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Abstract

Research on the association between Commitment-based Human Resource (CBHR) practices and employee-related outcomes generally focuses on generational differences rather than age differences in the organization. Drawing on the lifespan perspective, we consider age as a continuous variable and examine the relationship between facets of commitment-based HR practices and the moderating effect of age on employees' intrinsic motivation. To explore this topic, we present two main conflicting hypotheses about the universalness of commitment-based HR practices. First, we hypothesize that commitment-based HR practices will have the same impact and application regardless of age. Secondly, as workforces are aging across the world, it becomes increasingly important to understand how employees manage their resources across different lifespans. Based on Selection, Optimization, and Compensation (SOC) theory and Socioemotional Selectivity Theory (SST), we identify five facets of commitment-based HR and hypothesize that age will have a moderating effect on these facets. We contribute to the existing literature by exploring the various facets of commitment-based HR practices and investigating them both as part of a collective system and separately.

A total of 217 employees working in various private and public industries participated in this study. Our findings reveal that commitment-based HR practices as a collective system is a better predictor for employees' intrinsic motivation rather than age, which further supports the universal impact and application of these practices. The moderating effects of age showed the same values as the direct effects only on the relationship between incentive policies and intrinsic motivation and work-family spillover and intrinsic motivation.

Keywords: *Commitment-based HR practices, employee outcomes, SOC theory, SST theory, intrinsic motivation, lifespan perspective.*

1.0 Introduction

Commitment-based HR practices have gained considerable attention in organizational research and practice due to their potential to foster a committed and engaged workforce. These practices encompass a range of strategies and initiatives aimed to enhance employee commitment to the organizations, which in turn has been linked to a range of positive outcomes, such as improved performance, increased productivity, higher job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Riketta, 2002; Wiener, 1982). The increased competition in today's business environment for attaining skilled employees further emphasizes the importance of having a committed and motivated workforce in the organization in order to gain competitive advantage, and achieve long-term success. Implementing commitment-based HR practices offers organizations the opportunity to cultivate a committed workforce, leading to improved employee engagement, reduced turnover intentions, and enhanced organizational performance (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Riketta, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Commitment-based HR practices is therefore used as a means to attract, motivate, and retain talent within organizations (Arthur, 1994; Guest, 2001; Huselid, 1995).

The literature has consistently shown that commitment-based HR practices positively influence employee outcomes, highlighting the impact of these practices on various individual and organizational variables. Engaged and committed employees are more likely to go above and beyond their formal job requirements, exhibit higher levels of task performance, and actively contribute to organizational goals. Moreover, commitment-based practices have been associated with increased productivity, as employees who are dedicated to the organization invest their time and effort in achieving targets and fulfilling organizational objectives (Combs et al. 2006; Rauch & Hatak, 2016). Commitment-based HR practices also contribute to improved employee satisfaction and well-being. When employees perceive that their organization values their contributions, provides opportunities for growth and development, and supports their work-life balance, they experience higher job satisfaction, which, in turn, leads to enhanced overall well-being (Boselie et al. 2005; Jiang et al. 2012). The importance of HR practices to improve motivation is also widely acknowledged (e.g., Datta et al. 2005; Huselid, 1995).

Theoretical perspectives, such as the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), have been employed to explain the underlying mechanisms through which commitment-based HR practices influence employee attitudes and behaviors (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Moreover, empirical evidence suggests that commitment-based HR practices contribute to the development of a psychological contract between employees and the organization, resulting in increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions (González-Romá et al., 2009; Rousseau, 1989). Additionally, research is fairly unequivocally in favor of intrinsic motivation as the best source of good job performance and a variety of other employee outcomes. In general, we can say that internal motivation as a source of good performance is more effective than external motivation, for tasks or where quality, understanding, learning, development and creativity are more important than quantity (Gagné & Deci, 2005). However, despite the extensive research on commitment-based HR practices, there is a noticeable gap in the literature regarding the impact of age-related factors on the effectiveness of these practices.

Another problem with previous research is that it has predominantly been conducted on the macro-level, and sheds little light on how different HR interventions work, because the impact of HR is typically not studied through the perspective of the employees (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020, p. 38). This is a matter of concern, because employees often have an entirely different perception of the HR practices and systems (e.g., Edgar & Geare, 2005; Khilji & Wang, 2006; Guest & King, 2004; Truss et al., 1997; Wright & Boswell, 2002).

Employees are an essential source of competitive advantage, and it is therefore crucial that organizations engage in practices that motivate the employees in order to keep up with the nature of competitiveness in today's contemporary business environment (Ferris et al. 1999). Since workforces are aging across the world (OECD, 2005), and a significant age-shift in the workforce is to be expected, it is important to acknowledge that individuals progress through different stages in their lifespan, and their needs, values, and priorities evolve accordingly. Therefore, organizations should reconsider their organizational policies and practices in order to encourage older workers to remain engaged and active members of the workforce (Barnes-Farrell & Matthews, 2007). A meta-analysis by Kooij et al. (2010) used the lifespan approach of Selection, Optimization and Compensation (SOC) to argue that employee needs, and thus

the utility of HR practices, change with age. Hence, we should also expect the associations between various HR practices and work-related attitudes to change with age.

Further, a study conducted by Allen and Meyer (1990) examined the impact of HR practices, such as training and development, reward systems, and participatory decision-making, on affective commitment and turnover intentions among employees of different age groups. The findings revealed that commitment-based HR practices positively influenced affective commitment and reduced turnover intentions across all age groups, highlighting the universal nature of these practices. Research by Shanock et al. (2010) examined the mediating role of psychological contract fulfillment in the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and organizational commitment among different age cohorts. The study found that commitment-based HR practices significantly predicted psychological contract fulfillment, which, in turn, enhanced organizational commitment across all age groups. This suggests that commitment-based HR practices can be positively related to employee commitment regardless of age.

However, while commitment-based HR practices may have universal effects, it is important to consider the unique needs and preferences of employees at different stages of their lifespan. As individuals progress through their careers, their personal and professional goals, motivations, and values undergo significant changes. For example, younger employees may prioritize skill development and career advancement opportunities, while older employees may value work-life balance and flexible work arrangements. Hence, specific commitment-based HR practices may be more relevant and impactful for employees at specific stages of their lifespan. A study by Wright and Bonett (2002) investigated the differential effects of commitment-based HR practices on organizational commitment among employees at different career stages. The findings revealed that career development opportunities were particularly significant for younger employees, while work-life balance practices played a crucial role in enhancing commitment among employees in later career stages. These findings highlight the importance of tailoring commitment-based HR practices to meet the changing needs of employees across their lifespan.

While commitment-based HR practices have shown to offer numerous practical benefits, it is crucial to understand the current state of knowledge in this

field. Existing research has identified several factors that influence the effectiveness of commitment-based practices, such as leadership support, organizational culture, employee involvement, and compensation systems (e.g., Takeuchi et al. 2007; Lawler, 1994; Milkovich & Newman, 2008). This thesis aims to contribute to existing research by examining the moderating effect of age on facets of commitment-based HR practices. Although commitment-based HR practices have been widely acknowledged as beneficial for employees across different age groups, it is essential to recognize that individuals may have varying needs and priorities at different stages of their careers (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). By understanding the nuances of the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and employee outcomes across age cohorts, organizations can adopt a more targeted and effective approach to human resource management. Therefore, it becomes crucial to examine the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and employee outcomes within the context of age. This thesis explores the proposition that commitment-based HR practices are universal in their overall impact on employee outcomes, but their effectiveness may vary based on where employees are in their lifespan.

1.1 Research question

The guiding research question for this thesis will be as follows:

What is the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation from a lifespan perspective? How does age moderate this relationship?

2.0 Theory

2.1 Theoretical framework

For our thesis, we have incorporated literature from various fields in order to provide a more comprehensive knowledge of the different research areas and their connections. First, we present the general framework of human resource management and its importance in organizations. Then, we will present theory and research on commitment-based HR practices, including the highly assumed universalness of these practices. Further, we will go through the various facets of

HR practices that we measured as independent variables. Here, we also aim to relate the practices to intrinsic motivation, our dependent variable. Further, we present SOC theory and SST from the lifespan perspective to provide more insight to age as our moderator, and how it connects with our conceptual model.

2.2 Human resource management

Human resource management (HRM) in today's organizational context has two distinguished roles: (1) *to foster performance of an organization* (Stavrou et al., 2010; Delery & Doty, 1996) and (2) *to act as a support for achieving competitiveness through people* (Collins & Smith, 2006; Huselid, 1995; Wright et al., 2001). HRM therefore refers to practices, policies and systems that affect employee's behavior, attitudes, and performance (Noe et al., 2006). Consequently, these HR practices are an essential part of human resource management. They can further be described as systems that are developed with the intention to retain, attract, and motivate employees and improve organizational performance (Schuler and Jackson, 1987). Thus, organizations have shifted from focusing solely on increasing their productivity and differentiating their products and services to focusing on their human capital, considering their employees their most valuable asset (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020; Pagan-Castano 2022; Elsharnouby & Elbanna, 2021; Kehinde, 2012).

2.3 The universal impact and application of commitment-based HR practices

Further research on HR practices have argued that specific practices that aim to foster commitment have shown to enhance organizational outcomes such as productivity and performance, and decrease turnover-intentions independent of organizational strategy and structure (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). Arthur (1994) explains these findings by pointing out that organizations with commitment-oriented HR get more loyal and committed employees, experience fewer conflicts between employees and management, without typical macro studies actually investigating such conditions. These practices aim to enhance employees' level of skill, motivation, information, and empowerment in order to create a mutually beneficial relationship where employees are dedicated to achieving organizational goals, and organizations prioritize the growth and well-being of their employees

(Combs et al., 2006; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020; Collins & Smith, 2006; Guthrie, 2001).

Commitment-based HR generally includes practices such as recruitment and selection, training, employee security, compensation, internal career opportunities, and teamwork (Collins & Smith, 2006; Sun et al., 2007). At least six meta-analyses provide clear support for a universal perspective advocating commitment-based HR on organizational performance and employee outcomes (Combs et al., 2006; Rabl et al., 2014; Rauch & Hatak, 2016; Wright et al., 2005). Several of these meta-analyses also indicate a stronger connection between a system of internally consistent HR activities and results between individual HR activities as long as it is about HR in a commitment-based direction (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020, p. 37).

There have been a number of studies that examined the universality of commitment-based HR practices across industries, sectors, and cultural contexts. These studies illustrate the substantial benefits of commitment-based HR practices and their widespread applicability (e.g., Nishii et al. 2008; Takeuchi et al. 2007; Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 2004; Riketta & Van Dick, 2005; Kim et al. 2005). For example, Collins and Smith (2006) studied the relationship between the degree of commitment-based HR and organizational results among 136 high-tech firms. The results from this study not only point to strong positive relationships between commitment-based HR and organizational results, but go a long way in documenting that this can be explained by the fact that such HR improves the social climate in the organization. Other studies have examined the psychological contract between employees and organizations, emphasizing the importance of commitment in the employment relationship, and how commitment-based HR practices positively influence employee attitudes and behaviors across different organizational contexts (Guest, 2004). Further, Youndth et al. (2000) highlights the universal benefits of commitment-based HR practices, such as training and employee involvement, in enhancing organizational performance across various industries. These studies, among many others, provide empirical evidence supporting the universal applicability and positive benefits of commitment-based HR practices on employee outcomes. While the specific context and variables may vary, the underlying principles and benefits of commitment-based HR practices are similar across diverse organizational settings. Of the few studies that have been done between strategy and HR, commitment-

based HR also seems to be effective across different strategies (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020).

A meta-analysis has also been carried out which examined the importance of HR in different regions and countries (Rabl et al., 2014). This study included 156 studies and a total of 35,767 organizations or organizational units from 29 countries, and showed positive relationships between commitment-based HR and organizational effectiveness in all countries and regions (Anglo-American countries with and without the US, Latin European countries, Eastern European countries, Confucian countries, South Asian countries, Germanic countries, countries from the Middle East and African countries).

For intrinsic motivation, Pfeffer and Veiga (1999) describes the benefits of commitment-based HR practices in the following way (1) employees work harder because of stronger involvement and commitment due to a high degree of co-determination and self-control, (2) employees work smarter because they are encouraged to develop and use their skills and competence, and (3) the employees work more responsibly because the responsibility is placed in their hands. In other words, commitment-based HR allows for intrinsic motivation to be important driving forces in organizations. As mentioned, intrinsic motivation refers to behavior carried out with a background of internal rewards such as satisfaction, joy or meaning linked to the tasks performed. Employees consistently report that intrinsic motives are more important than extrinsic motives across a variety of cultures. Furthermore, a cross-cultural study shows that among ten fundamental needs, the needs for autonomy, competence, belonging and self-esteem are the most important, but popularity and money are the least important (Sheldon et al. 2001). Finally, studies show that up to 95% of the average workforce are initially intrinsically motivated to do a good job (Sirota et al., 2005), as long as the conditions are right for it (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020, p. 58).

2.3.1 Facets of commitment-based HR practices

Incentive policies. Incentive policies are mutually agreed policies in organizations that are offered to attract, retain, and motivate employees in order to increase commitment (Collins & Smith, 2006). Result- and performance-based rewards with indirect effects (different types of fixed salary systems) can increase employees' experience of being valued, motivation, organizational commitment, psychological ownership, which in turn can increase employees' job efficiency

(Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). Although financial incentives have shown to not be well suited to create lasting positive changes in attitudes, values, or behavior, organizations still have a strong belief in the qualities of external governance and financial incentives as the basic governing and organizing principle in working life. For example, rewards and incentives that align with individuals' goals and values, and are perceived as equitable and attainable, can lead to increased engagement, satisfaction, and sense of accomplishment (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020).

Hypothesis 1a. *Incentive policies will be positively associated with intrinsic motivation.*

Learning and development policies. Learning and development policies are systematic learning and development initiatives that aim to improve individual, group and organizational performance (Kraiger & Ford, 2007, p. 81). The main purpose is to enhance and upgrade the skills of the competent workforce of an organization and utilize this knowledge to change the internal environment of the organization. Storey and Sisson (2000) argued that employees perceived training (i.e., learning opportunity) as a symbol of an employer's commitment towards them. Other researchers have also shown that such policies are associated with intrinsic motivation, arguing that it improves performance while learning within a specific task or activity (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). Employees who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to think strategically, suggest more creative solutions and learn faster from their experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Hypothesis 1b. *Learning and development policies will be positively associated with intrinsic motivation.*

Autonomy. Job autonomy in an organization can be related to work method, work schedule, pace of work, work procedures, work evaluation, amount of work, goals, priorities and job criteria (Jonge, 1995). It also refers to the degree of freedom, flexibility, and independence an employee has. As a facet of commitment-based HR practices, autonomy is an important factor contributing to enhancing employee performance, increasing commitment (Sisodia and Das, 2013), motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1976), employee engagement and

trust-building towards the manager and organization (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Thus, there may be a strong association between motivation and autonomy; people who are intrinsically motivated in doing an activity are doing it for its own sake, and make decisions based on their own opinion, rather than because of external pressure or reward for doing it.

Hypothesis 1c. *Autonomy will be positively associated with intrinsic motivation.*

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to the employee's beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). A meta-analysis of over 70 individual studies by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) shows that perceived organizational support is strongly positively related to affective organizational commitment and negatively related to calculative organizational commitment. For example, organizational support is also positively related to both work performance and to extra-role behavior and negatively related to actual turnover, turnover intention, and various forms of job strain. Organizations that prioritize and demonstrate support for their employees by providing resources, recognition, fair treatment, and opportunities for growth and development, may therefore be positively associated with employees' intrinsic motivation. It is interesting from an HR point of view that conditions such as salary level, job security and promotions have also been investigated, and as expected these are positively related to perceived organizational support (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020).

Hypothesis 1d. *Perceived organizational support will be positively associated with intrinsic motivation.*

Work-family spillover. Work-family spillover, which refers to the transfer of stress, emotions, and behaviors between work and family domains that overlap or spill over into each other which can have positive or negative implications for the employee. When individuals experience high levels of work-family spillover in a way that their work responsibilities impede their family life, this can lead to a

negative association with their intrinsic motivation towards work. By implementing policies and strategies that promote work-life balance, such as flexible work hours, hybrid office, and provide support for family integration, organizations can enhance employees' ability to effectively navigate their work and family responsibilities (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). Such policies foster a positive work environment that acknowledges the importance of family commitments, leading to increased job satisfaction, higher levels of commitment to the organization, and improved overall well-being (Grzywacs and Marks, 2000).

Hypothesis 1e. *Work-family spillover will be negatively associated with intrinsic motivation.*

2.4 The moderating role of age in the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation.

Previous research on age differences in management literature has focused on the idea of generational differences in work attitudes, motivation, and behavior (e.g., Espinoza & Ukleja, 2016; Fitch & Van Brunt, 2016). However, a critical review of the theory, empirical research and practical applications on generational differences in management and work-settings by Rudolph et al. (2017) refuted the various myths and conceptions surrounding the idea of generational differences in general. Instead, they argued that the lifespan development perspective represents a useful alternative to generational representations, as it better captures age-related dynamics that are more relevant to leadership and employee outcomes. While these studies operationalized age as either life stage or career stage, the lifespan approach focuses on age as a continuous variable throughout an individual's life.

In line with the lifespan approach, the theory of Selection, Optimization, and Compensation (SOC) highlights that the management of resources is the basis for successful development. According to the SOC model, successful development encompasses *selection* of functional domains on which to focus one's resources, *optimizing* developmental potential and *compensating* for losses, to ensure the maintenance of functioning (Baltes & Baltes, 1990; Baltes, 1987; Freund, 2006; Baltes & Carstensen, 1996). As individuals progress through different stages of their lifespan, their needs and preferences undergo

transformations. According to SOC theory, the allocation of resources for growth and optimization decreases, while resources allocated for maintenance and compensation increase in response to losses (Baltes et al., 1999). Research supports the notion that regulatory focus shifts from promotion to prevention as individuals transition from young adulthood to old adulthood (Freund, 2006).

Similarly, the Socioemotional Selectivity Theory (SST) proposed by Carstensen and colleagues (1999) focuses on the prioritization of socioemotional goals as individuals age. According to SST, as individuals perceive their time horizons becoming more limited, they prioritize emotional well-being and meaningful relationships. Both theories provide insights into how individuals cope with gains and losses over their lifespan, the importance of socioemotional needs in later life stages, and the impact of commitment-based HR practices on employees' socioemotional well-being.

Thus, the question of successful development becomes how people maximize gains and minimize losses by managing ever-changing resources over the course of their lives (e.g., Baltes & Baltes, 1990; Brandtstädter, 1998; Labouvie-Vief, 1981). Applied to the work domain, Baltes (1997) found that developmental challenges at work can be successfully navigated via SOC-relevant behaviors. Individual differences in SOC behaviors were important predictors of outcomes associated with development mastery (e.g., work performance) and adaptation to developmental challenges (e.g., work-family conflict). Further, Kanfer and Ackerman (2004) proposed that “*among older workers, work motivation will be less determined by level of performance achievement and, rather, more determined by judgments of how much effort is required for requisite performance, and the utility of allocating that effort*” (p. 451). With advancing age, individuals increasingly experience functional losses relative to gains. To account for this shift, individuals invest effort in adaptive coping strategies (i.e., SOC behaviors) to re-balance the gain-loss ratio. Over time, individuals apply a specialized and refined set of SOC relevant actions in service of successful development (Baltes & Baltes, 1990).

Empirical studies provide evidence for the moderating role of age in the association between HR practices and commitment. For instance, Conway & Holmes (2004) discovered that broad training aimed at employability was more strongly associated with affective commitment among older employees compared to younger ones. Similarly, Finegold et al. (2002) found that job security

satisfaction was most strongly linked to commitment among older workers, while opportunities for skill development and performance-based salary had a stronger negative relationship with intention to leave among younger individuals. These findings highlight the relevance of commitment-based HR practices in addressing the changing needs of employees across different age groups, including their socioemotional well-being.

According to SST, commitment-based HR practices play a crucial role in addressing employees' socioemotional needs as they age. As individuals prioritize emotional well-being and meaningful relationships, HR practices that promote a supportive work environment, work-life balance, and opportunities for social interaction become increasingly valuable (Carstensen et al., 1999). These practices can enhance employees' socioemotional well-being by fostering positive relationships, reducing stress, and creating a sense of belonging and purpose within the organization. The alignment between commitment-based HR practices and employees' socioemotional needs becomes particularly crucial in later life stages when individuals prioritize these aspects of their lives.

Other earlier studies have also found curvilinear effects of age on the associations between HR practices and commitment (Conway & Holmes, 2004; Finegold et al., 2002). In these studies, the rationale for curvilinear effects of age was based on Super's (1957) career stage model. In this model, employees pass through four stages in their career. First, employees pass through the "trial" stage, in which their primary concerns are to identify their interests and capabilities and to define their professional role or self-image (Ornstein et al., 1989). Subsequently, in the "establishment stage", employees are concerned with moving upward and mastering their identified area of interest. In the subsequent "maintenance stage", employees hold on to their earlier achieved accomplishments and try to maintain their self-concept; and finally, in the "disengagement stage," employees begin to detach from the organization and to develop a new self- image that is independent of career success (Kooij et al. 2010, p. 1115).

Thus, commitment-based HR practices play a significant role in the lifespan theories of SOC and SST. Understanding the changing needs and preferences of employees across different stages of their lifespan is essential for designing effective HR practices. By considering the socioemotional goals emphasized in SST, organizations can develop HR practices that are better aligned

with employees' evolving needs, ultimately promoting higher levels of commitment, job satisfaction, and socioemotional well-being. Since SOC theory and SST address how individuals cope with gains and losses over their lifespan, these theories seem appropriate for formulating hypotheses on the moderating effect of age on the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and employee outcomes.

2.4.1 Facets of commitment-based HR practices

Incentive policies. From a societal perspective, all individuals have basic needs that should be fulfilled, and thus, when the employees are adequately compensated, they feel motivated to come to work and ensure to deliver to the best of their ability. However, most researchers view compensation and incentives as related to extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985). They suggest that providing extrinsic incentives for employees can be counterproductive, because it may diminish the employees' intrinsic motivation, leading to decreased levels of quality-weighted effort and lower net profits for the organization. A meta-analysis by Deci et al. (1999) conducted among young people showed that extrinsic incentives had a tendency to reduce the participants intrinsic motivation for tasks that were in themselves intrinsic motivating. Since financial incentives constitute a very strong explanation for, or help to justify, an activity, the spotlight can be shifted away from how intrinsically motivating or exciting an activity is.

The impact of incentives may vary across different stages in the employees' lifespan due to differences in goals, motivations and career stages. However, the SOC theory acknowledges that incentives can serve as powerful motivators by influencing the choices, efforts and behaviors of individuals (Baltes & Baltes, 1990). In the early stages of their careers, employees may be more focused on selection, as they explore different opportunities and roles to find the right fit. As mentioned, these employees pass through the "trial" stage, in which their primary concerns are to identify their interests and capabilities to define their professional role or self-image (Ornstein et al., 1989). Incentives can play a role in attracting and motivating younger employees by offering benefits and rewards that align with their aspiration and self-image in the organization. This is also further supported by SST, arguing that younger individuals tend to have future-oriented goals, focusing on exploration, personal growth, and social networking

(Carstensen et al., 1999). In contrast, older individuals prioritize emotionally meaningful goals and invest in maintaining close relationships. These age-related shifts in motivational goals may lead to differential responses to incentive policies, potentially moderating the relationship between incentives and intrinsic motivation.

Hypothesis 2a: *There is a positive relationship between incentive policies and intrinsic motivation, and this relationship is stronger for younger individuals.*

Learning and Development policies. Employees in the early stages of their careers have a tendency to prioritize learning and development as they seek to acquire new skills, build a foundation of knowledge, and explore different career paths. It was also argued by Bruner (1966) that intrinsic motivation energizes young people's sustained engagement in learning and development. Based on SOC theory, young employees can selectively choose their career paths and opportunities that align with their abilities and interests, and in so doing, make progress towards their career goals (Carstensen et al., 1999). Optimization enables employees to continuously develop and refine their skills, increasing their employability and promotability. Compensation strategies help individuals adapt to setbacks or obstacles encountered in their progress, allowing them to navigate through challenges. For older employees, their careers have typically been established and they have developed a level of expertise in their field. Thus, their needs and motivations for learning and development will be different (Colquitt et al. 2000).

Hypothesis 2b: *There is a positive relationship between learning and development policies and intrinsic motivation, and this relationship is stronger for younger individuals.*

Autonomy. Empirical research on job design shows that intrinsic motivation increases with the experience of meaning, responsibility and knowledge, and that the sources of these experiences are jobs that require variation in skills, and that provide a basis for task identity and task meaning, in addition to job autonomy and feedback on work performed (Fried & Ferris, 1987;

Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Johns, et al., 1992). Employees with great autonomy have higher affective organizational commitment, higher internal motivation, and they deliver better work performance (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). Organizations play an active role in embedding job autonomy within the organizational environment, as job autonomy without proper supervision can result in goal deviations (Lu et al., 2017). Lastly, research has shown that employees at different levels in the organization have different attitudes and understanding about the concept of job autonomy.

Employees in the early stages of their careers may have a lower level of autonomy as they are still building their skills and knowledge in the organization. They often rely on guidance and direction from supervisors or mentors. SOC theory posits that the relevance and impact of autonomy increases with age (Baltes, 1987). For example, older employees who have acquired a certain level of expertise and an established career will have more autonomy in decision-making, task selection, and work processes. In this “establishment” stage, the need for autonomy is not only important for moving upwards and mastering their identified area of interest, but to give older employees the necessary flexibility to perform tasks according to their competence and experience, which in turn will increase commitment and the feeling that the organization values their contribution.

Hypothesis 2c: *There is a positive relationship between autonomy and intrinsic motivation, and this relationship is stronger for older individuals.*

Perceived Organizational Support. According to SST, individuals' motivations and goals shift as they age, with younger individuals being more focused on acquiring new skills, exploring opportunities, and investing in personal growth (Carstensen et al., 1999). When younger employees perceive their organization as supportive, providing resources, feedback, and opportunities for growth, it can have a positive impact on their intrinsic motivation. This association can be described by the alignment between perceived organizational support and the socioemotional goals of younger individuals. At a younger age, individuals tend to have a broader time perspective and focus on future-oriented goals. The perception of organizational support signals to them that their organization values their development and growth, which enhances their intrinsic motivation to engage in tasks and activities contributing to their personal and

professional advancement (Eisenberger et al., 1986). For older employees, the requirement for support is less in terms of basic skill development, but may seek organizational support for growth opportunities, advancement, and adapting to changing work environments (Meyers et al., 2020).

Hypothesis 2d: *There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and intrinsic motivation, and this relationship is stronger for younger individuals.*

Work-Family spillover. Most research on the balance between work-family has focused on negative spillover, and found that job characteristics such as organizational culture and support, and individual factors (i.e., gender, age, personality traits) are all affecting employees' work-life balance. Organizations that prioritize and support work-life initiatives experience the benefits of increased employee engagement, reduced absenteeism, improved job satisfaction, and higher retention rates. The authors also point out that it is important to recognize that work-family spillover is a complex and individual experience, influenced by various factors beyond age, such as gender, cultural norms, and personal circumstances (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Employees in the early stages of their careers may experience higher levels of work-family spillover as they navigate the demands of establishing their professional identities and managing personal commitments. Older employees may face different work-family challenges compared to younger age groups. They may have increased responsibilities both at work and in their personal lives, such as caring for children or aging parents. According to SOC, younger employees will manage their resources in terms of selection, such as selecting opportunities for skill development and family integration, which can contribute to reducing work-family conflicts for this age group. Optimization becomes more important as employees seek to excel in their careers while maintaining a balance between work and personal life. Older employees may experience different work-family dynamics, such as transitioning into retirement or managing their own well-being (Baltes & Baltes, 1990).

Adams et al. (1996) found that individuals who reported higher levels of work-life balance experienced greater intrinsic motivation in their work. Drawing on the SST, avoiding negative work-life spillover is crucial for promoting intrinsic

motivation among mature or older individuals. These individuals prioritize emotional goals and seek experiences that foster well-being. Achieving a positive work-life spillover allows individuals to allocate time and energy towards activities that align with their emotional goals, leading to increased intrinsic motivation. By attending to their personal lives, maintaining healthy relationships, and engaging in meaningful non-work activities, individuals can experience emotional gratification, which can positively influence their motivation and well-being.

Hypothesis 2e: *There is a negative relationship between work-family spillover and intrinsic motivation, and this relationship is stronger for older individuals.*

2.4 Conceptual model

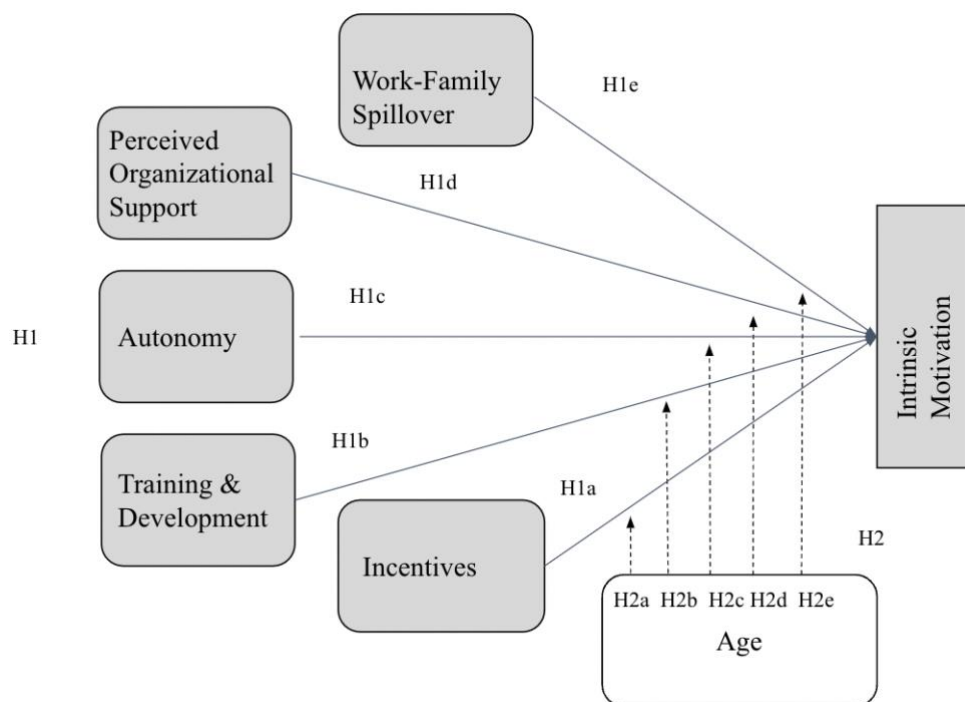


Figure 1. An overview of the conceptual model.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Sampling and procedure

To test our hypotheses, we designed a questionnaire through the online survey platform Qualtrics. The questionnaire was formulated in English as our research questions were not restricted to a specific national setting, and we aimed to distribute the survey to many participants globally. By pretesting our questionnaire, we were able to identify any issues with the wording of questions, the response options, or the overall structure of the survey. We acquired five test subjects from various backgrounds within our target demographic to pretest the measuring items. The feedback we received from the pre-test participants was positive, indicating that the questionnaire was understandable, not vague, and easy to complete. It is important to note that the results from the pretest were not included in the actual results, as it was only intended to gain feedback on the questionnaire items.

Data was collected over a two months period. To ensure a diverse range of participants, we distributed the survey on several online social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, and business forums. We aimed to gather data from a variety of organizations and sectors, and therefore invited more participants to complete the survey by using “Apollo” which allowed us to send personal emails to employees in certain sectors or organizations. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary, and that the project complied with ethical standards for conducting research. Additionally, informed consent was collected in the beginning of the survey where participants were required to read information about the purpose of the study and how their data would be handled (Crow, 2006). We also grouped demographic characteristics into broad categories to prevent any possibility of identifying individuals.

3.2 Participants

In total, we received 383 responses to our survey, which was considered adequate for our research purposes. Using a set of criteria, we removed any responses with missing values or that did not complete the survey. This gave the final number of 217 respondents. The gender distribution among participants was

predominantly male (56.22%), and female (43.78%), with no respondents identifying as "other" (see Appendix 1). Regarding age brackets, the majority of participants fell within the range of 25 to 34 years old (N=72, 33.18%), followed by the age group of 35 to 44 years (N=70, 32.26%). A smaller number of respondents belonged to the age range of 45 to 54 years (N=25, 11.52%), 18 to 24 years (N=21, 9.68%), and 55 to 64 years (N=17, 7.83%). The group aged 65 years and older constituted the smallest segment of respondents (N=12, 5.53%).

Furthermore, out of the total 217 participants, the majority were employed in full-time positions (N=186, 85.71%), while the remaining respondents held part-time positions (N=31, 14.29%). As our survey was not restricted to specific job positions, our study included individuals with varying educational backgrounds. A significant portion of participants held a master's degree or an equivalent level of education (N=121, 55.76%). Those with a bachelor's degree or three years of study comprised the next largest group (N=79, 36.41%), while a smaller number of participants had educational levels below a bachelor's degree (N=9, 4.15%) or higher than a master's degree (N=8, 3.69%).

The majority of respondents reported a service duration of 0-5 years (N=84, 38.71%), followed by 11-15 years (N=52, 23.96%). A smaller proportion of participants indicated service durations of 6-10 years (N=38, 17.51%), while a minority had service durations exceeding 25 years (N=21, 9.68%), 16-20 years (N=14, 6.45%), or 21-25 years (N=8, 3.69%). Regarding industry demographics, the majority of respondents identified as employees in the private sector (N=176, 81.11%), followed by those in the public sector (N=33, 15.21%), while a smaller percentage fell into the "others" category (N=8, 3.69%).

3.3 Measures

To ensure the credibility of our measures, we only utilized previously validated scales, which have been shown to be reliable and valid in previous studies. Moreover, we ensured that all the included scales had a Cronbach's Alpha greater than 0.70. All the items were measured on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Reserved items were scored and coded in reverse to 1 = 5, 2 = 4, 3 = 3, 4 = 2, and 5 = 1. Only two items related to organizational support were coded this way.

3.3.1 Commitment-based HR practices

Incentive policies. This was measured by a four items scale based on prior work of Collin and Smith (2006) on the study of measuring a commitment-based approach to HR. Procedures used by Delery (1998) and by MacDuffie (1995) were used in the theoretical development of these measures of commitment-based HR practices from a set of commitment-based HR practices focused on training and development, compensation, and selection practice items. Although the items reflected three subdimensions of commitment-based HR practices, they found support for a single commitment-based HR factor, which was labeled “commitment-based HR practices” (Collin & Smith, 2006, p. 550). The four items measuring incentive policies addressed organizational performance or collective-based incentive plans, general salaries and stock purchase plans. One sample item is “*Employee bonuses or incentive plans are based primarily on the performance of the organization*”.

Training and development policies. This scale is based on the same work of Collin and Smith (2006), and contains eight items addressing career-, social- and personal development of employees in the organization. For example, “*My organization offers career development that enables employees to move across different functions in the organization*”, “*My organization sponsors social events for employees so that they can get to know each other better*”, and “*Feedback systems (e.g., employee interviews) are mainly used with the aim of setting goals for the employees’ personal development*”.

Autonomy. Since the definition of autonomy often includes different aspects in work settings, we used the scale developed by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) that measured three aspects of autonomy. Work scheduling autonomy ($\alpha = 0.85$) was measured by three items such as “*The job allows me to plan how I do the work*”. Decision-making autonomy ($\alpha = 0.85$) was also measured by three items, and one sample item is “*The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work*”. Lastly, work methods autonomy ($\alpha = 0.88$) included three items such as “*The job allows me to make decisions about what methods to use to complete my work*”.

Perceived organizational support. An eight items scale used by Rhoades et al. (2001) measured the perceived organizational support in our study. Example items include “*My organization strongly considered my goals and values*”. This scale included two reversed items “*If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me*” and “*My organization shows little concern for me*”.

Work-Family spillover. Four distinct dimensions of work-family spillover were measured by 16 items (4 for each dimension) used by Grzywacs and Marks (2000) with a reliability score of 0.86. Negative spillover from work to family included items such as “*Your activities reduce the effort you can give activities at home*”. Positive spillover from work to family was assessed with items such as “*The things you do at work help you deal with personal and practical issues at home*”. Negative spillover from family to work was measured with items like “*Personal or family worries distract you when you are at work*”. Positive spillover from family to work included items such as “*Providing for what is needed at home makes you work harder at your job*”.

3.3.2 Intrinsic motivation

A six items scale was used to measure intrinsic motivation based on previous work used by Kuvaas (2006), and Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009). One sample item in this scale includes “*Sometimes I become so inspired by my job that I almost forget everything else around me*”. The Cronbach's alpha for each item ranges from 0.72 to 0.88 (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009). We chose to measure intrinsic motivation as the dependent variable due to its profound impact and relatedness to other employee outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee performance, and turnover-intentions) (Combs et al. 2006; Jiang et al. 2012; Guest, 2017).

3.3.3 Age

For this study, age is operationalized as the calendar age of the participants in the sample. However, since we have chosen to use age brackets when collecting the data on participant's age, we are treating these as continuous variables. The age brackets were coded as 1 (18-24), 2 (25-34), 3 (35-44), 4 (45-54), 5 (55-64), and 6 (65+). This is also in line with the lifespan development perspective which asserts that rather than place individuals into “generations” and labeling these

different groups, age should be treated as a continuous variable throughout their lifespan (Rudolph, et al., 2017).

3.3.4 Control variables

The six demographic variables collected in the study were age, gender, education level, length of service in the organization, industry, and type of employment. The demographic questions chosen were based on previous research that included the same variables in studies on HR-practices and employee outcomes (e.g., Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Kuvaas, 2007; Kuvaas, 2008; Boon et al., 2011). Further, the control variables were grouped into broad categories. For example, age was grouped into approximately 10-year intervals, and length of service in the organization was grouped into five-year intervals.

3.4 Statistical analysis

We used the statistical program IBM SPSS 29.0.0.0 to explain, summarize, and evaluate the data collected in the questionnaire. Due to the mismatch between the total number of items in the questionnaire and the final number of respondents (N=217), we were not able to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis for this data. However, each of the items in the questionnaire were selected from previously researched and validated scales with a reliability score of above 0.7.

First, we retrieved the descriptive statistics for our dataset in order to obtain more comprehensive information, and utilized Pearson's correlation coefficient to check for correlation between all the variables in our study. Then, we assessed measures of internal reliability by computing Cronbach's alpha for each of the variables. There is a general consensus to have Cronbach's alpha scores above .70 or .80, although lower scores can be seen as sufficient (Kline, 1999, as cited in Field, 2018, p. 823). Further, we tested for skewness in our data by checking for homoscedasticity and normality, creating a scatter plot and P-P normality plot of the regression analysis. The plots showed good results for both homoscedasticity and normality (see Appendix 3). This means that there is an equal or similar variances across all the values of the independent variables we measured, and that it follows a normal distribution.

We also made sure to retrieve the collinearity diagnostics from the regression analysis to test for multicollinearity. The output showed that the VIF values were below 10 (ranged between 1.048 and 2.593), and the collinearity tolerance value scores were between 0.386 and 0.944, indicating no issues with multicollinearity (Field, 2018).

We used a hierarchical moderated regression analysis to test for direct (linear) and moderating (curvilinear) effects of age on the relationship between facets of commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation. The analysis is performed in several steps, which tests several models in a hierarchical manner. First, we test the linear model (direct effect) of the independent variables on the dependent (model 1). Then, the moderating variables are entered in a subsequent step to assess its impact on the relationship between the independent on the dependent variable (model 2, 3 and 4). By using hierarchical moderated regression analysis, we can gain insights into how the effects of an independent variable on the dependent variable changes based on the presence or values of a moderating variable. This helps explore the conditions under which the relationship is strengthened, weakened, or altered.

4.0 Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics and correlations

The descriptive statistics, correlations and scale reliability is shown in Table 1. The Cronbach's alpha values are displayed in parentheses on the diagonal, and based on these results we can see that most of our variables indicate a high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.86$ for training and development policies, $\alpha = 0.93$ for autonomy, $\alpha = 0.82$ for organizational support, $\alpha = 0.86$ for work-family spillover, and $\alpha = 0.88$ for intrinsic motivation). The only exception was incentive policies, which showed a value of $\alpha = 0.68$. While the general consensus regarding acceptable Cronbach's alpha levels is 0.70, lower levels can also be considered adequate. Thus, we decided to include this variable in the analysis as we decided that the value was not substantially far from 0.70 and can therefore be considered adequate in our analysis.

Table 1 also shows that the correlations between all the measured independent variables were positive and significant with the intrinsic motivation, our dependent variable. Incentive policies ($\beta = 0.42$), training and development

policies ($\beta = 0.55$), autonomy ($\beta = 0.65$), and organizational support ($\beta = 0.54$) showed a significance on the 1% level ($p < 0.001$), while work-family spillover ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.02$) showed a significance on the 5% level ($p < 0.05$). For the independent variables, only incentive policies ($\beta = 0.56, 0.29, 0.32, 0.27, 0.42$, $p < 0.001$), and training and development policies ($\beta = 0.37, 0.50, 0.21, 0.55$, $p < 0.001$) showed positive and significant relationships with all the other facets on a 1% level. Autonomy showed no significant correlation with work-family spillover ($\beta = 0.05$), and work-family spillover showed a negative correlation with organizational support ($\beta = -0.05$). The negative correlation between work-family spillover and organizational support might not be surprising, as it indicates that when employees experience some degree of work-family spillover, they also experience reduced support from their organization. Also, when employees have a high degree of autonomy, they might not experience issues with work-family spillover due to the nature of flexibility that comes with high degree of autonomy. In other words, there is no significant linear relationship between the two variables.

For the control variables, only age ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.03$) and type of employment ($\beta = -0.21$, $p < 0.002$) were shown to have a significant impact on the dependent variable. Gender, educational level, and industry, however, were shown to have a negative correlation with intrinsic motivation (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Descriptive statistics, correlations, and scale reliabilities.*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
(1) Age	2.91	1.28	—											
(2) Gender	1.56	—	0.17*	—										
(3) Education level	2.59	0.63	0.001	-0.07	—									
(4) Length of service	2.48	1.59	0.72**	0.27**	0.008	—								
(5) Industry	1.23	0.50	0.24**	0.13*	-0.16*	0.17**	—							
(6) Type of employment	1.14	0.35	-0.32**	0.04	0.03	-0.26**	0.07	—						
(7) Incentive policies	3.19	0.79	-0.05	0.06	0.02	0.06	0.05	-0.11	(0.68)					
(8) Training and development	3.54	0.73	0.03	0.02	-0.04	0.06	0.03	-0.10	0.56**	(0.86)				
(9) Autonomy	3.73	0.80	0.12	-0.01	-0.04	-0.04	-0.02	-0.13*	0.29**	0.37**	(0.93)			
(10) Organizational support	3.50	0.68	-0.04	-0.10	-0.06	-0.12	-0.03	-0.03	0.32**	0.50**	0.51**	(0.82)		
(11) Work-family spillover	3.21	0.59	0.04	-0.11	-0.03	0.11	0.04	-0.17*	0.27**	0.21**	0.05	-0.05	(0.86)	
(12) Intrinsic motivation	3.66	0.78	0.14*	-0.03	-0.05	0.07	-0.06	-0.21**	0.42**	0.55**	0.65**	0.54**	0.15*	(0.88)

Note: N = 217. Cronbach's alpha values are displayed in parentheses on the diagonal.

* p is significant at the 0.05 level

** p is significant at the 0.01 level

4.2 Hierarchical Moderated regression analysis

The first step of the hierarchical moderated analysis tested the linear relationships between the facets of commitment-based HR practices with intrinsic motivation (see Table 2). Here, we also included all the control variables, however, only age and length of service in the organization were shown to have positive correlation with intrinsic motivation, although the correlations were substantially weak and showed no significance ($\beta = 0.05$ for both age and length of service in the organization). For the other control variables, the results showed negative correlations with intrinsic motivation. This model also showed that training and development policies ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.001$), and autonomy ($\beta = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$), were significant at the 1% level, while organizational support ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.002$) were significant at the 5% level. The effect size (R^2) was reported to be 0.591, which indicates that 59% of the linear relationships between the facets of commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation can be explained by this model. Additionally, the model had an F-value of 26.87, which was significant at the 1% level. This indicates that the model is valid and can be used to predict intrinsic motivation to a certain degree.

The second step in the hierarchical moderated regression analysis included the moderator variable in testing the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. To test the moderator effect, however, we first needed to create the interaction term for each of the independent variables. This was done by multiplying the mean-value of the independent variable with the moderating variable to create the interaction term (i.e., incentive policies \times age). This gave us five interaction terms, one for each of the independent variables: *Int1* (incentive policies \times age), *Int2* (training and development policies \times age), *Int3* (autonomy \times age), *Int4* (organizational support \times age), and *Int5* (work-family spillover \times age). When we introduced all of the interaction terms in the regression analysis, we found that only autonomy ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.009$), and organizational support ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.36$) were significant. The model also reported an R^2 score of 0.594, which indicates an R^2 -change of 0.003. Lastly, the F-value for this model was 18.291 and significant at the 1% level. Based on these values, the model can be seen as valid and able to predict intrinsic motivation to a certain degree. However, this model showed extreme VIF-values ranging from 1.096 to 114.315.

When we analyze each interaction (moderator) effect by itself, we have no issues with collinearity. However, when we analyze them together, we get a worse model. This is often the case when we introduce interaction effects in the linear regression model, due to the fact that linear terms may be highly correlated with the interaction terms.

4.2.1 Additional analyses

In addition to the above hypothesis-testing procedures, two additional analyses were conducted to supplement our findings. First, we performed a *backward elimination* method which involves gradually eliminating variables from the full regression model to find a reduced model that better fits, or explains the data (see Step 3 in Table 2). We started with eliminating *Int2* (VIF = 76.708), then *Int5* (VIF = 58.576), and *Int3* (VIF = 48.902), and lastly *Int4* (VIF = 35.292). After the gradual elimination, we were left with model 3 showing that *Int1* has a significant impact on training and development policies ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.001$), autonomy ($\beta = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$), and organizational support ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.002$), and that age moderates the relationship between incentives and intrinsic motivation (see Table 2). However, *Int1* is negatively correlated with the dependent variable, intrinsic motivation ($\beta = -0.13$). The R^2 was reported to be 0.591, which indicates a zero percent R^2 -change from that of the linear model (model 1). This model also showed an F-value of 24.588, which was significant at the 1% level.

Second, we also tested each interaction effect individually to see if we could find similar results with other facets. As mentioned previously, when we analyze each interaction effect by itself, we have found no issues with collinearity. From this analysis (see Step 4 in Table 2) we found that *Int5* had the same impact on training and development policies ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.001$), autonomy ($\beta = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$), and organizational support ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.002$) as *Int1*. However, *Int5* was also shown to correlate negatively with intrinsic motivation ($\beta = -0.28$). This model showed an R^2 of 0.592, which indicates a 0.001 R^2 -change from the linear model. It also showed a F-value of 24.662, which was significant at the 1% level.

In sum, we found similar R^2 values for all of the models (highest reported R^2 -change was 4% from model 1 to model 2) and they were all shown to be significant at the 1% level. However, model 2 showed less correlation and significance with the independent variables. Thus, we concluded that this model

would be the least suitable for predicting and explaining the relationship between facets of commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation. Although the model was significant at the 1% level and the R^2 was higher than the other models, we found that this is often the case when you introduce multiple interaction effects in the linear regression model, due to the fact that linear terms are highly correlated with the interaction terms. Therefore, there is no evidence to support this model based on logical reasoning and previous theory.

Table 2: Regression results testing the direct and moderation models.

Model and variable	Intrinsic motivation			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age	0.05	0.43	0.16	0.31
Gender	-0.03	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03
Education level	-0.02	-0.03	-0.02	-0.02
Length of service	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
Industry	-0.07	-0.08	-0.07	-0.07
Type of employment	-0.06	-0.07	-0.06	-0.06
Incentive policies	0.09	0.12	0.15	0.09
Training and development policies	0.22***	0.20	0.22***	0.22***
Autonomy	0.43***	0.37**	0.43***	0.43***
Organizational support	0.18**	0.29*	0.18**	0.18**
Work-Family spillover	0.05	0.14	0.05	0.15
Incentive policies x age (<i>Int1</i>)		-0.05	-0.13	
Training and development policies x age (<i>Int2</i>)		0.05		
Autonomy x age (<i>Int3</i>)		0.11		
Organizational support x age (<i>Int4</i>)		-0.26		
Work-Family spillover x age (<i>Int5</i>)		-0.25		-0.28
ΔR^2		0.003	0.000	0.001
R^2	0.591	0.594	0.591	0.592
F	26.878***	18.291***	24.588***	24.662***

Note: N = 217. Standardized coefficients (β) are shown. * p is significant at the 0.05 level, ** p is significant at the 0.01 level, *** p is significant at the 0.001 level. Dependent variable = Intrinsic motivation.

5.0 Discussion

The overall aim of this study was to examine the relationship between facets of commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation, and the moderating role of age in these relationships. We presented two main conflicting hypotheses, drawing on the vast literature supporting the universal impact of commitment-based HR practices for Hypothesis 1, and other research that found support for differences in individual traits for Hypothesis 2. In line with the existing body of knowledge on commitment-based HR practices and employee outcomes, our findings found support for Hypothesis 1 on the universal benefits of these practices regardless of age differences. The findings also showed support for the sub-hypothesis 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d where each of these facets revealed a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation. This contradicts the idea that the effectiveness of commitment-based HR practices varies depending on where individuals are in their lifespan. For hypothesis 1e, we also found a positive relationship between work-family spillover and intrinsic motivation. This is contrary to our initial expectations as we hypothesized a negative relationship between these variables.

Although we also found correlations for hypothesis 2b, 2c, and 2e, these correlations were substantially weak and showed no significance to further support these. Finally, our findings also showed that age moderated the relationship between incentive policies and intrinsic motivation, as well as work-family spillover and intrinsic motivation. However, these results showed the same values as the universal model. Overall, these findings can have important implications for the research on commitment-based HR and employee outcomes, which will be discussed below.

5.1 Theoretical implications

There are several implications that can be drawn from our study. First, our findings are consistent with results from previous research. This strengthens the argument that there exists a significant and positive relationship between commitment-based HR practices and employee outcomes, and that the impact is generally stronger for linear relationships than moderating relationships, especially in the case of intrinsic motivation. As such, commitment-based HR practices that are implemented as a collective, internally consistent system will have a more beneficial impact on employee outcomes than a fragmented approach

(Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020; Collin & Smith, 2006; Arthur, 1994; Combs et al., 2006). Thus, organizations regardless of sector and industry should view commitment-based HR practices as designed to work together in an integrated manner. For example, training and development policies can align with career development programs, incentive policies can support employee involvement and participation and positive work-family spillover can enhance employee intrinsic motivation. When implemented as a whole system, these practices can reinforce and complement each other, creating a synergistic effect. It can also ensure comprehensive coverage of various aspects of employee outcomes and performance.

Second, contrary to our initial expectations and the theoretical framework we employed, we found no support for a significant moderating role of age in the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation. This is surprising, as the lifespan perspective in line with SOC theory and SST highlights the individual differences in management of resources and goal attainment based on where individuals are in their lifespan (Baltes & Baltes, 1990; Lang & Carstensen, 2002). Previous findings by Kooij et al. (2010) showed that calendar age had a significant moderating effect on almost 42 percent of the associations investigated between the high commitment-based HR practices and work-related attitudes. However, this study investigated affective commitment as an employee outcome, while our study examined these relationships in relation to intrinsic motivation. Young individuals in the early stage of their careers may not experience the degree of affective commitment as older employees who have been in the organization for a long time and could therefore have a moderating effect on the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and affective commitment. In contrast, both young and older employees can experience the same level of intrinsic motivation towards their job as long as the conditions are right for it (Sirota et al., 2005; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). Thus, age may not have a significant moderating effect on this relationship.

According to our findings for each of the facets, we see that incentive policies have a positive linear correlation with intrinsic motivation for all of the models. However, none of these relationships were significant, which further supports the notion that employees consistently report that intrinsic motives are more important than extrinsic motives across a variety of cultures and industries (e.g., Sheldon et al. 2001). The moderated relationship showed negative

correlations with incentive policies and age for intrinsic motivation, contradicting hypothesis 2a. One potential explanation for the unexpected results could be the specific context in which our study was conducted. It is possible that the participants in our sample, regardless of their age, did not perceive the incentive policies provided by their respective organizations as truly impactful or meaningful in enhancing their intrinsic motivation. According to SOC theory, incentives can serve as powerful motivators by influencing choices, efforts and behaviors of individuals (Baltes & Baltes, 1990). Especially for younger individuals who focus on selection of different opportunities and roles that align with their identity towards the organization. One can assume that this would extend to incentive policies in the organization, however, other research has shown that external incentives have a tendency to reduce participants intrinsic motivation in tasks that are themselves intrinsic motivating for young individuals (e.g., Deci et al., 1999). This could be one reason for the lack of support for hypothesis 2a.

For training and development policies, our findings showed positive correlations with intrinsic motivation across all models. However, the correlation for the moderating effect of age was significantly smaller than the linear relationships. This is interesting, as SOC theory and SST posits that younger individuals often prioritize learning and development as they seek to acquire new skills, build a foundation of knowledge, and explore different career paths than older employees (Colquitt et al. 2000). It could be that in the contemporary business environment, employees regardless of age recognize the need for and importance of continuous training and development in order to become or remain a skilled worker for the organization.

For autonomy, our findings also showed positive and significant correlations with intrinsic motivation across all models, and that the moderating effect of age was significantly smaller than the linear relationships. As mentioned previously, employees with great autonomy have higher affective organizational commitment, higher internal motivation, and they deliver better work performance (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). However, it is common that older employees have a higher degree of autonomy due to their experience and demonstrated competence than younger employees who are in the early stages of their careers. This weak correlation may be due to a number of factors. For instance, empirical research on job design shows that intrinsic motivation increases with the experience of

meaning, responsibility, and knowledge, and that the sources of these experiences are jobs that require variation in skills, and that provide a basis for task identity and task meaning, in addition to job autonomy and feedback on work performed (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Johns, Xie & Fang, 1992). Thus, it seems that employees' level of intrinsic motivation in relation to autonomy may be connected to the experience of meaning and responsibility towards their job, and this is regardless of age.

For organizational support, our findings showed positive and significant correlations across all models for the linear relationships. The moderated relationship showed negative correlations with organizational support and age for intrinsic motivation, contradicting hypothesis 2d. This indicates that an increase in organizational support may lead to a decrease in employees' intrinsic motivation when employees age is considered. Based on research from Meyer et al. (2020), it could be that older employees who typically have more experience and expertise, may already possess high levels of intrinsic motivation from their mastery of skills and enjoyment that derive from their work. As such, excessive organizational support might be perceived as unnecessary or intrusive, leading to a negative relationship with intrinsic motivation. Another factor can be individual preferences, as each employee can have unique preferences and needs when it comes to organizational support.

For work-family spillover, we found positive correlations across all models for the linear relationships. However, none of these correlations were shown to be statistically significant. This is perhaps one of the most surprising findings in our study and contradicts hypothesis 1e stating a negative relationship between work-family spillover and intrinsic motivation. A positive correlation could indicate a positive work-family spillover, as argued by Grzywacs and Marks (2000) where an increased positive work-family spillover can lead to an increase in intrinsic motivation for employees regardless of age. For instance, when work-family spillover occurs, it can reinforce the perception that their work is important and valuable, leading to increased intrinsic motivation. However, when we look at the moderated relationship, we see a negative correlation for work-family spillover and age on intrinsic motivation. This indicates that an increase in work-family spillover may lead to a decrease in employees' intrinsic motivation when employees age is considered. With age often comes added family and caregiving responsibilities, which can increase their personal workload and create role

conflicts. The additional stress and strain associated with managing multiple responsibilities can reduce intrinsic motivation towards work.

Lastly, the moderation of age on the relationship between incentive policies and intrinsic motivation and work-family spillover and intrinsic motivation showed the same values as the universal model. This indicates that there could be some aspects regarding age that moderates this relationship, and we cannot with certainty state that the observed effect did not occur because of random errors or other confounding variables. Looking at the number of participants who did not complete our survey (166 participants opted out), one reason that we did not find similar results to previous research based on SOC theory and SST could be that our survey was too long or that participants did not respond correctly. As we included many facets of commitment-based HR practices, each measured with scales that included several items (49 items in total), could potentially have been perceived as too strenuous for our participants. Moreover, it is worth considering the possibility of a "ceiling effect" in our study. It is conceivable that the participants already possessed high levels of intrinsic motivation, irrespective of the presence or absence of incentive policies or work-family spillover. In such a scenario, any potential influence of these factors on intrinsic motivation might have been overshadowed by the already high baseline levels of motivation among the participants.

5.2 Practical implications

From a practical perspective, it can be encouraging that age does not seem to have a moderating role in the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation. The findings highlight the importance of treating the facets of commitment-based HR as an integrated and collective system in organizational practices (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2020). For leaders and HR managers, this suggests that an internally consistent system is more appropriate and will lead to better outcomes than if the specific practices were tailored to fit where employees are in their lifespan. This can be cost-efficient and reduce resources needed by the organization to maintain these practices long-term. As such, organizations should be aware of the importance of implementing commitment-based HR practices and the positive employee outcomes associated

with these practices, especially since employees are an essential source of competitive advantage in today's business environment (Ferris et al. 1999).

The findings emphasize the need for organizations to incorporate the consistent and equal application of commitment-based HR practices across different employee age groups. By eliminating age-related biases and ensuring equal access to these practices, organizations can create an inclusive and supportive work environment. For instance, organizations should introduce policies and initiatives that promote work-life balance, flexible work arrangements, and support employees in managing their work and personal responsibilities effectively, in order to reduce work-family spillover and enhance intrinsic motivation among employees, regardless of their age or career stage. Organizations should also be aware of other conditions that can reduce or enhance employees' intrinsic motivation other than commitment-based HR practices. This can be achieved through actions such as demonstrating care and understanding, providing resources and assistance beyond work-related matters, and offering opportunities for personal and professional growth. Lastly, while individual characteristics may affect the association between employee's perception of these practices and work-related attitudes at the individual level (e.g., Kooij et al., 2010), the overall findings show that there is a significant and positive relationship between commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation regardless of age.

5.3 Strength, limitations, and future research

One of the main strengths in this study is the high internal consistency reliability and previously validated items and scales used in our survey. This reduces the potential of common method bias (Doty & Glick, 1998). By using "Apollo" to contact participants, we were able to target more employees in organizations with established HR practices. Additionally, we reached out to our personal network and utilized open platforms such as LinkedIn to make sure our sample included a more diverse range of participants from various industries, organizational sizes, and cultural backgrounds. This increases the external validity and generalizability of our results. It is important to note that the use of online platforms for data collection has become increasingly common in recent years due to the ease of use and accessibility. However, it is also essential to consider

potential biases that may arise from self-selection and non-response, which can affect the generalizability of the findings (Dillman et al., 2014). To minimize such biases, we ensured that our survey was distributed widely and not limited to any particular group or sector, and we encouraged participation from a diverse range of individuals. This approach aimed to enhance the representativeness of our sample.

Our sample size was 217 respondents, which is considered a decent size for our study (Field, 2018). Lastly, by conducting a moderation analysis, we were able to compare the effect of our moderating variable against the direct effects of commitment-based HR practices. According to Hayes (2017), moderation analysis is useful in understanding the conditions for which variable most accurately predicts a result. The value of this analysis is further supported by Hall and Rosenthal (1991), who contend that moderation studies are the core of all scientific research.

To capture the dynamic nature of commitment-based HR practices and their impact over time, future research could adopt longitudinal design or conduct two surveys at different points in time. Since our study only collected data at a single point in time, this can be considered a limitation as more measures on various points in time could enhance the understanding of changes in the population (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2011). While our study employed quantitative methods, future research could incorporate qualitative approaches, such as interviews or focus groups, to gain in-depth insights into employees' experiences and perceptions of commitment-based HR practices across different stages of their lifespan. Qualitative research would offer a more holistic understanding of the subjective experiences and nuances associated with these practices. Another limitation lies in the operationalization and measurement of commitment-based HR practices and intrinsic motivation. Employing multiple methods and data sources, such as objective performance measures or supervisor ratings, alongside self-report measures would enhance the validity of the findings.

The use of Likert-scales and age-brackets can also be considered a limitation in this study. Future research should measure the true age of participants instead of letting participants choose age brackets and use scale items in order to conduct a Relative Importance analysis on the variable level. This approach would provide insights into the specific commitment-based HR practices that have the greatest impact on employee outcomes across different age groups

and stages of the lifespan. Conducting such analysis would help identify the key drivers of positive employee outcomes, enabling organizations to optimize their HR strategies and develop evidence-based practices that align with employees needs and preferences throughout their careers (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011).

Furthermore, future studies can investigate other facets of commitment-based HR than we presented in this study, such as performance appraisals, feedback, rewards, and recognition can be further investigated. One limitation with our chosen facets is related to work-family spillover, as this facet might not be considered a commitment-based HR practice in itself, but rather a measure related to employee outcomes, indicating that policies aimed at reducing work-family spillover can have positive employee outcomes (Batt & Valcour, 2003).

Lastly, while our study examined age as a moderator, other variables and factors may interact with commitment-based HR practices and influence employee outcomes. Future research could explore additional moderators, such as job position, tenure, gender, or individual personalities to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the complexities surrounding the relationship between commitment-based HR practices and employee outcomes.

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Appendix

Appendix 1: Demographics

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-24	21	9.7
25-34	72	33.2
35-44	70	32.3
45-54	25	11.5
55-64	17	7.8
65+	12	5.5
Total	217	100

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	95	43.8
Female	122	56.2
Total	217	100

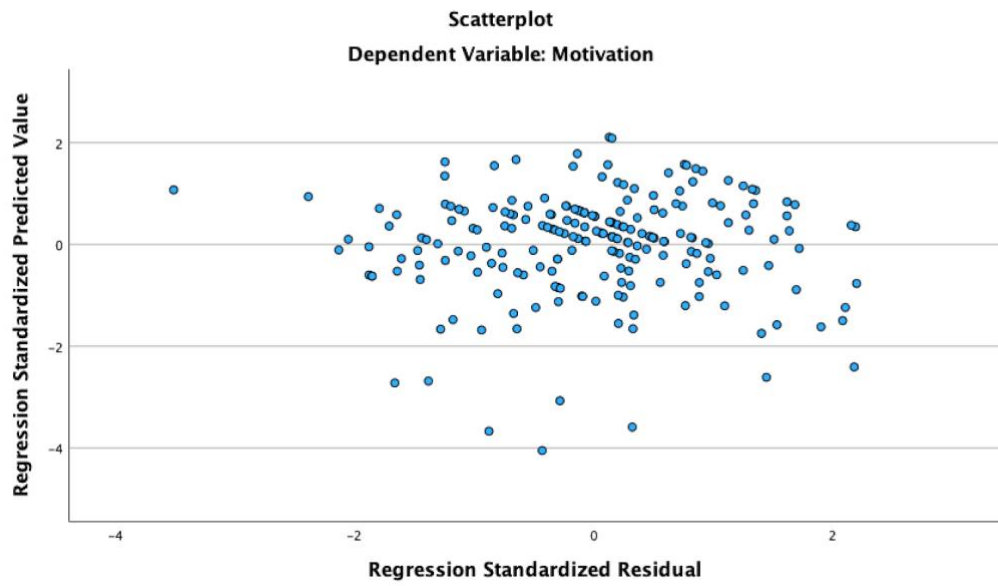
Education level	Frequency	Percent
Below bachelor level	9	4.1
Bachelor level (3 years)	79	36.4
Master level (5 years)	121	55.8
Above master level	8	3.7
Total	217	100

Length of service in organization	Frequency	Percent
0-5 years	84	38.7
6-10 years	38	17.5
11-15 years	52	24
16-20 years	14	6.5
21-25 years	8	3.7
> 25 years	21	9.7
Total	217	100

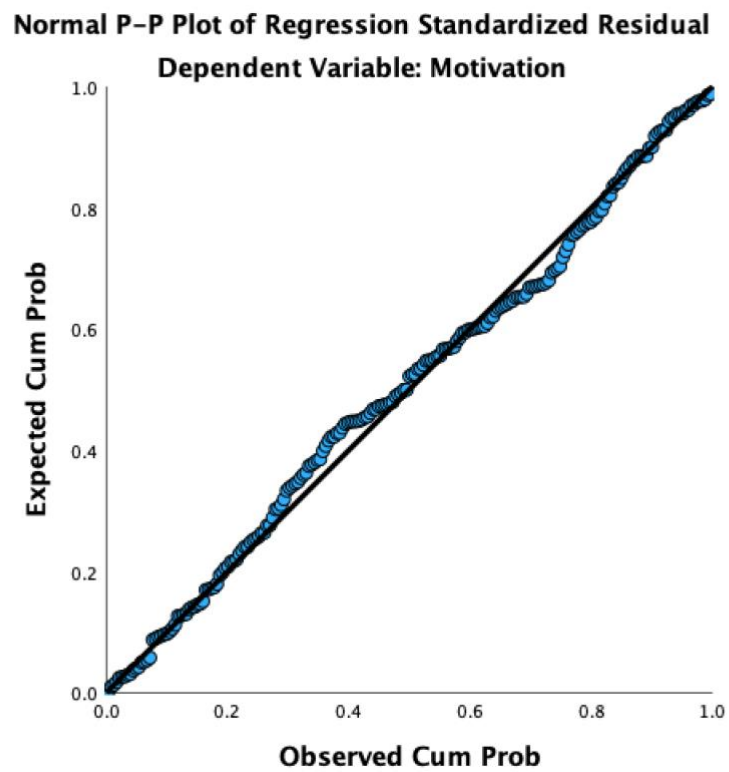
Industry	Frequency	Percent
Private	176	81.1
Public	33	15.2
Other	8	3.7
Total	217	100

Type of employment	Frequency	Percent
Fulltime	186	85.7
Part-time	31	14.3
Total	217	100

Appendix 2: Test for homoscedasticity – Scatter plot



Appendix 3: Test for normality – Normal P-P plot



Appendix 4: Survey

Selection Policies

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Internal candidates are given consideration over external candidates for job openings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We select employees based on an overall fit to the company	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our selection system focuses on the potential of the candidate to learn and grow with the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We ensure that all employees in these positions are made aware of internal promotion opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Incentive Policies

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Employee bonuses or incentive plans are based primarily on the performance of the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Salaries for employees are higher than those of our competitors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shares of stock are available to all core employees through stock purchase plans	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The goals of our incentive systems are based on collective results (the organization's or departments' results)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Training and Development Policies

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My organization offers career development that enables employees to move across different functions in the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization offers training that focuses on collaboration and team-based skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization sponsors social events for employees so that they can get to know each other better	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization offers induction programs for new employees so they can learn about the organization's history and processes and procedures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization uses job rotation schemes to expand our employees' skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization has mentoring schemes to develop our employees	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feedback systems (e.g. employee interviews) are mainly used with the aim of setting goals for the employees' personal development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feedback systems (e.g. employee interviews) are used for planning skills development and training with a view to a further career in the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Autonomy

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job allows me to decide on the order in which things are done on the job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job allows me to plan how I do the work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job provides me with significant autonomy in making decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job allows me to make decisions about what methods to use to complete my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job allows me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Organizational support

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My organization really cares about my well-being	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization strongly considers my goals and values	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization shows little concern for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization cares about my opinions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help is available from the organization when I have a problem	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Work-Family Spillover

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Your job makes you feel too tired to do the things that need attention at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stress at work makes you irritable at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Job worries or problems distract you when you are at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your job reduces the effort you can give to activities at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal or family worries and problems distract you when you are at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stress at home makes you irritable at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Activities and chores at home prevent you from getting the amount of sleep you need to do your job well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Responsibilities at home reduce the effort you can devote to your job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The love and respect you get at home makes you feel confident about yourself at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your home life helps you relax and feel ready for the next day's work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Talking with someone at home helps you deal with problems at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Providing for what is needed at home makes you work harder at your job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having a good day on your job makes you a better companion when you get home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The things you do at work help you deal with personal and practical issues at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The things you do at work make you a more interesting person at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The skills you use on your job are useful for things you have to do at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following statements are about your motivation towards your job. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree to the statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The tasks that I do at work are themselves representing a driving power in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The tasks I do at work are enjoyable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job is meaningful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job is very exciting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job is so interesting that it is a motivation in itself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes I become so inspired by my job that I almost forget everything else around me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>