceeded the threshold value as presented in Table 27.

Table 27*Multicollinearity Diagnostics of the Indicators*

Code	VIF
fwv1	1.817
fwv2	1.599
fwv3	2.031
em1	2.590
em2	2.955
em3	2.698
em4	2.696
em5	2.733
em6	2.769
em7	2.291
em8	2.330
em9	2.351
jm1	2.740
jm2	2.537
jm3	2.578
ra1	2.278
ra2	4.230
ra3	3.965
ac1	2.910
ac2	1.932
ac3	2.536
ac4	1.763
nc1	1.449
nc2	1.520
nc3	1.805
nc4	1.553
cc1	1.551
cc2	2.662
cc3	2.231
l1	1.483
l2	1.616
l3	1.568
si1	2.519
si2	2.389
si3	2.091
pi1	3.436
pi2	2.183
pi3	2.117
pi4	1.982

Note. VIF = variance inflation factor.

Explanatory Power

Aside from the model fit index using R^2 , effect size (f^2) can be also used to determine the explanatory power of the structural model. According to Cohen (1988), the guidelines for assessing f^2 are values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, and respectively represent small, medium, and large effects of the exogenous latent variable. Table 28 presents the f^2 of the exogenous latent variables. Based on the values, effect sizes vary from having small, medium, and large effects. Notably, job motivation (jm) and role autonomy (ra) have no effect on continuance commitment to organizational change (cc), and normative commitment to organizational change (nc) has no effect on perceived success of implementation (si).

Table 28

Explanatory Powers of the Structural Model based on Effect Size (f^2)

Code	fwv	em	jm	ra	ac	nc	cc	l	si	pi
fwv					0.222	0.018	0.024			
em					0.152	0.036	0.005			
jm					0.129	0.119	0.001			
ra					0.004	0.083	0.001			
ac								0.394	0.165	0.106
nc								0.067	0.000	0.041
cc								0.012	0.029	0.024
l									0.216	
si										0.355
pi										

Predictive Power

The predictive relevance was also tested to assess the predictive power of the model. According to Hair et al. (2021), the out-of-sample predictive power predicts new or future observations in relation to the variables. The prediction statistics are used to

measure the level of prediction error in the indicators of a specific endogenous construct. Thus, the results on the table only show the endogenous constructs of the model. In relation to this, the common metrics were also used to quantify the prediction errors such as root mean square error (RMSE) and mean absolute error (MAE). RMSE represents the square root of the average of the squared differences between the predicted and actual values. MAE, on the hand, represents the average absolute differences between the predicted and actual values.

To interpret the results, the RMSE and MAE values should be compared for each indicator to a benchmark model such as a naïve linear regression model (LM). According to Shmueli et al. (2019), a model indicates a high predictive power if all indicators in the PLSOSM have lower RMSE and MAE values compared to LMOSM benchmark. The lesser number of indicators that resulted to a higher RMSE and MAE values in the LMOSM scales down the predictive power of the model.

Table 29 presents the RMSE and MAE values for the predictors of the primary endogenous constructs, individual learning for organizational change (l), perceived success of implementation (si), and perceived performance improvement (pi). The majority of the indicators demonstrate smaller prediction errors in both RMSE and MAE values in PLS-SEM analysis compared to the naïve benchmark. This shows that the model exhibits high predictive power.

PLS-SEM Results

Table 30 present the results of partial least squares structural equation modelling. Further, bootstrapping was performed to establish the significance of the relationships. According to Hair et al. (2021), bootstrapping is a resampling technique that draws a

large number of subsamples, with replacement, from the original dataset and estimating models for each subsample. The purpose is to calculate the standard errors of the coefficients, which allows a researcher to assess the statistical significance without needing the distributional assumptions. For this study, I conducted 10,000 resamplings to do the bootstrapping procedure. Hair et al. further suggested that the minimum number of the resamplings should be at 5,000. Table 30 presents the results of PLS-SEM using bootstrapped path coefficients to test the 23 hypotheses.

Table 29

Predictive Power of the Model Based on Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

Statistic	l1	l2	l3	si1	si2	si3	pi1	pi2	pi3	pi4
PLS Out-of-Sample Metrics (PLSOSM)										
RMSE	0.667	0.562	0.583	0.535	0.507	0.606	0.531	0.508	0.596	0.621
MAE	0.509	0.439	0.459	0.418	0.408	0.476	0.414	0.418	0.497	0.497
LM Out-of-Sample Metrics (LMOSM)										
RMSE	0.685	0.580	0.594	0.543	0.533	0.543	0.572	0.557	0.630	0.650
MAE	0.526	0.449	0.460	0.415	0.423	0.437	0.443	0.455	0.497	0.528

Among the relationships examined, employee fit toward the strategic vision (H1A) demonstrated a strong positive effect on affective commitment to organizational change ($\beta = 0.596$, $t = 2.852$, $p = 0.002$), indicating that when employees perceive a greater fit with the strategic vision, their affective commitment to organizational change increases. This leads to a rejection of the null hypothesis that employees' fit toward the strategic vision has no significant effect on employee's affective commitment to organizational change.

Table 30*PLS-SEM Results using Bootstrapped Path Coefficients*

Path	Coefficient	t value	p value	
Employee Fit Toward the Strategic Vision -> Affective Commitment to Organizational Change (H1A)	0.596	2.852	0.002	***
Employee Fit Toward the Strategic Vision -> Normative Commitment to Organizational Change (H1B)	0.174	0.842	0.201	
Employee Fit Toward the Strategic Vision -> Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change (H1C)	0.504	0.801	0.212	
Employee Manager Relationship -> Affective Commitment to Organizational Change (H2A)	0.227	2.056	0.021	**
Employee Manager Relationship -> Normative Commitment to Organizational Change (H2B)	0.179	1.467	0.072	*
Employee Manager Relationship -> Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change (H2C)	-0.234	-0.606	0.727	
Job Motivation -> Affective Commitment to Organizational Change (H3A)	0.195	1.341	0.091	*
Job Motivation -> Normative Commitment to Organizational Change (H3B)	0.402	2.764	0.003	***
Job Motivation -> Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change (H3C)	-0.057	-0.201	0.580	
Role Autonomy -> Affective Commitment to Organizational Change (H4A)	-0.056	-1.101	0.864	
Role Autonomy -> Normative Commitment to Organizational Change (H4B)	0.261	3.658	0.000	***
Role Autonomy -> Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change (H4C)	-0.020	-0.107	0.542	
Affective Commitment to Organizational Change -> Individual Learning for Organizational Change (H5A)	0.715	1.572	0.059	*
Affective Commitment to Organizational Change -> Perceived Success of Implementation (H5B)	0.248	0.035	0.486	
Affective Commitment to Organizational Change -> Perceived Performance Improvement (H5C)	0.225	0.390	0.349	
Normative Commitment to Organizational Change -> Individual Learning for Organizational Change (H6A)	0.263	0.526	0.300	
Normative Commitment to Organizational Change -> Perceived Success of Implementation (H6B)	-0.259	-0.080	0.532	
Normative Commitment to Organizational Change -> Perceived Performance Improvement (H6C)	0.192	0.189	0.425	
Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change -> Individual Learning for Organizational Change (H7A)	-0.159	-0.245	0.597	
Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change -> Perceived Success of Implementation (H7B)	0.224	0.067	0.473	
Continuance Commitment to Organizational Change -> Perceived Performance Improvement (H7C)	-0.173	-0.076	0.530	
Individual Learning for Organizational Change -> Perceived Success of Implementation (H8)	0.820	0.101	0.460	
Perceived Success of Implementation -> Perceived Performance Improvement (H9)	0.634	0.376	0.354	

Note. *** p < .01, ** p < .05, * p < .10.

The effect of vision on affective commitment to change of employees was also evident in the study of Jaros (2010). According to them, vision had a significant impact on an individual's belief and inherent attitude toward committing changes. Similarly, Ford et al. (2003) also examined how the strategic direction of police officers in Michigan on their commitment in their work. Results show that it positively affected commitment to change which then positively predicted community policing behaviors. Furthermore, the results of Parish et al. (2008) also showed a positive effect on affective commitment to organizational change as predicted by strategic fit toward vision. To further support this relationship, in numerous FGDs, some of the participants mentioned that when they applied for a civil service license, they had sworn faithfully to discharge to their best of their ability the duties of their position under the Republic of the Philippines so it was already inherent to them that they believe not only the vision of the bureau and the port but also the mission that they follow.

But in terms of other antecedents to commitment to change, the effect of Employee Fit toward the strategic vision on normative commitment to organizational change (H1B) and continuance commitment to organizational change (H1C) was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.174$, $t = 0.842$, $p = 0.201$ and $\beta = 0.504$, $t = 0.801$, $p = 0.212$, respectively).

Employee–Manager Relationship

The employee–manager relationship (H2A) exhibited a positive effect on affective commitment to organizational change ($\beta = 0.227$, $t = 2.056$, $p = 0.021$, **), indicating that a positive relationship with managers contributes to higher affective commitment. This result is also consistent with the Parish et al. (2008) and Ford et al.

(2003) that employee–manager relationship and support affect the employees’ affective commitment to change. As mentioned in the descriptive results of this study, Filipinos’ working culture tend to be heavy on relationships so that they value their relationships with their supervisors and managers. One of the respondents in the FGD mentioned that their manager was vocal about their relationships with other lower ranking officials in their division. So the manager said that if they (the subordinates) worked closely with the manager, they would be assured they would be able to hit the key performance indicators that the commissioner set for them. Because this manager was known to be a mother figure within the division, the subordinates tended to gravitate to their encouragement, further increasing their commitment to what they were doing.

Furthermore, the employee–manager relationship had a positive effect on normative commitment to organizational change (H2B) ($\beta = 0.179$, $t = 1.467$, $p = 0.072$, *), suggesting that a good employee–manager relationship may foster normative commitment. However, this relationship can only be considered significant at 90% given its p value of 0.072. On the other hand, the effect of the employee–manager relationship on continuance commitment to organizational change (H2C) was not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.234$, $t = -0.606$, $p = 0.727$).

Job Motivation

Job motivation (H3B) displayed a strong positive effect on normative commitment to organizational change ($\beta = 0.402$, $t = 2.764$, $p = 0.003$, ***), indicating that higher job motivation is associated with increased normative commitment. Given this result, FGD responses mentioned that because of the trainings and seminars that are being implemented in the port in line with the recent changes in the processes and

governance, the respondents feel a sense of obligation to provide the full support for the change. One respondent mentioned that to further streamline their processes, they must ensure that they complete the trainings on frontline services with their accredited company to further bolster their commitment to quality service to businessmen, customs brokers, and the Filipino people. This training seminar allows them to understand and implement the best practices and finest standards necessary in executing and sustaining the bureau and port's roadmap to reform in line with the 10-point reform plan of the previous commissioner and the new and updated 5-point reform plan of the current commissioner. To reinforce the trainings to make the employees learn something new and different, Talusan (2021) even mentioned that "the [Bureau of] Customs – NAIA remains committed in building a stronger bridge between the government and the public through the promotion of outstanding customer service and improving its processes towards best practices to serve national and public interests" (para. 10). As for the other relationships, the effects of job motivation on affective commitment to organizational change (H3A) and continuance commitment to organizational change (H3C) were not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.195$, $t = 1.341$, $p = 0.091$ and $\beta = -0.057$, $t = -0.201$, $p = 0.580$, respectively).

Role Autonomy

Role autonomy (H4B) demonstrated a positive effect on normative Commitment to organizational change ($\beta = 0.261$, $t = 3.658$, $p < 0.001$, ***), indicating that greater role autonomy is associated with increased normative commitment. Interestingly, other studies reported that with higher autonomy or locus of control, normative commitment

tends to decrease (Jaros, 2010; Chen & Wang, 2007). In the study of Parish et al. (2008), the relationship between the two variables was not significant.

When the FGD participants were asked about this relationship, they mentioned that being autonomous during the transition and change caused them to have a greater sense of duty to work. As one of the participants mentioned, they feel empowered whenever their supervisor allows them to do their task in their own style while making sure that they would still be able to deliver what was asked of them to do. Comparing it to the results of the Jaros (2010), they mentioned that the implementation of the supposed change become more rigid that the implementor of change “force” it hence reducing the autonomy of those who are supporting the change. But for the case of BOC–NAIA, it was the other way around. For the other relationships, the effects of role autonomy on affective commitment to organizational change (H4A) and continuance commitment to organizational change (H4C) were not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.056$, $t = -1.101$, $p = 0.864$ and $\beta = -0.020$, $t = -0.107$, $p = 0.542$, respectively).

Moderating Effect of the Demographic Profile of Respondents

Research Question 7 examined the effect of employee commitment toward organizational change on the main endogenous variables of the study, considering the moderating effect of the demographic profile of the respondents. But following the assumptions of the moderation analysis with the use of hierarchical regression, only the relationship between affective commitment to organizational change and individual learning for organizational change can be moderated by the demographic profile of the respondents as it was significant at 90% confidence level. Table 31 presents an isolated simple and multiple linear hierarchical regression result for the moderation effect of the

Table 31*Hierarchical Regression Results for Moderation Effect of the Demographic Profile*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Step 1					0.502***	0.499	
Constant	1.526	0.24	6.437	0.000***			
AC2OC	0.668	0.05	14.33	0.000***			
Step 2					0.620***	0.487	0.12
Constant	1.199	0.399	3.004	0.003***			
AC2OC	0.690	0.060	11.477	0.000***			
sexMale	0.020	0.074	0.277	0.782			
age	0.004	0.005	0.704	0.482			
statSeparated/Annulled	-0.451	0.540	-0.835	0.405			
statSingle	0.156	0.100	1.558	0.121			
statWidow/er	0.699	0.460	1.520	0.131			
educDoctoralDegree	0.504	0.414	1.217	0.226			
educMaster'sDegree	-0.045	0.084	-0.533	0.594			
educPostdoctoralDegree	-0.444	0.458	-0.969	0.334			
prof_lvlAssistantCustomsOperationsOfficer	0.071	0.307	0.233	0.816			
prof_lvlAttorneyII	0.072	0.344	0.210	0.834			
prof_lvlAttorneyIII	0.123	0.608	0.202	0.840			
prof_lvlBoardingOfficer	-0.211	0.388	-0.543	0.588			
prof_lvlChiefCustomsOperationsOfficer	0.010	0.283	0.036	0.972			
prof_lvlCollectionOfficerI	0.790	0.496	1.593	0.113			
prof_lvlCos	-0.066	0.379	-0.175	0.861			
prof_lvlCustomsOperationsOfficerI	0.398	0.186	2.138	0.034*			
prof_lvlCustomsOperationsOfficerII	0.580	0.483	1.201	0.231			
prof_lvlCustomsOperationsOfficerIII	0.236	0.159	1.482	0.140			
prof_lvlCustomsOperationsOfficerV	0.192	0.184	1.040	0.300			
prof_lvlSecurityGuard	-0.161	0.280	-0.576	0.565			
prof_lvlSupervisingCustomsOperationsOfficer	0.456	0.278	1.639	0.103			
prof_lvlWarehouseman	-0.050	0.430	-0.117	0.907			

Table 31 (continued)

Variable	B	SE	t	p	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR ²
divAircraftOperationsDivision	0.079	0.330	0.241	0.810			
divArrivalOperationsDivision	-0.175	0.219	-0.797	0.427			
divAssessmentCompositeUnit	-0.244	0.348	-0.699	0.485			
divBaggageAssistanceDivision	-0.022	0.439	-0.050	0.960			
divBondsDivision	-0.033	0.298	-0.112	0.911			
divCargoHaus	0.066	0.281	0.235	0.815			
divCMEC	-0.232	0.297	-0.782	0.435			
divCollectionDivision	-0.088	0.270	-0.325	0.745			
divCPCO	-0.180	0.340	-0.531	0.596			
divCustomerCareCenter	-0.090	0.264	-0.340	0.735			
divCustomsBondedWarehouseDivision	-0.115	0.274	-0.420	0.675			
divDepartureOperationsDivision	-0.397	0.233	-1.701	0.091			
divDHL	-0.153	0.316	-0.484	0.629			
divDisbursing	-0.663	0.548	-1.211	0.228			
divDutyFreeShops	-0.261	0.384	-0.680	0.498			
divEccf	0.128	0.506	0.254	0.800			
divEntryProcessingDivision	0.053	0.323	0.163	0.871			
divExportDivision	-0.382	0.317	-1.206	0.230			
divLawDivision	0.233	0.444	0.525	0.600			
divManilaDomestic	-1.004	0.508	-1.976	0.050*			
divMASEZ	-0.208	0.505	-0.412	0.681			
divOfficeoftheDistrictCollector	-0.459	0.274	-1.676	0.096			
divOperationsDivision	-0.348	0.384	-0.906	0.366			
divPaircargo	0.146	0.310	0.470	0.639			
divPALPSI	-0.208	0.311	-0.669	0.505			
divPassengerService	-0.172	0.330	-0.522	0.603			
divPEZA	-0.033	0.502	-0.067	0.947			
divTMW	0.078	0.383	0.204	0.839			
divWarehousingAssessmentUnit	-0.488	0.330	-1.479	0.141			
divX-ray	-0.171	0.501	-0.342	0.733			

Note. AC2OC = affective commitment to organizational change *** indicates $p < .001$. ** indicates $p < .05$. * indicates $p < .10$.

demographic profile of the respondents between affective commitment to organizational change and individual learning for organizational change. Based on the results, it can be seen that the only significant demographic variable was that of the professional level of Customs Officer I and the division of Manila domestic. But based on the analysis of variance (ANOVA) performed between the models as presented in Table 32, it can be also be concluded that there is no significant difference between Step 1 and Step 2 models for the test of moderation.

Table 32

Analysis of Variance of the Models

	<i>Res. df</i>	RSS	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> value
Step 1	204	39.040				
Step 2	152	29.792	52	9.248	0.907	0.650

Effect of Individual Learning for Organizational Change on Perceived Performance

Improvement as Mediated by Perceived Success of Implementation

Research Question 8 investigated the effect of individual learning for organizational change on perceived performance improvement in the port of NAIA as mediated by the employees' perceived success of implementation. Table 33 presents the specific mediation for the variables concerned in this model. Furthermore, Figure 13 presents a graphical illustration of the relationships of the variables of this study. Results show that the specific mediation provides a significant positive mediating effect of perceived success of implementation (PSI) between individual learning for organizational change (ILOC) and perceived performance improvement (PPI) through the indirect effects ($\beta = 0.208$, $p = 0.000$). To further support the mediating effects, the direct effects

of ILOC to PSI ($\beta = 0.423, p = 0.000$) and PSI to PPI ($\beta = 0.492, p = 0.000$) have a significant and positive direct effect. Thus, PSI acts as a complementary partial mediator given this specific relationship. Hair et al. (2021) defined a complementary partial mediation when an indirect and direct effect of the exogenous variable (ILOC) on the endogenous variable (PPI) are both significant and point in the same direction—in this case, positive. The relationship meant that the increased individual learning for organizational change and perceived success of implementation leads to an increased perceived performance improvement. Hence, it can be said that the effect of individual learning for organizational change on perceived performance improvement can be partially mediated by perceived success of implementation.

Table 33

Direct, Indirect, and Mediation Effects of Perceived Success of Implementation

	Original est.	Bootstrap <i>M</i>	Bootstrap <i>SD</i>	<i>t stat.</i>	<i>p value</i>
Indirect effects					
ILOC -> PSI -> PPI	0.208	0.202	0.058	3.569	0.000
Direct effects					
ILOC -> PSI	0.423	0.413	0.095	4.456	0.000
PSI -> PPI	0.492	0.486	0.069	7.123	0.000

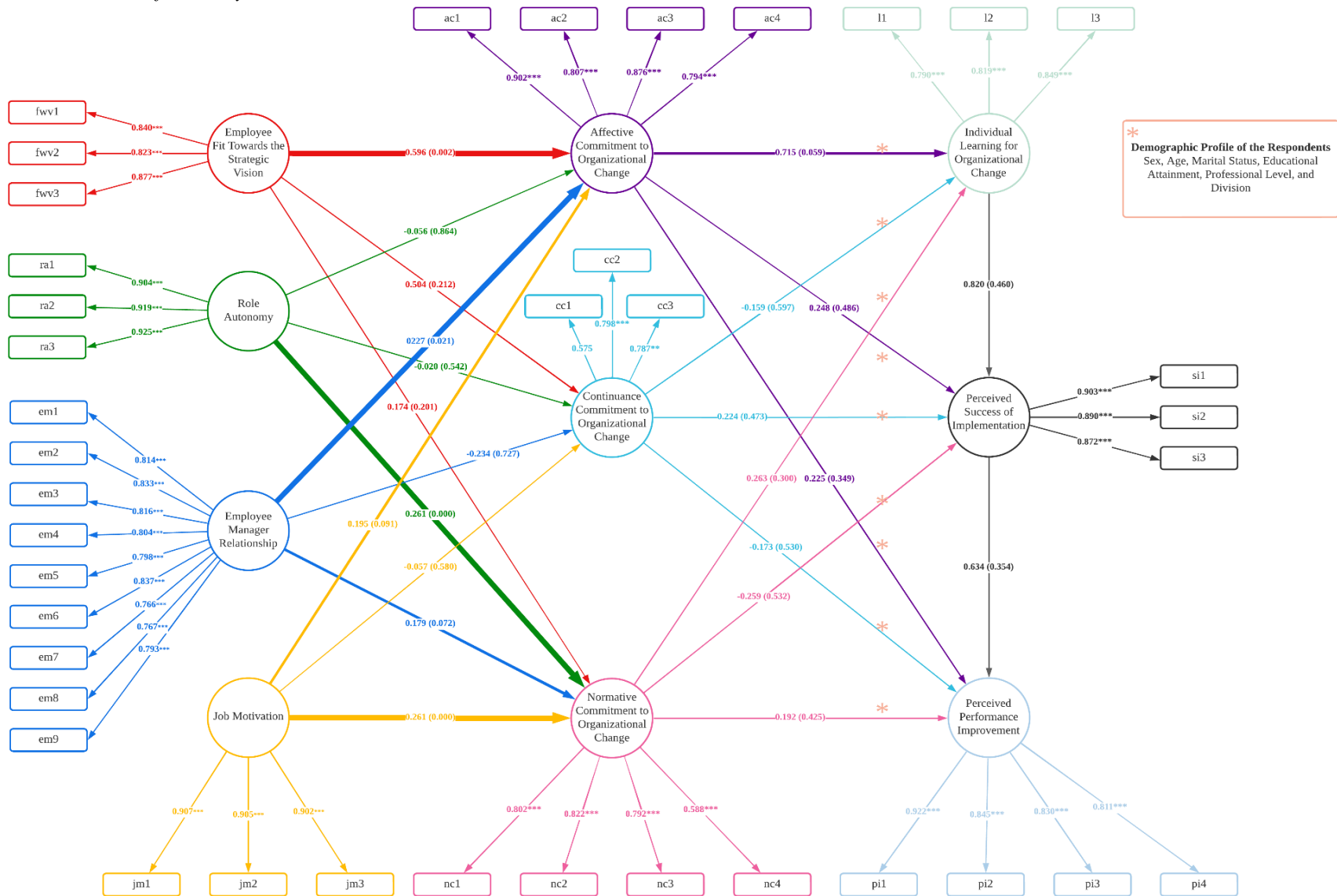
Note. ILOC = individual learning for organizational change; PSI = perceived success of implementation; PPI = perceived performance improvement.

The study of Parish et al. (2008) supports the relationships presented in this model. Their results show that implementation success was also positively related to improved performance. At the same time, individual learning was also positively related to implementation success. Further insights were drawn from the FGDs. According to interviewed employees, they are driven by a sense of self-initiative when confronted with new objectives and goals set by the new government, commissioners, and port heads.

The need to fully comprehend the adjustments required for oneself, their team, and their specific area becomes evident to align with the overarching goals. By doing so, the overall port performance can be enhanced, as measured by the key performance indicators (KPIs) presented to the stakeholders.

Another respondent mentioned that they do not really need to feel the success of implementation because of how fast things are in the port. As long as they were able to learn the new processes implemented, they would use it immediately to ensure that their performance would already be better as soon as possible.

Figure 13
Structural Model of the Study



CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings

Customs administration plays a crucial role in supporting a country's economic activities and contributing to its competitive advantages. The evolution of customs processes among the ports is essential for enhancing revenue collection, optimizing operational paradigms, and improving risk management and trade facilitation (Cantens, 2012; Kusumawardhani & Diokno, 2022). To achieve these goals, customs administrations integrate innovative measures such as the zero-contact policy, automated routing and monitoring systems, body cameras, and anticorruption commissions, all aimed at increasing transparency and credibility (Kusumawardhani & Diokno, 2022). By implementing varying tariffs, taxation policies, and import and export regulations, customs administrations maintain relationships with other countries and effectively respond to global supply and demand fluctuations (Betz, 2019). In the Philippines, the Bureau of Customs (BOC) operates as the responsible government agency for customs operations, overseeing land, air, and sea freight through 17 ports, including the Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA), and each port has its own organizational structure. The recent change in the national government because of the 2022 general elections necessitates a study on employee commitment to organizational change because it can potentially impact established processes and require alignment with the goals and objectives of the new government. Thus, the study adapted the framework of Parish et al. (2008) to understand the employee commitment to organizational change among the employees of the BOC – Port of NAIA.

I used a mixed methods research design, particularly an explanatory sequential design to answer the research questions that were presented in the initial part of the study. For the quantitative aspect of the study, a survey questionnaire was administered online, and it garnered 206 valid responses. As for the qualitative aspect, three runs of focus group discussions (FGDs) were facilitated in which six participants for each run discussed the results of the study. To process the quantitative data, descriptive statistics were used to determine the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the levels of the main variables, PLS-SEM was used for hypothesis testing. Furthermore, hierarchical regression analysis was done to determine the moderating effect of the demographic variables among the outer relationships of the model. In summary, Table 33 summarized the answers to each research question.

The study's findings concerning the demographic characteristics of the respondents revealed that 52.4% ($n = 108$) of the respondents were male, and the remaining 47.6% ($n = 98$) were female. A significant portion of the participants fell within the millennial age range with 21.36% ($n = 44$) between 26 to 30 years old, 20.39% ($n = 42$) between 31 to 35 years old, and 17.96% ($n = 37$) between 36 to 40 years old. In terms of marital status, 57.30% ($n = 118$) were married, and 41.70% ($n = 86$) were single. The majority of respondents held a college degree (66.70%, $n = 137$), followed by master's degree holders (32%, $n = 66$). A small percentage comprised individuals with doctoral degrees (two) and one postdoctoral degree. Customs Operations Officer III accounted for nearly half of the respondents at 48.54% ($n = 100$), followed by Customs Operations Officer V (31 responses), administrative aid (18 responses), and Customs Operations Officer I (17 respondents). The majority of participants (54%) were affiliated

with the arrival operations division of NAIA, and 30% belonged to the departure operations division. The customs bonded warehouse division represented 11% of the respondents, and the remaining percentages were distributed across various divisions and offices within NAIA. Furthermore, Table 34 presents the summarized table of findings and answers to research questions.

Although most of the related literature and responses from the respondents support the majority of the results of this study, the overall adapted conceptual framework can only partially support the hypothesized relationships. With this, other variables and measures that account for organizational commitment to organizational change must be looked into to strengthen the theories, frameworks, and studies that determined the relationships of the variables used in this study in their contexts.

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

To summarize the hypothesis testing that was done, Table 35 presents a table summary of hypothesis testing.

Conclusion

To conclude, I wanted to answer the question, “What are the effects of the antecedents of employee commitment to organizational change, employees’ individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance among the employees of the Bureau of Customs – Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA)?” The findings of the study revealed that employee fit toward the strategic vision and employee–manager relationship affect affective commitment to organizational change the most. Moreover, job motivation and role autonomy affect normative commitment to organizational change the most. Although it was hypothesized that demographic

Table 34*Findings and Answers to Research Questions*

Research question	Findings
1. What is the level of the antecedents to employee commitment in terms of employees' fit toward the strategic vision, employee–manager relationship, job motivation, and role autonomy?	<p>The results of the study indicate that employees exhibit a high level of fit toward the strategic vision, as evidenced by a mean score of 5.019. This suggests that employees align well with the organization's overarching goals and objectives. Furthermore, the Bureau of Customs – Port of NAIA demonstrates a positive employee–manager relationship, with a mean score of 4.867, indicating a committed relationship between employees and their supervisors. The findings also reveal that employees are highly motivated in their jobs, as indicated by a mean score of 5.021, highlighting their excitement in their roles. Additionally, employees appear to possess a significant degree of role autonomy, with a mean score of 3.843, implying that they have a considerable level of independence and decision-making authority within their positions.</p>
2. What is the level of employee commitment to organizational change in terms of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment?	<p>The results of the study indicate a strong level of affective commitment to organizational change among employees ($M = 5.039$). This suggests that employees perceive change as a beneficial strategy for their port and are emotionally invested in its successful implementation. Furthermore, there is a significant level of continuance commitment to organizational change, with a mean score of 4.417. This indicates that employees recognize the potential costs associated with resisting the change and, therefore, feel compelled to support it to avoid negative consequences. Additionally, the findings reveal a high level of normative commitment to organizational change, with a mean score of 4.682. This suggests that employees believe it is morally right for them to embrace and not oppose the changes occurring in the bureau. Overall, these results reflect a strong commitment and acceptance of organizational change among employees, highlighting their willingness to adapt and contribute to the success of the change initiatives.</p>
3. What is the level of employees' individual learning for organizational change?	<p>There is a high level of individual learning for organizational change given the mean of 4.893. With this, respondents believe and feel that as a result of understanding the changes in their bureau, they become more effective in their jobs.</p>

Table 34 (*continued*)

Research question	Findings
4. What is the level of employees' perceived success in implementation of change?	The perceived success in the implementation of change is highly perceived by the employees given the mean of 4.866. With the recent changes in the port of NAIA, employees perceive that the implementation effort on their strategies was effective.
5. What is the level of employees' perceived performance improvement?	Employees also perceived highly their performance improvement given the mean of 5.015. In terms of the improvement of their processes, the respondents believe that they were able to provide more customer benefits as a result of the changes that they had in the bureau and the port.
6. What is the effect of employee commitment to organizational change on individual learning, implementation Success, and Improved performance in terms of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment?	Among the antecedents of employee commitment to change toward different endogenous variables, only affective commitment to organizational change shows a significant positive effect on individual learning for organizational change given the beta coefficient of 0.715. This significance is only established at a 90% confidence level.
7. What is the effect of employee commitment to organizational change on individual learning, implementation success, and improved performance as moderated by the demographic profile of the respondents in terms of sex, age, marital status, highest educational attainment, professional level, and division?	Given the results of the hierarchical regression, it can be said that the demographic profile of the respondents does not have any moderating effect on the relationships of employee commitment to organizational change on various endogenous variables. While one of the divisions in BOC–NAIA showed a 90% significance, the analysis of variance of the regression models showed that there were no significant differences between the initial regression model without the demographic profile of the respondents and with the regression model including the demographic indicators of the study.
8. What is the effect of individual learning on improved performance as mediated by implementation success?	In terms of the specific mediation among the endogenous variables, results show that the estimates resulted in 0.208 which is also significant at an alpha of 0.05. The relationship is considered complementary partial mediation.

Table 35*Summary of Hypothesis Testing*

Hypothesis	β	p value	Conclusion
H1A. FWV has no significant effect on AC	0.596	0.002	Rejected
H1B. FWV has no significant effect on NC	0.174	0.201	Failed to Reject
H1C. FWV has no significant effect on CC	0.504	0.212	Failed to Reject
H2A. EM has no significant effect on AC	0.227	0.021	Rejected
H2B. EM has no significant effect on NC	0.179	0.072	Rejected at 90% C.L.
H2C. EM has no significant effect on CC	-0.234	0.727	Failed to Reject
H3A. JM has no significant effect on AC	0.195	0.091	Rejected at 90% C.L.
H3B. JM has no significant effect on NC	0.402	0.003	Rejected
H3C. JM has no significant effect on CC	-0.057	0.580	Failed to Reject
H4A. RA has no significant effect on AC	-0.056	0.864	Failed to Reject
H4B. RA has no significant effect on NC	0.261	0.000	Rejected
H4C. RA has no significant effect on CC	-0.020	0.542	Failed to Reject
H5A. AC has no significant effect on ILOC	0.715	0.059	Rejected at 90% C.L.
H5B. AC has no significant effect on PSI	0.248	0.486	Failed to Reject
H5C. AC has no significant effect on PPI	0.225	0.349	Failed to Reject
H6A. NC has no significant effect on ILOC	0.263	0.300	Failed to Reject
H6B. NC has no significant effect on PSI	-0.259	0.532	Failed to Reject
H6C. NC has no significant effect on PPI	0.192	0.425	Failed to Reject
H7A. CC has no significant effect on ILOC	-0.159	0.597	Failed to Reject
H7B. CC has no significant effect on PSI	0.224	0.473	Failed to Reject
H7C. CC has no significant effect on PPI	-0.173	0.530	Failed to Reject
H8. ILOC has no significant effect on PSI	0.820	0.460	Failed to Reject
H9. PSI has no significant effect on PPI	0.634	0.354	Failed to Reject

characteristics might have a possible moderating effect between the variables that were studied, it was shown that it did not have any significant moderating effect given the relationships of the variables.

Research Implications

Theoretical Implications

Employee commitment to organizational change is considered one of the critical aspects of successful change management initiatives in any organization. Given what

was studied throughout the years, researchers have developed frameworks and theories that could identify the drivers of organizational commitment to change in relation to learning and personal and organizational performance. Despite the years of research, there were still some gaps in the literature that were also addressed by the results of this study.

In relation to the time aspect of the study, there were still a limited number of longitudinal studies on this topic because the majority have relied on cross-sectional designs. It would be noteworthy and interesting to see studies that look into employee commitment to organizational change in the context of longer time periods because employees are considered as dynamic beings. Thus, it will be interesting to see how commitment will evolve or devolve and observe its long-term impact on organizational outcomes.

Another critical gap in the current literature is the insufficiency of cultural considerations in understanding employee attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors toward an organizational commitment to change. As shown in the results of the study, affective commitment to organizational change is one of the highest rated variables compared to other studies because Filipinos tend to be more affective toward their working environment. Future research should take into account the cultural nuances and adapt the perspectives accordingly. In line with this, cross-cultural studies and adding the cultural dimensions of different countries or groups of countries can contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon among different cultures.

One of the related studies also emphasized the role of communication in managing organization and commitment. It would be more interesting to learn how

communication practices, channels, and messages influence employee commitment. Hence, future research should look into how communication facilitates employee commitment to organizational change, which can result in the enhancement of change management practices.

Last, a more personalist approach to commitment to change may also be an interesting thing to look into because there is still a lack of comprehensive understanding of individual differences. An exploration of personality traits such as MBTI or Big 5 personality, personal values, religion, and psychological characteristics may significantly influence how an employee responds and engages with organizational change.

Practical Implications

In addition to the theoretical implications of the study, practical implications may also be considered, especially in the enhancement of change management strategies and training development programs. In terms of the first implication, the findings of the study can actually provide valuable insight not only into the BOC – Port of NAIA but also into other ports of BOCs as well as the Philippine government. Understanding the factors that can influence employee commitment to organizational change can aid in designing targeted interventions to increase commitment levels. This could look into how relationships and affective commitment could foster employee buy-in and commitment during times of change. Another approach could be to examine how individual differences play a significant role in influencing employee commitment to change. In line with this, the bureau, ports, and the Philippine government can look into creating training and development programs that will enhance the employees' change readiness and adaptability. A study could focus specifically on organizational resiliency,

flexibility, and problem-solving skills to equip employees to transition to a different direction smoothly.

These practical implications may be considered a good initiative to encourage employees to be committed to change, but challenges will always serve as a barrier. These challenges in the implementation of change could include resistance to change, unnecessary bureaucracy, bad organizational culture, and stakeholder engagement and collaboration. In relation to the first challenge, any organization is faced with resistance to change because employees tend to fear the unknown or are concerned about increased workloads. To overcome these, the government should engage in proactive communication that emphasizes the benefits and long-term effects of the change, giving constant opportunities for feedback, and addressing the resistance at an earlier stage can mitigate this challenge. Although the matter of change within the government of the Philippines is sensitive for everyone in the country, a slight increase in autonomy in doing what they need to do while ensuring a firm guide will enable the organization to transition into the change better and faster. Last, the implementation of change within a government involves multiple stakeholders. Communication and consultation with external stakeholders are also important in making sure that they are able to have direct participation in the change that everyone will be experiencing either directly or indirectly.

Recommendations

The findings of the study showed that there were selected significant variables that affect the antecedents of employee commitment toward organizational change. Hence, I propose several recommendations that would be helpful to the BOC – Port of NAIA and the Philippine government, especially in this time of transition.

Enhancing Employee Fit Toward Strategic Vision

Given the significant positive effect of employee fit toward the strategic vision on affective commitment to organizational change, BOC–NAIA should focus on aligning the employees’ understanding of what is the agenda of the agencies by installing a more visible vision, mission, core values, and citizens charter not only within the back end offices of the airport but also in public spaces where passengers would also see how BOC–NAIA employees should work. In addition, aside from the weekly flag ceremonies, shift huddles among the employees may be implemented that will allow them to remember and clearly understand how the changes will fit within the strategic vision of the department as illustrated in the highest factor loadings in this particular variable.

Strengthening Employee–Manager Relationships

The positive relationship between employee–manager relationships and affective commitment to organizational change emphasizes the importance of building positive relationships between employees. Given that majority of the professional levels of the respondents belong to Customs Operations Officer III and above, BOC–NAIA should invest more in leadership development programs to enhance the manager’s ability to build trust, provide support, and effectively communicate with employees. Partnerships with reputable training organizations or universities would allow the managers in BOC–NAIA to learn more about how to give regular feedback and recognition and create an engaging environment that will foster employee commitment to organizational change. This is also consistent with the highest factor loading, which mentioned that the manager can be counted on to do what is right.

Enhancing Job Motivation

In relation to job motivation and its effect on the normative commitment to organizational change, BOC–NAIA, in partnership with other concerned agencies such as the civil service commission (CSC) could conduct a job redesign to update the necessary qualifications and skillset that would contribute to a continual motivation, excitement, and challenge on their job to ensure the commitment to organizational change. Doing this would foster a sense of obligation and responsibility toward organizational change.

Promoting Role Autonomy

Role autonomy has a significant effect on a normative commitment to change. The results highlight the importance of empowering employees and providing them with an opportunity to practice their own decision-making skills. Despite working in a government agency, managers should still encourage some autonomy in executing tasks so as not to be too rigid in implementing the changes. Despite this, strong scaffolding should also be ensured to maintain the balance between having autonomy and conforming to the changes needed by the government.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the results of this study, recommendations for future research might be used to suggest directions for further investigation in employee commitment to organizational change. First, to capture the dynamic nature of employee commitment over time and to better understand how it evolves over time and how it affects organizational outcomes, future research should use longitudinal methods. The impact of cultural influences on employee attitudes and behaviors regarding organizational change also needs to be explored in greater detail. Cross-cultural studies that take into account

cultural factors might clarify how different cultures differ in terms of commitment. Future studies should also look into how communication techniques, modes, and messages influence employee commitment to change, which would result in better change management techniques. Furthermore, a more individualized approach to commitment ought to be investigated, taking into account individual distinctions including personality traits, personal beliefs, religion, and psychological factors, which can greatly affect employee responses and involvement with change.

From a practical standpoint, the results of this study can influence training programs and change management techniques in organizations, such as the BOC at the Port of NAIA and other BOC ports as well as the Philippine government. By developing connections and affective commitment during times of change, targeted interventions can be created to raise commitment levels. Additionally, training and development initiatives can be put in place to improve staff members' capacity for change and adaptability, with an emphasis on increasing organizational adaptability, resilience, and problem-solving abilities.

However, difficulties with change implementation should be acknowledged and resolved. These difficulties could include reluctance to change, needless red tape, a toxic government culture, and collaboration and stakeholder engagement. Proactive communication that emphasizes the advantages and long-term implications of change, chances for feedback, and early opposition management are crucial for overcoming resistance. In the case of the Philippine government, achieving a balance between independence and direction might help transitions proceed more smoothly and quickly.

Furthermore, ensuring their active involvement and support in the change process depends on efficient communication and collaboration with external stakeholders.

Future studies should focus on addressing these issues to advance knowledge of employee commitment to organizational change and offer useful advice for successful change management across a range of different industries in the Philippines. Most importantly, test these issues in other agencies in the Department of Finance such as the Bureau of Internal Revenue (BIR) which have a similar task to BOC, other ports of BOC and other government agencies within the Philippines.

Concluding Remarks and Reflection

This study and its process provided significant insights regarding his work under the BOC and his colleagues within. It allowed for a deeper understanding of the employees, their qualms, and their commitment indicators, which provided better understanding of how to keep them engaged and effective in their various duties within NAIA. Most notably, it was found that affective commitment was the strongest among others, which may be akin to how Filipinos are toward their work; they are emotionally invested and are aligned to company goals and objectives. Although most of the indicators are at a high level, role autonomy was deemed the indicator that had the highest standard deviation. It shows that within the port of NAIA, people feel that they are limited in what they can do. This is, of course, because of the nature of the work, which is public service, but the study revealed that this is an area in which port of NAIA can improve. I found that when studying antecedents of employee commitment to organizational change—individual employee learning, implementation success, and improved performance—it is noteworthy to include studies that delve into the cultural

aspect of people because this influences behavior and may reveal key insights to the phenomena. Longitudinal study and continuity were also found to be areas to consider to be enlightened about how commitment evolves with time. With this study, I was able to connect with my peers on a deeper level and was able to determine factors that helped them stay committed to their work in the Bureau. The process allowed me to engage in a level not much tackled by the higher ups, which through personalization, allowed for the rich response of the participants. Hopefully, the insights from the study have aided in the understanding of organizational change in government agencies and thus improved the quality of engagement moving forward, especially to other populations beyond the limits of the study.

REFERENCES

- Abreu, M. C. S., Cunha, M. C., & Rebouças, S. M. P. (2013). Effects of personal characteristics on organizational commitment: Evidence from Brazil's oil and gas industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(20), 3831–3852.
- Alias, M., Rasdi, R. M., Ismail, M., & Samah, B. A. (2013). Predictors of workplace deviant behavior: HRD agenda for Malaysian support personnel, *European Journal of Training and Development*, 37 (2), 161–182.
- Al-Jabari, B., & Ghazzawi, I. (2019). Organizational commitment: A review of the conceptual and empirical literature and a research agenda. *International Leadership Journal*, 11(1), 78–119.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(1), 1–18.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(3), 252–276.
- Andaleeb, S. S. (1996). An experimental investigation of satisfaction and commitment in marketing channels: The role of trust and dependence. *Journal of Retailing*, 72, 77–93.
- Bagozzi, R. (2011). Measurement and meaning in information systems and organizational research: Methodological and philosophical foundations on JSTOR. *MIS Quarterly*, 35(2), 261–292. <https://doi.org/10.2307/23044044>

- Barber, V. A. (2010). *A study of change readiness: Factors that influence the readiness of frontline workers towards a nursing home transformational change initiative* [Doctoral dissertation, St. John Fisher College]. Fisher Digital Publications.
https://fisherpub.sjf.edu/education_etd/36/
- Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (2000). Development of affective organizational commitment: A cross sequential examination of change with tenure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(1), 114–136.
- Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 66(1), 32-40.
- Bernerth, J. (2004). Expanding our understanding of the change message. *Human Resource Development Review*, 3(1), 36–52.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484303261230>
- Betz, T. (2019). Tariff evasion and trade policies. *International Studies Quarterly*, 63(2), 380–393.
- Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to organizational commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(10), 1701–1719.
- Bunda, N., San Juan-Nable, L. T., Pangilinan, R. (2021). *Business ethics and social responsibility*. Oxford University Press.
- Bureau of Customs. (n.d.). Bureau of Customs annual report 2021.
<https://customs.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2023/01/BOC-2021-Accomplishment-Report.pdf>

- Cantens, T. (2012). Is it possible to reform a customs administration? The role of the customs elite on the reform process in Cameroon. In A. H. Amsden, A. DeCaprio, & J. A. Robinson (Eds.), *The role of elites in economic development* (pp. 281–306). Oxford University Press.
- <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199659036.003.0012>
- Carmeli, A., Gilat, G., & Weisberg, J. (2006), Perceived external prestige, organizational identification and affective commitment: A stakeholder approach, *Corporate Reputation Review*, 9(1), 92–104.
- Chen, J., & Wang, L. (2007). Locus of control and the three components of commitment to change. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42(3), 503–512.
- <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.07.025>
- Civil Service Commission. (2014). *Mandate of Civil Service Commission*.
- <https://web.csc.gov.ph/2014-02-20-02-22-48/2014-02-20-02-29-25.html>
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Routledge.
- <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203771587>
- Crites, S., Fabrigar, L. R., & Petty, R. E. (1994). *Measuring the affective and cognitive properties of attitudes: Conceptual and methodological issues*. SAGE Publications.
- Demir, M. (2011), Effects of organizational justice, trust and commitment on employees' deviant behavior. *Anatolia—An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 22(2), 204-221.
- Eby, L., Adams, D. M., Joyce, & Gaby, S. H. (2000). *Perceptions of organizational readiness for change: Factors related to employees*. SAGE Publications.

- Erdogan, B., Liden, R. C., & Kraimer, M. L. (2006). Justice and leader-member exchange: The moderating role of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 395-406.
- Ford, K., Weissbein, D., & Plamondon, K. (2003). Distinguishing organizational from strategy commitment: Linking officers' commitment to community policing to job behaviors and satisfaction. *Justice Quarterly*, 20(1), 159–185.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07418820300095491>
- Fornell, C., & Bookstein, F. L. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19(4), 440–452. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3151718>
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1982). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(3), 382–388. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3150980>
- Ganesan, S., & Weitz, B. A. (1996). The impact of staffing policies on retail buyer job attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(1), 31–57.
- Ghazzawi, I. (2008). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction: A new conceptual framework. *The Business Review*, 11(2), 1–10.
- Ghazzawi, I., & Smith, Y. (2009). Crafting the whole employee: Job satisfaction, job commitment, and faith—a new conceptual framework and research agenda. *The Business Review*, 12(2), 300–309.
- Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G. Q., & Karadag, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32, 40–48.

- Gursoy, D., Maier, T. A., & Chi, C. G. (2008). Generational differences: An examination of work values and generational gaps in the hospitality workforce. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(3), 448–458.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate data analysis: Pearson New International Edition* (7th ed.). Pearson.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Marko, S. (2022). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. SAGE Publishing.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, T. M., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., Danks, N. P., & Ray, S. (2021). *Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using R*. SpringerLink. <https://link.springer.com/book/10.1007/978-3-030-80519-7>
- Henning-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., & Gremler, D.D. (2002), Understanding relationship marketing outcomes: An integration of relational benefits and relationship quality. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(3), 230-248.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). *A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling*. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(1), 115–135.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8>
- Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 474–487.
- Higgs, M., & Rowland, D. (2001). Developing change leaders: Assessing the impact of a development programme. *Journal of Change Management*, 2(1), 47–64.

- Homburg, C., Hoyer, W. D., & Fassnacht, M. (2002). Service orientation of a retailer's business strategy: Dimensions, antecedents, and performance outcomes. *Journal of Marketing*, 66, 86–101.
- Hulland, J. (1999). Use of partial least squares (PLS) in strategic management research: A review of four recent studies. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(2), 195–204.
- Irshad, E., & Naz, S. (2011). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and personality traits: A relationship study. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 19(2), 37–60.
- Irving, P. G., & Meyer, J. P. (1994). Reexamination of the met-expectations hypothesis: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(6), 937–949.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.79.6.937>
- Iverson, R. D., & Buttigieg, D. M. (1999). Affective, normative and continuance commitment: Can the 'right kind' of commitment be managed? *Journal of Management Studies*, 36(3), 307–333.
- Jaros, S. (2010). Commitment to organizational change: A critical review. *Journal of Change Management*, 1(10), 79–108.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14697010903549457>
- Johnson, J. M. P., & Warshaw, S. L. R. (1990) Relationship between work attitudes and organizational commitment in an industrial context. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(3), 535–557.
- Kahn, W. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 692–724.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2013). *Principles of marketing*. Pearson.

- Kundi, Y. M., Aboramadan, M., Elhamalawi, E., & Shahid, S. (2020). Employee psychological well-being and job performance: Exploring mediating and moderating mechanisms. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 29(3), 736–754. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-05-2020-2204>
- Kusumawardhani, N. P., & Diokno, J. P. (2022). Strengthening integrity by building integrated systems: A comparative case study of Indonesia and the Philippines. *World Customs Journal*, 16(1), 135–144. <https://worldcustomsjournal.org/archive/volume-16-number-1-march-2022/>
- Lee, T. W., Ashford, S. J., Walsh, J. P., & Mowday, R. T. (1992). Commitment propensity, organizational commitment, and voluntary turnover: A longitudinal study of organizational entry processes. *Journal of Management*, 18(1), 15–32.
- Lehesvirta, T. (2004). Learning processes in a work organization: From individual to collective and/or vice versa? *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 16(1/2), 92–100.
- Li, Z. G., & Dant, R. P. (1997). An exploratory study of exclusive dealing in relationships. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25(3), 201–213.
- Lin, Y., Chen, S., & Chuang, H. (2011). The effect of organizational commitment on employee reactions to educational training: An evaluation using the Kirkpatrick four-level model. *International Journal of Management*, 28(3), 926–938.
- Madsen, S. R., Miller, D., & John, C. R. (2005). Readiness for organizational change: Do organizational commitment & social relationships in the workplace make a difference? *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(2), 213–234.
- Mahal, P. K. (2012). HR practices as determinants of organizational commitment and employee retention. *IUP Journal of Management Research*, 11(4), 37–53.

- Malter, A. J., & Dickson, P. R. (2001). The effect of individual learning on competitive decision making and firm performance. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 18, 99–117.
- Mangundjaya, W. L. H. (2012). Are organizational commitment and employee engagement in achieving individual readiness for change? *Humanitas: Indonesian Psychological Journal*, 9(2), 185–192.
<https://doi.org/10.26555/humanitas.v9i2.344>
- Mangundjaya, W. L. H. (2013). Leadership, readiness to change and commitment to change. In C. N. Carmen (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 7th International Management Conference*, 7(1), 199–205.
- Manila International Airport Authority. (n.d.). *Statistics on daily passenger inflow, departure and arrival on both international and domestic flights*. eFOI: Electronic Freedom of Information.
<https://www.foi.gov.ph/requests/aglzfmVmb2ktcGhyHgsSB0NvbnRlbnQiEU1JQUeEtOTM5ODc3OTMzMzOTk0DA>
- Marchalina L., Ahmad, H., & Gelaidan, H. M. (2021). Employees' commitment to change: Personality traits & organizational culture. *Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences*, 37(4), 377–392. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEAS-11-2018-0131>
- 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), 171–194. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.108.2.171>

- McDonald, D. J., & Makin, P. J. (2000). The psychological contract, organizational commitment and job satisfaction of temporary staff. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 21(2), 84–91. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730010318174>.
- Messner, W. (2013). Effect of organizational culture on employee commitment in the Indian IT services sourcing industry. *Journal of Indian Business Research*, 5(2), 76–100. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554191311320764>
- 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. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Sage.
- 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.
- Miao, Q., Newman, A., Schwarz, G., & Xu, L. (2014). Servant leadership, trust, and the organizational commitment of public sector employees in China. *Public Administration*, 92(3), 727–743.
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(3), 20–38.
- Mowday, R. T. (1999). Reflections on the study and relevance of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8(4), 387–401.
- Noble, C. H., & Mokwa, M. P. (1999). Implementing marketing strategies: Developing and testing a managerial theory. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(4), 57–73.

- Parish, J., Cadwallader, S., & Busch, P. (2008). Want to, need to, ought to: Commitment to organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 21(1), 32–52. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm>
- Pett, M., Lackey, N., & Sullivan, J. (2003). *Making sense of factor analysis*. SAGE Publications.
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Psychology*, 59(5), 603–609.
- Powell, D. M., & Meyer, J. P. (2004). Side-bet theory and the three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(1), 157–177. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0001-8791\(03\)00050-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0001-8791(03)00050-2)
- Quick, J. C., & Nelson, D. L. (2008). Leadership development: On the cutting edge. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 60(4), 293–297. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1065-9293.60.4.293>
- Rafferty, A., Jimmieson, N., & Armenakis, A. (2013). Change readiness: A multilevel review. *Journal of Management*, 39(1), 110–135.
- Republic of the Philippines. (1987). *Executive Order No. 292, s. 1987*. Official Gazette of the Republic of the Philippines. <https://www.officialgazette.gov.ph/1987/07/25/executive-order-no-292-s-1987/>
- Samaranayake, S. U., Takemura, T. (2017). Employee readiness for organizational change: A case study in an export-oriented manufacturing firm in Sri Lanka. *Eurasian Journal of Business & Economics*, 10(20), 1–16.

- Serafica, R. (2016). *Why do some millennials choose government?* RAPPLER.
<https://www.rappler.com/moveph/145272-millennials-government-philippines/>
- Shah, C. (2014). Collaborative information seeking. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology*, 65(2), 215–236.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.22977>
- Shah, N. (2009). *Determinants of employee readiness for organisational change* (Publication No. U517987) [Doctoral dissertation, Brunel University (United Kingdom)]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.
- Shmueli, G., Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Cheah, J.-H., Ting, H., Vaithilingam, S., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). Predictive model assessment in PLS-SEM: Guidelines for using PLSpredict. *European Journal of Marketing*, 53(11), 2322–2347.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-02-2019-0189>
- Singh, A., & Gupta, B. (2015). Job involvement, organizational commitment, commitment, and team commitment. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 22(6), 1192–1211. <https://doi.org/10.1108/BIJ-01-2014-0007>
- Soumjaya, D., Kamlanabhan, T. J., Bhattacharyya, S. (2015). Antecedents of employee readiness for change: Mediating effect of commitment to change. *Management Studies & Economics Systems (MSES)*, 2(1), 11–25.
- Susanto, A. (2008). Organizational readiness for change: A case study on change readiness in a manufacturing company in Indonesia. *International Journal of Management Perspectives*, 1(2), 50–61.

- Talusan, C. (2021, June 25). Customs hold session on world's best practices. *Manila Standard*. <https://manilastandard.net/news/national/358102/customs-hold-session-on-world-s-best-practices.html>
- Terrell, S. (2015). *Writing a proposal for your dissertation: Guidelines and examples*. The Guilford Press.
- Toor, S. U. R., & Ofori, G. (2009). Ethical leadership: Examining the relationships with full range leadership model, employee outcomes, and organizational culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 90(4), 533–547.
- Tuna, M., Ghazzawi, I., Tuna, A., & Catir, O. (2011). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: The case of Turkey's hospitality industry. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 76(3), 10–25.
- Tuna, M., Ghazzawi, I., Tuna, A., & Catir, O. (2016). The effects of perceived external prestige of the organization on employee deviant workplace behavior: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM)*, 28(2), 366–396.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-04-2014-0182>
- Vandenberg, R. J., & Self, R. M. (1993). Assessing newcomers' changing commitments to organization during the first 6 months of work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 557–568. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.557>
- Vandenberg, R. J., Self, R. M., & Seo, J. H. (1994). A critical examination of the internalization, identification, and compliance commitment measures. *Journal of Management*, 20(1), 123–140. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639402000106>

- Vandenberghe, C., Bentein, K., & Stinglhamber, F. (2004). Affective commitment to the organization, supervisor, and work group: Antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64(1), 47–71. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791\(03\)00029-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00029-0)
- Wasti, S. A. (2005). Commitment profiles: Combinations of organizational commitment forms and job outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), 290–308.
- Weiner, B. J., Clary, A., Klamann, S. L., Turner, K., & Alishahi-Tabriz, A. (2020). Organizational readiness for change: What we know, what we think we know, and what we need to know. In B. Albers, A. Shlonsky, & R. Mildon (Eds.), *Implementation Science 3.0* (pp. 101–144). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-03874-8_5

APPENDIX—Survey Instrument

Good day!

I am Renzzo Mari D. Baliao, a doctoral student from California Baptist University. I am conducting a survey as a partial fulfillment for my doctoral degree in Business. The proceeding survey will be used to understand the employee commitment for organizational change of the Bureau of Customs in the Port of Ninoy Aquino International Airport (NAIA).

I humbly ask for your full participation and honestly in answering this survey to help me gather the necessary data for our research. The survey would take approximately 10 minutes of your time.

In accordance with Republic Act No. 10173 or the Data Privacy Act of 2012 along with the conditions of California Baptist University Institutional Review Board (IRB), rest assured that all the data collected from this survey will be treated with utmost confidentiality and protected from unauthorized processing of personal information.

By answering this survey, you are indicating that you have read and understood the purpose and description of this research. Select the link to complete the survey.

Thank you for being part of this study.

Respondent Profile

1. **Sex:** ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **Age:** _____

3. **Marital Status:** ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Separated/Annulled

☐ Widow/er

4. **Highest Educational Attainment:**

☐ High School Degree

☐ College Degree

☐ Master's Degree

☐ Doctoral Degree

☐ Postdoctoral Degree

☐ Technical

☐ Vocational

5. **Professional Level:** _____

6. Division: _____

Instructions: Please evaluate the given statements according to your perception and preferences from Strongly Agree (6), Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Somewhat Disagree (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1).

Employee Engagement							
Code	Question	SA (6)	A (5)	SWA (4)	SWD (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
fwv1	The change is part of an overall strategic plan within my department	6	5	4	3	2	1
fwv2	The change is consistent with other things going on in my department	6	5	4	3	2	1
fwv3	I understand how the change fits within the strategic vision of my department	6	5	4	3	2	1
cm1	The relationship that I have with my manager is something I am committed to	6	5	4	3	2	1
cm2	The relationship that I have with my manager is important to me	6	5	4	3	2	1
cm3	The relationship that I have with my manager is something I care about	6	5	4	3	2	1
tm1	In our relationship, my manager can be always trusted	6	5	4	3	2	1
tm2	In our relationship, my manager can be trusted completely	6	5	4	3	2	1
tm3	In our relationship, my manager can be counted on to do what is right	6	5	4	3	2	1
sm1	My relationship with my manager seems to reflect a happy situation	6	5	4	3	2	1
sm2	My relationship with my manager is very positive	6	5	4	3	2	1
sm3	The relationship with my manager has been satisfactory	6	5	4	3	2	1
jm1	My job is exciting and challenging	6	5	4	3	2	1

jm2	My job gives me an opportunity to learn something new and different	6	5	4	3	2	1
jm3	My job is really interesting to me	6	5	4	3	2	1
ra1	I had a great deal of autonomy during this organizational change	6	5	4	3	2	1
ra2	I felt I was my own boss in implementing this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
ra3	In implementing this strategy, I could make my own decisions	6	5	4	3	2	1
Employee Commitment to Organizational Change							
Code	Question	SA (6)	A (5)	SWA (4)	SWD (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
ac1	I believe in the value of this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
ac2	This change is a good strategy for this department	6	5	4	3	2	1
ac3	This change serves an important purpose	6	5	4	3	2	1
ac4	Things will be better because of this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
cc1	I feel pressure to go along with this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
cc2	I have too much at stake to resist this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
cc3	It would be too costly for me to resist this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
nc1	I feel a sense of duty to work toward this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
nc2	I do not think it would be right of me to oppose this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
nc3	I would feel guilty about opposing this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
nc4	I feel obligated to support this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
Individual Learning for Organizational Change							
Code	Question	SA (6)	A (5)	SWA (4)	SWD (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
l1	It only took me a brief period of time to understand how the change would benefit my company	6	5	4	3	2	1
l2	I feel that as a result of understanding the change, I am more effective in my job	6	5	4	3	2	1

I3	I feel that as a result of understanding the change, I am a better employee overall	6	5	4	3	2	1
Perceived Success of Implementation							
Code	Question	SA (6)	A (5)	SWA (4)	SWD (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
si1	The implementation of this change was effective	6	5	4	3	2	1
si2	Our implementation effort on this strategy was effective	6	5	4	3	2	1
si3	I personally think the implementation of the strategy was a success	6	5	4	3	2	1
Perceived Performance Improvement							
Code	Question	SA (6)	A (5)	SWA (4)	SWD (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
pi1	We improved customer satisfaction as a result of this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
pi2	We provided a customer benefit as a result of this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
pi3	We built a positive firm image as a result of this change	6	5	4	3	2	1
pi4	Overall performance was very high compared to what we expected for this change	6	5	4	3	2	1