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DEVELOPMENT AND CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

City University of New York PH.D. 1987

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DEVELOPMENT AND CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

by

MARK JOHN SOMERS

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Business in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York.

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Abstract

DEVELOPMENT AND CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

by

Mark John Somers

Advisor: Professor Joel Lefkowitz

Hypothesized antecedents and consequences of three types of organizational commitment--calculative, affective and moral--were investigated. As hypothesized, calculative commitment was associated with investments in the organization. Results regarding predictors of affective and moral commitment were less clear and less in line with hypothesized relationships.

With regard to consequences, calculative and affective commitment were related to intent to retain organizational membership, and affective commitment was associated with affective work outcomes (job and organizational satisfaction).

Suggestions for future research and the limitations of the study were also discussed.

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CHAPTER I:

INTRODUCTION

Organizational commitment has received considerable attention as an influence on task performance, work behaviors, and work attitudes. Although organizational commitment appears to be distinct from other work attitudes (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979), there is little agreement about what commitment is or how it should be measured. Claims that committed employees are more productive and loyal than are non-committed employees have yet to be documented adequately, and while enthusiasm for these claims is high, evidence is scarce and unconvincing.

Researchers have been interested in antecedents of commitment, and to a lesser extent, have studied its consequences (Buchanan, 1974; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Kanter, 1968; Steers, 1977; Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978). In general, research has proceeded in two directions: the study of commitment as a behavior; and the study of commitment as an attitude. The behavioral view is focused on the development of consistent lines of activity such that future behavioral alternatives become

constrained (Salancik, 1977), while the attitudinal perspective is focused on commitment as a dispositional state (cf. Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974).

This study is concerned with the development and consequences of attitudinal commitment. Within the attitudinal perspective, three distinct forms of commitment have been suggested: calculative-instrumental, affective, and normative (Kanter, 1968; Wiener, 1980). Calculative commitment refers to an instrumental attachment to an organization governed by the perceived value of rewards vs. costs incurred, and by what is available elsewhere (Becker, 1960; March & Simon, 1958). Affective commitment refers to an emotional attachment to an organization and is characterized by person-organization identification (Patchen, 1970; Rotondi, 1975). Finally, normative commitment refers to a value-based attachment to an organization stemming from a sense of duty and from person-organization value congruence (Kanter, 1968; Wiener, 1982).

Briefly, this study is concerned with the antecedents and consequences of each "type" of dispositional commitment and with potential interrelationships among them. Of particular interest is the notion of a progression of attachment to

organizations governed first by rewards, then by affiliative satisfaction, and finally by values.

CHAPTER II.:

DEFINITION AND MEANING OF COMMITMENT

Definition

There is little agreement about what commitment is or about how it develops. The varied treatments of the concept, however, represent attempts to account for the fact that people "engage in consistent lines of activity" (Becker, 1960 p. 32). Present definitions fall into two broad categories: behavioral and attitudinal.

Commitment as a behavior. Behavioral commitment is defined as "the binding of the individual to behavioral acts" (Kiesler and Sakumura, 1966 p. 124). Commitment occurs when an individual identifies with a particular behavior such that future behavior is constrained (Salancik, 1977). That is, an action leads to expectations about future actions, thus limiting behavioral possibilities. To illustrate: acting in a friendly manner toward a particular person precludes (or limits) hostile responses, as they are not consistent with prior acts or with the expectations these acts created.

Behavior is, therefore, thought to mold perceptions and expectations, and to constrain future behavior.

Following Bem (1967), behavioral theorists have suggested that attitudes are inferred from behavior such that they are consistent with it, but it must be remembered that it is behavior, and not attitudes that bind. And from a behavioral perspective, it is behaviors, "visible indicators of what we are and what we are doing", which are committed (Salancik, 1977 p. 63).

Commitment as an attitude. Attitude theorists view commitment as a dispositional state; as an internalized, enduring attribute which affects other attitudes, and behavior. In contrast to the behavioral model (which is focused on the process of becoming bound to a course of action), attitude theorists have focused on becoming bound to an object; the intrapsychic state labelled commitment representing the person-object bond.

There is considerable confusion, however, about the properties of the intrapsychic state. More simply, no one is quite sure what commitment is. Many writers have viewed commitment as an affective state--as an emotional bond between the person and the organization (Brown, 1972; Patchen, 1970), but there is still some confusion about what an affective attachment is. Others have defined commitment in calculative-instrumental terms based on the perceived rewards and costs associated with

continued organization membership (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; March and Simon, 1958). Although this definition is clear enough, even these writers seem to suggest that commitment is something more than this (i.e. that it cannot be bought). More recently, interest has been expressed in normative commitment (Kanter, 1968; Kidron, 1978; Wiener, 1982), commitment being defined as an internalized moral pressure to act in ways supportive of the organization. Unfortunately, very little research has been conducted in this area so that little is known about moral attachment to organizations.

If this were not confusing enough, several writers have proposed multidimensional views of the concept which include some combination of moral, affective, and/or calculative elements. For example, Porter et. al. (1974) define commitment as: a) a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization; b) strong belief in and acceptance of organizational values; and c) a strong desire to maintain organizational membership, seemingly mixing moral and affective elements (and possibility a calculative element as well if effort is influenced by rewards). Similarly, Etzioni (1975) defines commitment as a "cathetic-evaluative" orientation toward the

organization again seemingly mixing moral and affective components.

In general, therefore, attitudinal definitions of commitment are muddled and confused. Definitional ambiguity and the concominant measurement problems have received scant attention relative to the ever-increasing amount of work in this area, to the point where it is still not clear what commitment is.

Meanings of Commitment

Most writers on this topic seem to assume that "commitment" is used consistently; that there is one widely accepted definition, and thus general agreement about what commitment is (means). [Meaning refers not only to the definition of commitment, but also to the processes in which it is imbedded.] Unfortunately, this is not the case. As discussed earlier, commitment has been used in many different ways and thus has several different meanings ranging from behavioral consistency to psychological identification with an organization. These differences are important as they affect how commitment is studied, and ultimately determine how person-organization attachment is viewed. A brief review of the various ways in which commitment has been viewed (perspectives) follows.

Multidimensional vs. Unidimensional Perspective

Many writers have taken a multidimensional view of commitment (cf. Buchanan, 1974; Porter et. al., 1974). That is, several distinct central or essential properties are proposed as defining commitment, commitment being viewed as a composite of these core properties.

The properties of commitment vary somewhat across definitions, but proposed dimensions can be classified as instrumental-calculative, affective, and normative. Since multidimensional views of commitment tend to be specific, this does not necessarily mean that two definitions which include a normative component tap the same aspect of normative control in organizations, only that both dimensions can be classified as normative. To illustrate: Buchanan (1974) includes acceptance of organizational values as an element of commitment while Etzioni (1975) refers to moral involvement as exclusive acceptance of the values of an organization, clearly a much stronger form of normative control. More to the point, this illustrates the difference in meaning of two seemingly similar definitions of commitment. However, although the meanings attributed to dimensions of commitment may vary, all of them reflect some combination

of instrumental, affective and/or normative attachment to organizations.

The most influential multidimensional definitions of commitment have been proposed by Porter et. al. (1974) and Buchanan (1974). Porter et. al. (1974) attribute three dimensions or properties to commitment: a) willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization; b) acceptance of and belief in organizational values; and c) loyalty. Similarly, Buchanan (1974) defines commitment as: a) acceptance of organizational values; b)psychological immersion in work activities; and c) loyalty.

Commitment has also been viewed as a unidimensional concept (cf. Rotondi, 1975; Wiener, 1982). Several writers have viewed commitment in purely instrumental terms, as a reflection of the perceived rewards and costs of continued organizational membership (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Sheldon, 1971). Others have defined commitment as an affective attachment to organizations in which the self becomes invested in or identified with the focal organization (Patchen, 1970; Kanter, 1968). More recently, commitment has been defined in normative terms, as a set of internalized pressures to act in an organizationally sanctioned manner (Wiener, 1982).

Unidimensional views of commitment differ from their multidimensional counterparts in that commitment is defined as either instrumental, affective or normative, and not as a composite of these elements. At issue, is which of these elements define commitment (is it only instrumental, only affective, only normative, or some composite thereof?). Further, unidimensional definitions tend to be less specific than corresponding elements of a multidimensional statement of the concept. For example, Wiener (1982) defines commitment as the set of internalized pressures to act in an organizationally sanctioned manner, while Porter et. al. (1974) include acceptance of organizational values, a more focused and less complex normative notion, in their multidimensional definition of commitment.

Psychological vs. Sociological Perspective

Organizational psychologists and sociologists have been interested in organizational commitment, but have approached the problem of person-organization attachment differently. Psychologists have studied commitment as an individual perception or attitude attempting to accurately describe the properties of the intrapsychic state. As might be expected, the more focused,

multidimensional definitions of commitment have come from organizational psychologists through their efforts to identify the experiential and behavioral properties of commitment from the perspective of the employee.

Sociologists, on the other hand, have focused on commitment as a requirement for system maintenance. As such, the sociological literature reflects an emphasis on instrumental commitment (cf. Becker, 1960; Sheldon, 1971) simply because it is necessary to retain membership for system maintenance, without much concern for what it means psychologically to be committed. Similarly, sociologists have studied normative control in organizations from the perspective of the larger social system especially with regard to pattern maintenance and system stability (cf. Evan, 1975; Rosnow, 1965).

Integration of these Perspectives: A Typology of Commitment

These two perspectives on commitment can be used to summarize research to date. Most recent work stems from Porter et. al.'s (1974) influential definition and attitudinal model (See Chapter III.) taking a psychological perspective and ascribing several dimensions to the concept. Earlier work was influenced mostly by Becker (1960) following a sociological

perspective with a unidimensional definition.

As such, most research on this topic falls into one of two broad categories: psychological/multidimensional and sociological/unidimensional. The relatively few studies which do not fall into either of these two categories take a psychological perspective but with a unidimensional definition of commitment and include: Patchen's (1970) notion of psychological identification with an organization and Wiener's (1982) notion of normative commitment.

Little effort has been made to integrate these streams of research. Rather than working toward conceptual integration, researchers have instead focused on the problems within their particular perspective. For example extensions of Porter et. al's work have been concerned with generalizability across organizations (cf. Morris and Sherman, 1981) while subsequent tests of the side-bet model have focused on measurement problems (cf. Ritzer and Trice, 1968).

However, there is no compelling reason to suggest that commitment is exclusively a psychological or a sociological variable or that it is multidimensional or unidimensional in nature. Indeed, Kanter (1968) points

out that the value of the concept lies in melding structural-functional considerations with phenomenology, and in so doing, provides a basis for clarifying the meaning of commitment. By examining the social systems problems revolving around commitment and linking each problem to a perceptual system, Kanter (1968) suggests that there are three forms of commitment, "three analytically distinct forms of commitment with potentially independent solutions" (p. 500, emphasis added).

These "types" of commitment are based on the system requirements of retaining membership, developing sufficient loyalty to withstand external threats, and maintenance of system stability through normative control. Each type of commitment has a personal orientation associated with it, thus linking individual perceptions to system requirements.

The three types of commitment are as follows: continuance, cohesion and control. Continuance commitment, the commitment of actors to remaining within the social system, is thought to be accompanied by a cognitive orientation (assessment of rewards vs. costs). Cohesion commitment is defined as commitment to a set of enduring social relationships and is associated with a

positive affective reaction to the organization. Finally, control commitment refers to internalization of system norms such that behavior carries a moral imperative, and is thus accompanied by an evaluative-normative personal orientation.

These commitment types clearly parallel the normative, affective and instrumental components of commitment described earlier. The difference is that unidimensional views are based on the assumption that commitment is either instrumental, affective or normative while Kanter (1968) suggests that each of these is a different form of person-organization attachment. Similarly, multidimensional views of the concept imply that "overall" commitment varies quantitatively as instrumental, affective or normative attachment to an organization varies, while Kanter (1968) suggests that commitment also varies qualitatively, each form of person-organization attachment having its own antecedents and consequences.

In so doing, the "dimensions" of the more commonly accepted multidimensional definitions are preserved, but as unidimensional "types" thus finding the common ground between these two perspectives. And in linking

structural-functional imperatives with individual perceptions, the psychological and sociological perspectives are melded such that commitment has both individual and systemic effects.

This approach offers several new directions for the study of commitment. To begin with, the question of whether commitment is instrumental, affective or normative is replaced with the more meaningful issue of how each of these forms of person-organization attachment develop. That is, each of the key elements of commitment seem to represent a form of attachment to an organization and each of them seems to be worthy of study. Additionally, Kanter (1968) raises the possibility of a sequence of attachment to organizations, governed first by rewards, then by affiliative satisfactions, and finally by norms. As such, commitment may involve a progression of attachment to organizations, and may mean different things at different points in the sequence.

The notion of commitment "types", therefore, helps to clarify the sociological and psychological implications of organizational commitment. In so doing, attention is focused on forms of person-organization attachment, and on what it means to be committed.

Research Evidence

Each type of commitment has received some attention in the literature, although few studies have considered more than one form of commitment. In general, present studies provide some clues about the antecedents and consequences of each type of commitment, but little is known about interrelationships among them. A brief review of this research follows.

Continuance or calculative commitment. As expected, calculative commitment appears to be associated mostly with investments in the organization. Stevens et. al. (1978) found that the strongest predictor of calculative commitment was years in organization followed closely by years in current position, thus supporting Becker's (1960) side-bet hypothesis. Similar findings regarding age and length of service were reported by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), Schoenherr and Greely (1970) and Sheldon (1971). Similarly, Ferris and Aranya (1983) found that calculative commitment was associated with number of children and sex, but not with age, years with organization or alternative career opportunities.

It should also be noted that calculative commitment is also significantly related to job involvement (Stevens et. al., 1978) and job satisfaction (Ferris and Aranya,

1983), although the strongest predictors of calculative commitment tend to be those tied to investments in the organization.

With regard to the consequences of calculative commitment, the few available studies suggest that it is negatively related to turnover intentions (Ferris and Aranya, 1983; Wiener and Yovash, 1980) and to actual turnover (Ferris and Aranya, 1983). The one available study also suggests that calculative commitment is not related to performance (Wiener and Yovash, 1980).

Cohesion or affective commitment. Cohesion or affective commitment refers to an emotional attachment to an organization in which the self becomes melded into the organization. As such, it is associated with two processes: renunciation of competing attachments and communion (i.e. identification) with the focal organization (Kanter, 1968). Renunciation processes have received the most attention in the literature, and as expected, cohesion commitment was negatively related to occupational identification (Rotondi, 1975), external group identification (Rotondi, 1975) and interest in labor unions (Brown, 1970). Communion, the process by which the self is melded into the organization, has received

less attention, but cohesion commitment appears to be associated with personal importance in the organization (Lee, 1970), and needs for affiliation and achievement (Rotondi,1976).

Consequences of cohesion commitment have received even less attention. Rotondi (1975) found that cohesion commitment was negatively associated with work group effectiveness and individual creativity. This may be because affiliative needs are stressed over organizational requirements for performance, but the reason for the puzzling finding is not clear. Additionally, cohesion commitment appears to be associated with other affective responses to work such as job satisfaction (Hall and Schneider, 1970; Lee, 1970).

Control or normative commitment. Recently, interest has been expressed in normative commitment (Kidron, 1978; Wiener and Yovash, 1980), and only a few studies are available. Kidron (1978) found that normative commitment was correlated significantly with the Protestant Work Ethic while calculative commitment was not, and Wiener and Yovash (1980) found that normative commitment was related to intent to retain organization membership, but not with job satisfaction, overall performance effectiveness or work effort. Wiener (1982) has proposed

a model of normative commitment in which specific antecedents and consequences are included [see Figure 1c] which as yet remains untested.

Commitment and Other Work Attitudes

It is important that commitment to the organization be distinguished from other work attitudes, particularly closely related concepts such as job involvement, organizational identification and organizational satisfaction. Kanter's (1968) typology is useful in clarifying the confusion between organizational identification and organizational commitment in that organizational identification is treated as one form of commitment (cohesion commitment), and not as a closely related but different concept, as others have suggested (Rotondi, 1975).

Distinguishing between commitment and related attitudes such as job involvement and organizational satisfaction is more difficult. Organizational satisfaction can be distinguished from commitment in that satisfaction refers to an evaluation of present conditions (Locke, 1976), and thus represents one's overall assessment of the organization at a given time. As such, it can be subject to relatively frequent and

dramatic changes in level. Commitment, on the other hand, develops more slowly and is less subject to sudden changes (Leik and Leik, 1976).

Turning to job involvement, several writers have referred to job involvement as work commitment (cf. Wiener and Yovash, 1980), but organizational commitment can be distinguished from job involvement on the basis of the focus and the nature of the "commitment". Job involvement implies a cognitive immersion in work activities primarily because they provide intrinsic satisfaction. At some level, then, it is reasonable to refer to job involvement as work commitment. Organizational commitment, however, implies an attachment to a social unit, and from Kanter's (1968) perspective, varies both quantitatively and qualitatively. That is, unlike job involvement, the issue is not only how strong the attachment is (i.e. how immersed one is in work activities), but also what form the attachment takes.

CHAPTER III.:

COMMITMENT MECHANISMS: PROCESS MODELS OF COMMITMENT

As with definitions of commitment, there is some disagreement about how it develops. Like definitions of commitment, commitment models can be classified as either behavioral or attitudinal, although some models contain elements of both.

Behavioral commitment model. As noted briefly in the previous section, the behavioral commitment model is intended to explain commitment to a course of action, and not to an object. The commitment process can be summarized as follows: a) an action occurs; b) a series of attributions are made by the actor about the impetus-cause(s) of the action; c) future actions are (or are not) constrained depending on whether the action is deemed binding. Four factors determine if an act is binding: a)whether it is public; b) its revocability; c) attribution of the action to internal causes; d)perceived awareness of the act by significant others (Salancik, 1977). See Figure 1a. for a detailed description and Figures 1b to 1e for an overwiew of present commitment models.

Although the behavioral model clearly contains a

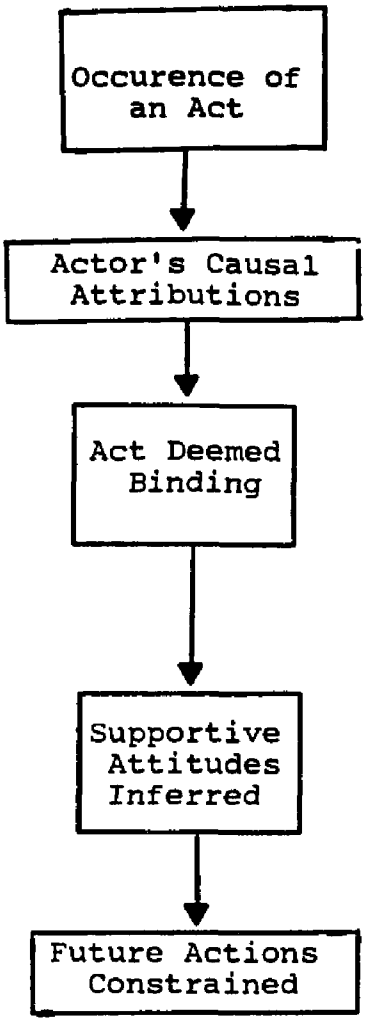

Figure 1a. Behavioral Commitment Model

cognitive component, these cognitions should not be confused with attitudinal commitment. Two sets of cognitions are relevant to the behavioral commitment process. The first concerns the attributions of the cause(s) of behavior, and thus affects the "bindingness" of acts. That is, after an act occurs, an inference is made about its causes and implications. Such perceptions clearly have little in common with attitudinal commitment.

The second set of cognitions are those which support and which provide justification for prior behaviors. Like attributions of the causes of an action, these perceptions are tied directly to behavior being inferred from it (Salancik, 1977). Put simply, cognitions which support a "consistent line of activity" are inferred by the actor from prior behaviors. To illustrate: on the basis of the public, volitional act of attending work five times weekly, it may be inferred that one's organization is a good place to work.

Although inferences such as these are referred to as "attitudes" by behavioral theorists (cf. Bem. 1967; Salancik, 1977), they fail to capture the complexity of the more common usage of the term. Attitude theorists

view attitudes as an important influence of behavior, and not merely as a post hoc justification for behavior. More importantly, an attitudinal view of commitment reflects investment of psychic energy in an organization (Kanter, 1968; Sheldon, 1971), and is not seen only as a means of justifying work behaviors.

It is here where the behavioral and attitudinal commitment perspectives differ. Within a behavioral model, "attitudes" have utility only insofar as they provide justification for past behaviors. Only an overt act can bind one to a course of action, alter perceptions (i.e. attitudes), and constrain future alternatives (Salancik, 1977). As such, to alter the level of commitment it is necessary to change behavior; supportive attitudes will fall into place.

In contrast, in an attitudinal model, commitment attitudes are viewed as a significant influence of behavior. Attitudes may be inferred from behavior, but are causally prior. Moreover, commitment attitudes are not restricted to one particular line of activity, but are thought to influence many work behaviors (eg. performance, attendance, turnover). As such, there is generally a "surplus meaning" to the notion of attitude that extends its relevance beyond the immediate behavior

by which it has been inferred.

Clearly, then, "attitude" within a behavioral model and an attitudinal model does not mean the same thing. In the former it refers to an evaluative perception tied closely to prior behavior which provides justification for it, and in the latter it refers to a broader, more complex perception which influences subsequent behavior.

It should also be noted that in focusing on overt actions, behavioral theorists have not given much attention to the impetus for the behavior except to consider the actor's post hoc attributions of its cause(s). Thus, it is not clear what "motivates" behavior; that is, the problem of where the impetus for the initial act in a behavior chain resides is not addressed. Attitudes, however, are not considered to be causes of behavior, but rather are viewed as post hoc justification for it.

Behavioral commitment is thus the end result of the constraining effects of prior acts on future behavioral alternatives. (Only those acts which meet the criteria for "bindingness" will of course constrain behavior and committ the actor. Act which do not meet these criteria do not result in behavioral commitment). Commitment

develops as each act in a stream of behavior (a consistent line of activity) binds one to a course of action leading to persistence of behavior consistent with past actions.

Attitudinal models of commitment. Most researchers adopting the attitudinal perspective have studied hypothesized antecedents of commitment without much attention to the process of becoming committed. Consequently, much of the commitment research is not grounded in theory, but instead is focused on empirically derived models which in most cases are prediction equations derived from multiple regression analysis. In this regard, several writers have commented on the desirability of a conceptual framework to guide commitment research, and on the need to study process (cf. Steers, 1977; Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1978).

Two theoretical models of organizational commitment are evident in the literature: a) Hall's (1976) psychological success model; and b) Wiener's (1982) normative model. Both theorists explain the development of organizational commitment with perceptual antecedents and both view commitment as the end result of a complex developmental sequence, but disagree about specific antecedents and about whether or not commitment is

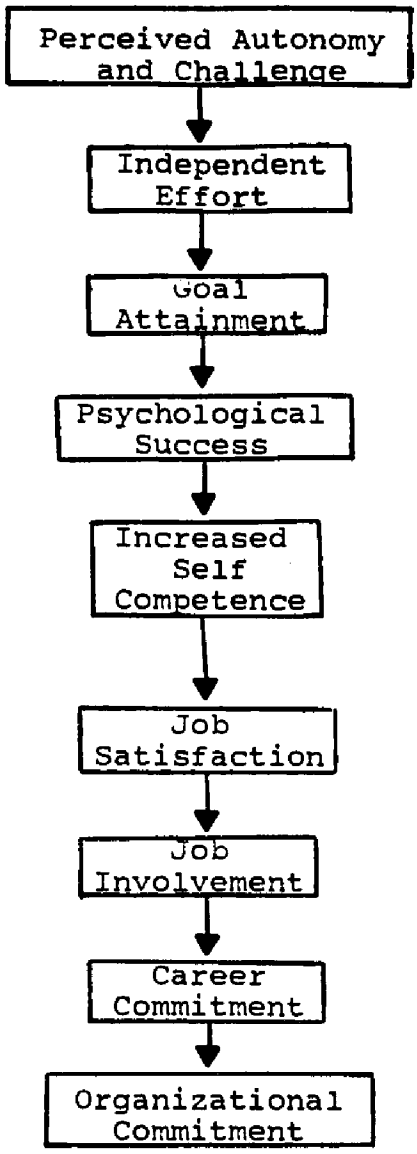

Figure 1b. Hall's Psychological Success Model

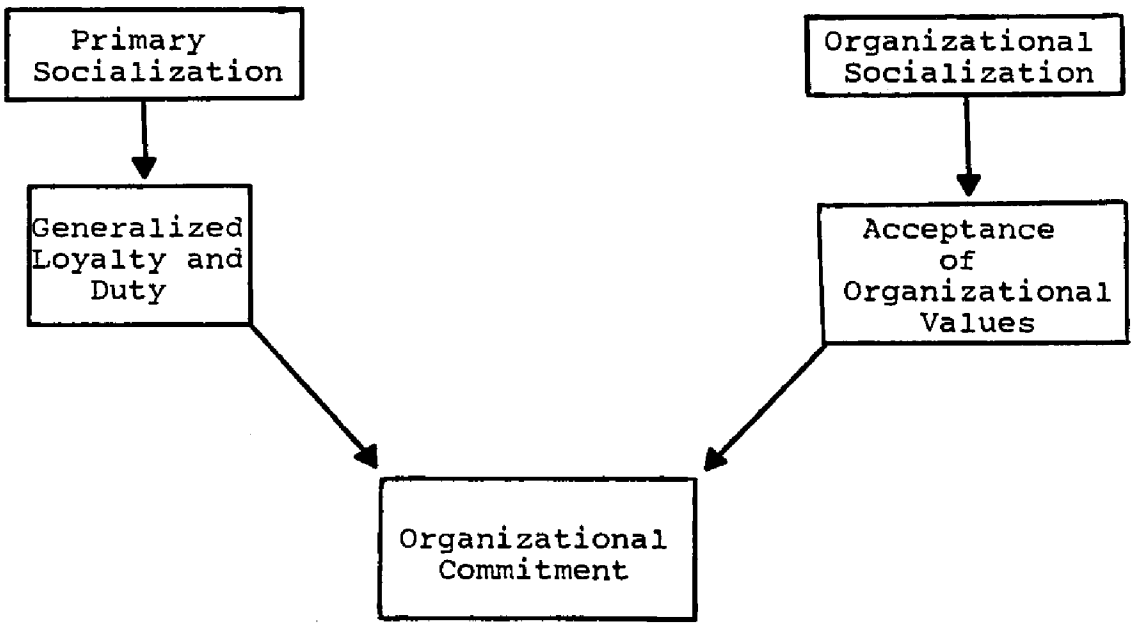

Figure 1c. Wiener's Normative Commitment Model

influenced by one's early socialization experiences.

Hall (1976) suggests that commitment is an outgrowth of task-derived psychological success as mediated by job satisfaction, job involvement and career commitment (see Figure 1b). Commitment is thus linked not only to task characteristics but to other job attitudes as well in what might be called a series of "spillover" hypotheses. That is, psychological success does not affect commitment directly, but indirectly through intervening job attitudes. (Figure 1b).

In contrast, Wiener (1982) views socialization at the societal and organizational levels as influencing the two most immediate antecedents of commitment: person-organization value congruence and generalized loyalty. Commitment is defined in normative terms as a moral imperative to act in ways supportive of the organization (see Figure 1c).

Hybrid commitment models. Classification of some commitment models as either behavioral or attitudinal is not possible as they share characteristics of both. Such models might be termed "hybrids", describing the development of attitudinal commitment in terms of past behaviors.

Two hybrid models are present in the literature: a)Becker's (1960) side bet theory; and b) a more recent model proposed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982). Both of these writers focus on the effects of past actions on commitment, but differ with regard to whether it is acts themselves, or their consequences, which bind.

The side-bet model is an extension of exchange theories of organization membership (cf. Barnard, 1938; March and Simon, 1958) thus casting commitment in a calculative-instrumental mold. Side-bets result from prior behavior and are defined as investments in continuing a particular course of action (Becker, 1960). For instance, the act of accepting a job offer carries several side-bets with it (i.e. salary, benefits, career opportunities), the value of which accrues over time thus leading to behavioral persistence (i.e. remaining in the job). When the present value of side-bets exceeds what can be gained from alternative sources, commitment results in that one is literally "locked in" to a position or a course of action. With regard to work organizations, commitment results when the costs of leaving exceed expected rewards from other organizations (see Figure 1d).

Becker (1960) focuses on the structural conditions

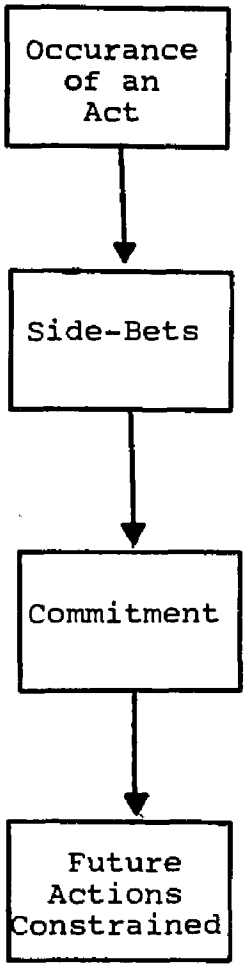

Figure 1d. Becker's Side Bet Model

leading to commitment (side-bets lead to commitment and should not be confused with it), but has little to say about what commitment is or what it means (psychologically) to be committed. Later writers (cf. Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Sheldon, 1971), however, have suggested that investments (side-bets) lead to an attachment to the organization "which links the identity of the person to the organization" (Sheldon, 1971; p.143). It is for this reason that the side-bets model was viewed as hybrid, commitment being viewed as an attitudinal variable resulting from behavior.

Mowday et. al. (1982) have also linked attitudinal commitment to behavioral antecedents. In contrast to the side-bets model, the attitudinal notion of commitment proposed by Porter et. al. (1974) was linked to the behavioral commitment process. That is, actions bind through pressures for behavioral consistency rather than through increasing investments coupled with lost opportunities, as Becker (1960) proposed.

More specifically, overt actions are thought to be responsible for behavioral commitment [as Salancik (1977) proposed]. Attitudinal commitment is viewed as a consequence of previous behavioral commitment (although

it is not clear if this is its sole determinant) and, in turn, both attitudinal and behavioral commitment influence behavior and each other in a "cycle of reciprocal causation"(p 128). Attitudinal commitment, therefore, appears to be inferred from behavior (at least partly) and influences subsequent behavior (see Figure 1e).

Antecedents of commitment are thought to vary over three career stages: pre-entry, early employment, and middle and late employment. At the pre-entry stage, commitment is influenced by job choice characteristics such that a behaviorally committing choice results not only in commitment to a course of action, but in attitudinal commitment as well. Initial work experiences and job alternatives are thought to affect commitment through felt responsibility for work outcomes at the early employment stage. Finally, commitment in the late career is influenced by investments and sacrifices, but Mowday et. al. remain unclear about the commitment process at this stage, or how closely investments parallel the side-bets model.

Attitudes, Behaviors and Commitment: Issues and Problems

Several writers have commented on the desirability of integrating the behavioral and attitudinal commitment

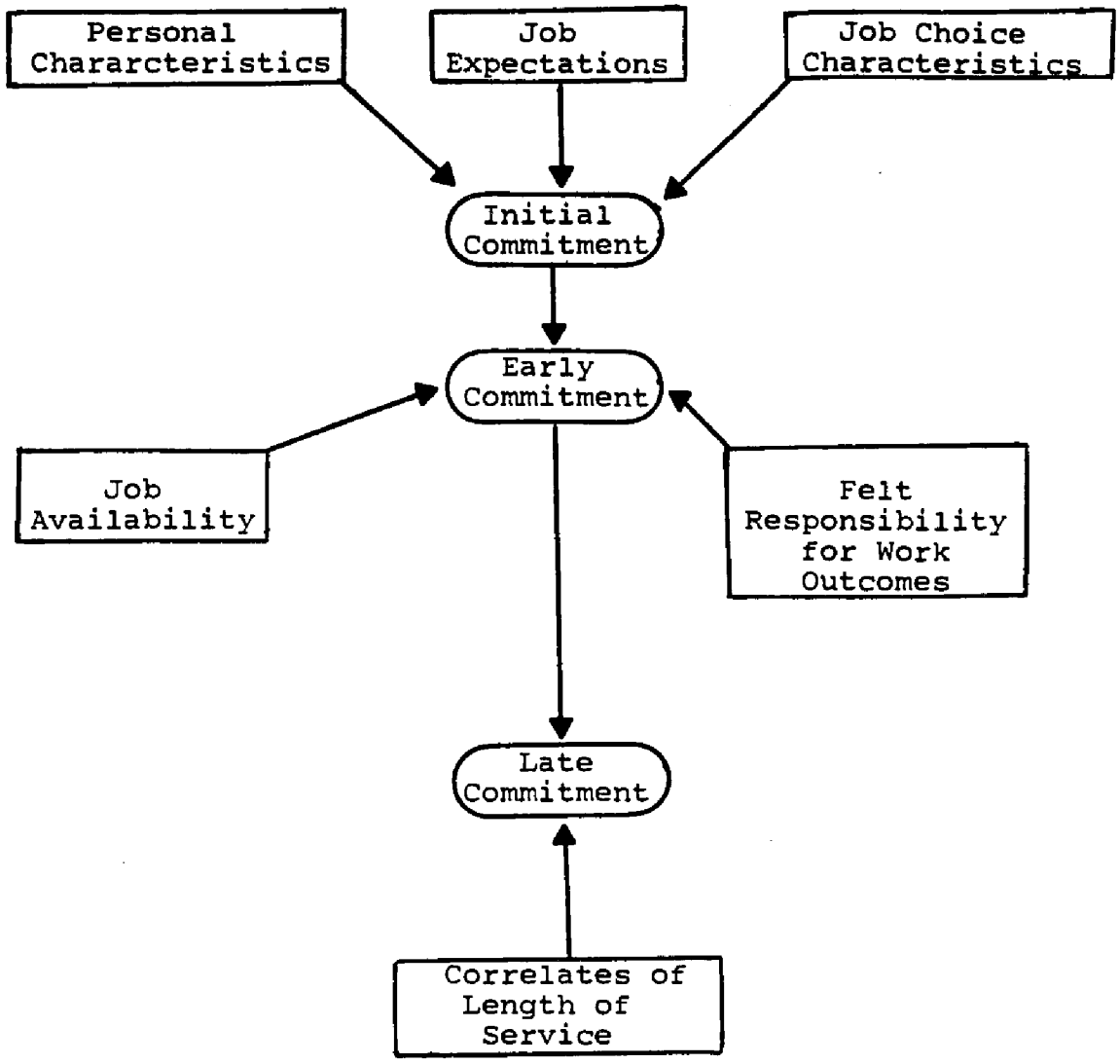

Figure 1e. Mowday, Steers and Porter's Hybrid Commitment Model

perspectives (cf. Staw, 1977; Mowday and McDade, 1977). Indeed, Mowday et. al. (1982) write that:

> "although the commitment attitude-behavior and commitment behavior-attitude approaches emerge from different theoretical orientations and have generated separate research traditions, understanding commitment is facilitated by viewing these two approaches as inherently interrelated." (p. 47)

While there is little to argue with here, the task at hand seems more complex than Mowday et. al. suggest. Integration requires precise specification of the relationship between attitudinal and behavioral commitment if a greater understanding of commitment is to be gained. That is, it is not sufficient to assert that attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment are related without explaining how they are related and how the commitment process is clarified.

This is precisely where the sole attempt at integration, the model proposed by Mowday et. al. (1982), appears to be lacking. In asserting that behavioral and attitudinal commitment are related while remaining vague about how they are related, Mowday et. al. confound the behavioral and attitudinal processes so that it is not clear if commitment is primarily governed by behavioral principles, is attitudinal in nature, or is some

unspecified combination of these two.

Perhaps this can be seen more clearly by examining the model proposed by Mowday et. al. (1982) in more detail. At the pre-entry stage, commitment is determined by three factors: personal characteristics (values, beliefs, and personality), expectations about the job, and job choice characteristics (volition, revocability, sacrifice and insufficient justification). Characteristics of job choice most likely will commit the the employee to remaining in the job (as it is a volitional, public act) which can be thought of as behavioral commitment to the organization (that is, activity which is consistent with the initial act of job choice). Regarding attitudinal commitment, however, it is difficult to see how job choice behavior results in the complex attitude proposed by Porter et. al. (1974). Behavioral commitment aside, it is hardly likely that attitudinal commitment would result from such limited contact with the organization, and few attitude theorists have written of "instantaneous commitment" (cf. Leik and Leik, 1976). It seems, therefore, that commitment at the pre-entry stage is mostly behavioral, and that the relationship between behavioral and attitudinal commitment is, at this stage, unclear.

At the second career stage, early employment, commitment is influenced by felt responsibility for work outcomes which is taken from the behavioral commitment model (cf. Salancik, 1977), and initial commitment from the previous career stage. Felt responsibility leads to behavioral commitment because when responsibility is taken for work outcomes, the impetus of causality becomes internal (the impetus for behavior is not as likely to be attributed to extrinsic rewards) thus leading to behavioral commitment (Salancik, 1977; Mowday, et. al., 1982).

Commitment at both the initial and early career stages, therefore, seems to be behavioral in nature raising the issues of how attitudinal commitment develops and how it influences commitment to the organization. Aside from the assertion that "greater behavioral commitment should, other factors held constant, lead to greater attitudinal commitment" (p.54), Mowday et. al. have little to say about attitudinal commitment. Consequently, it is not clear if attitudinal commitment is solely an outgrowth of behavioral commitment, and if not, where the perceptual antecedents linked to commitment in prior studies fit into the model proposed

by Mowday et. al. is also not clear.

Linking behavioral and attitudinal commitment, however, presents an even more basic problem. As Calder and Schurr (1982) note, combining the behavioral and attitudinal perspectives while maintaining the integrity of the attitudinal view is not easily accomplished. That is, within the behavioral model, attitudes serve only to reinforce the constraining effects of prior actions. As Salancik (1977) notes, "it is behaviors that bind....and behaviors that we become bound to" (p. 63). Consequently, it is not clear how or where "attitudes" (as defined by attitude theorists) fit into the behavioral imperative. It seems, as Calder and Schurr (1982) suggest, that once attitudes are viewed solely as derived from situational influences (in the case of the behavioral commitment model, as inferred from behavior), they are no longer viewed as determinants of behavior. Integration of the behavioral and attitudinal models by merely grafting them together, thus, serves only to explain attitudes away rather than to explain their contribution to behavior or to commitment.

More specifically, the problem Mowday et. al. face is explaining how the enduring, complex attitude proposed by Porter et. al. (1974) becomes tied to the behavioral

commitment process. It is not clear how commitment-related work behaviors lead to perceptions of value congruence and organizational loyalty, both of which seem to carry a moral imperative and both of which are included in Porter et. al.'s definition. Moreover, following Calder and Schurr (1982), it is still not clear why attitudinal commitment is needed given the model suggested by Mowday et. al. even if it were inferred from behavior.

The intent here is not to critically evaluate Mowday et. al.'s (1982) model, but to point out the difficulty in integrating the attitudinal and behavioral perspectives. At present, as Calder and Schurr (1982) acknowledge, the conceptual tools for such an integration do not seem to be available.

In the absence of an integrative model, both the attitudinal and the behavioral perspectives seem necessary to understand commitment. Given the ambiguities associated with the attitudinal approach, it seems reasonable to continue to study commitment as an attitude to gain a greater understanding of person-organization attachment and as a step toward conceptual integration.

CHAPTER IV.:

PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

Problem

The notion of commitment "types" helps to clarify the concept (Kanter, 1968; Meyer and Allen, 1984; Reichers, 1985) and opens several new directions for future research. Because most researchers have studied only one type of commitment as all that commitment encompasses (e.g. continuance commitment is studied not studied as one form of commitment, but as all that commitment is), most prior research sheds little light on how each type of commitment develops.

To illustrate: a study which examines several different types of antecedents (i.e. investments, needs) in relation to one form of commitment can not adequately explain commitment processes because it is not clear if the antecedents included in the study are uniquely associated with the type of commitment under consideration (they may be related to other types of commitment as well). More importantly, an hypothesized antecedent of one type of commitment which is not associated with it may be related to other types of

commitment. If only one type of commitment is studied, the erroneous conclusion that this particular variable has no bearing on commitment would be reached. It seems useful, therefore, to study commitment processes in relation to commitment types. That is, to examine whether different forms of commitment have different antecedents and/or consequences.

Recent theoretical and empirical work has been moving in this direction. Wiener (1982) has hypothesized that normative commitment is uniquely related to value-based antecedents and Kidron (1978) found that instrumental (continuance) and normative (control) commitment have different antecedents. Additional research appears to be necessary to clarify the development of each type of commitment.

A second interesting possibility regarding the development of commitment is that certain variables or classes of variables may be central to organizational life, and are thus associated with more than one form of person-organization attachment. The more limited research strategy of considering only one type of commitment does not allow this issue to be investigated fully.

Finally, while it is plausible to view instrumental

(continuance), affective (cohesion), and normative (control) commitment as analytically distinct constructs, it is also possible that they are interrelated empirically. One possible pattern of relationships may involve a progession of attachments to an organization, governed first by rewards, then by affiliative satisfactions, and ultimately to norms. Kanter (1968) acknowledges this possibility, but little if any, research has addressed this issue.

This study is thus focused on three issues: a) antecedents of each type of commitment; b) consequences of each type of commitment; and c) interrelationships among commitment types.

Hypotheses

H1: Instrumental (continuance) commitment is positively associated with one's investments in the work organization.

Hypothesis 1 follows from Becker's side-bet theory, and from the research based on it (cf. Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Sheldon, 1971; Stevens et. al., 1978). Investments are defined as one's stake in the organization and are inferred from measures of personal characteristics such as age, tenure, marital status,

education, and salary.

Investments are what one stands to lose by leaving the focal organization. Their value is thought to increase with time (Becker, 1960), and commitment results when the perceived cost of leaving exceeds that which can be obtained elsewhere. As such, personal characteristics represent one's investment in the organization in that they are tied to organizational reward systems, and thus increase in value over time (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972).

H1a: Instrumental (continuance) commitment is more strongly associated with those variables that are directly tied to one's investments in the organization than it is with the other hypothesized antecedents of commitment.

The side-bets model links instrumental (continuance) commitment to those variables associated with one's investments in the focal organization. As such, these variables should be the strongest predictors of instrumental commitment.

H2: Affective (cohesion) commitment is positively associated with feelings of personal importance in the organization, and with need for affiliation.

Hypothesis 2 refers to communion processes, the process by which the self is melded into the organization

(Kanter, 1968). The perception of being a valued member of the organization seems to be a necessary condition for identification with it (Kanter, 1968; Lee, 1970). Regarding the need for affiliation, Steers and Braunstein (1976) found that those individuals with a high need for affiliation perceived their organizations as a primary source of need-satisfaction (of both this need and of other needs as well). As such, the need for affiliation should influence communion, the process by which the self becomes melded into the organization.

It should be made clear that the strength of the need for affiliation and not the relative level of need-satisfaction is hypothesized to be related to affective (cohesion) commitment. The level of commitment will of course ultimately depend on the degree to which one's needs are satisfied at work, but Steers and Braunstein (1976) have shown that it is the strength of the need which determines whether work is viewed as an appropriate setting for need-satisfaction, and thus it appears that it is the strength of the need for affiliation which has the greatest effect on the communion <u>process</u> (although need-satisfaction has an effect as well).

It should also be noted that although a conceptual distinction between need strength and need-satisfaction

is easily accomplished, at the measurement level this dinstinction can become blurred. For example, Steers and Braunstein (1976) proposed a behaviorally based measure of need strength operating under the assumption that if need strength is high, behaviors directed toward satisfying that need are likely to be exhibited. Some confounding of need strength and need-satisfaction is thus likely to result.

H2a: Affective (cohesion) commitment is negatively associated with external group identification and with need for autonomy.

Hypothesis 2a refers to renunciation processes. Because affective (cohesion) commitment involves severance with competing organizations (Kanter, 1968), a negative relationship with external group identification is expected. Underlying this hypothesis, is the assumption that one's time and energy (including psychic energy) are limited such that increased investment in one organization occur's at the expense of others (Kanter, 1968).

In addition, a negative relationship between need for autonomy and affective (cohesion) commitment is expected. Steers and Braunstein (1976) found that those

individuals with a high need for autonomy did not view the work organization as a primary source of need-satisfaction, (but as one of many), and reported a negative correlation between need for autonomy and organizational commitment. It seems, therefore, that those individuals with a high need for autonomy are not willing to relinquish their ties with other (competing) organizations, and thus a negative correlation between need for autonomy and affective (cohesion) commitment is expected.

H2b: Affective (cohesion) commitment is associated more strongly with those variables tied to communion and renunciation processes--need for affiliation, need for autonomy, personal importance and external group identification--than it is with the other hypothesized antecedents of commitment.

As is the case with instrumental commitment, affective (cohesion) commitment should be associated more strongly with those antecedents linked conceptually to its development.

H3: Normative (control) commitment is positively associated with person-organization value congruence and with a generalized sense of loyalty and duty.

Hypothesis 3 stems directly from Wiener's (1982)

normative model of commitment. Person-organization value congruence and generalized loyalty are hypothesized to be the most immediate antecedents of normative commitment (See Section III. for a detailed explanation of the model).

H3a: Normative (control) commitment is associated more strongly with those variables reflecting organizational and personal norms and values (generalized loyalty and value congruence) than it is with the other hypothesized antecedents of commitment.

Hypothesis 3a also follows directly from Wiener's (1982) model. Wiener (1982) hypothesized that the normative commitment process is governed by value-based antecedents, and should be associated most strongly with these variables (See Section III. for a more detailed explanation).

H4: Instrumental (continuance), affective (cohesion), and normative (control) commitment are each positively associated with desire and intent to retain organizational membership.

Since commitment implies person-organization attachment, it should be associated with desire and intent to retain membership regardless of whether the

attachment is instrumental, affective, or normative.

H5: Affective (cohesion) commitment is positively associated with "overall" job satisfaction and with a global index of organizational satisfaction.

Affective (cohesion) commitment is based on affective ties to the organization, and thus a positive relationship with other affective responses to the organization is expected. Wiener and Yovash (1980) provide some indirect support for this hypothesis by reporting non-significant correlations between normative commitment and job satisfaction, and instrumental commitment and job satisfaction.

H6: Normative (control) commitment is associated with quality and quantity of job performance.

Because normative commitment represents a moral pressure to act in an organizationally sanctioned manner (Kanter, 1968; Wiener, 1982), it should be associated with job performance and with individual effectiveness.

Analytical Framework

The analytical plan of the study is presented in Figure 2. This study takes the general antecedents--mediating variable(s)--consequences form which is characterisitic of the commitment literature.
The broken arrows between instrumental (continuance),

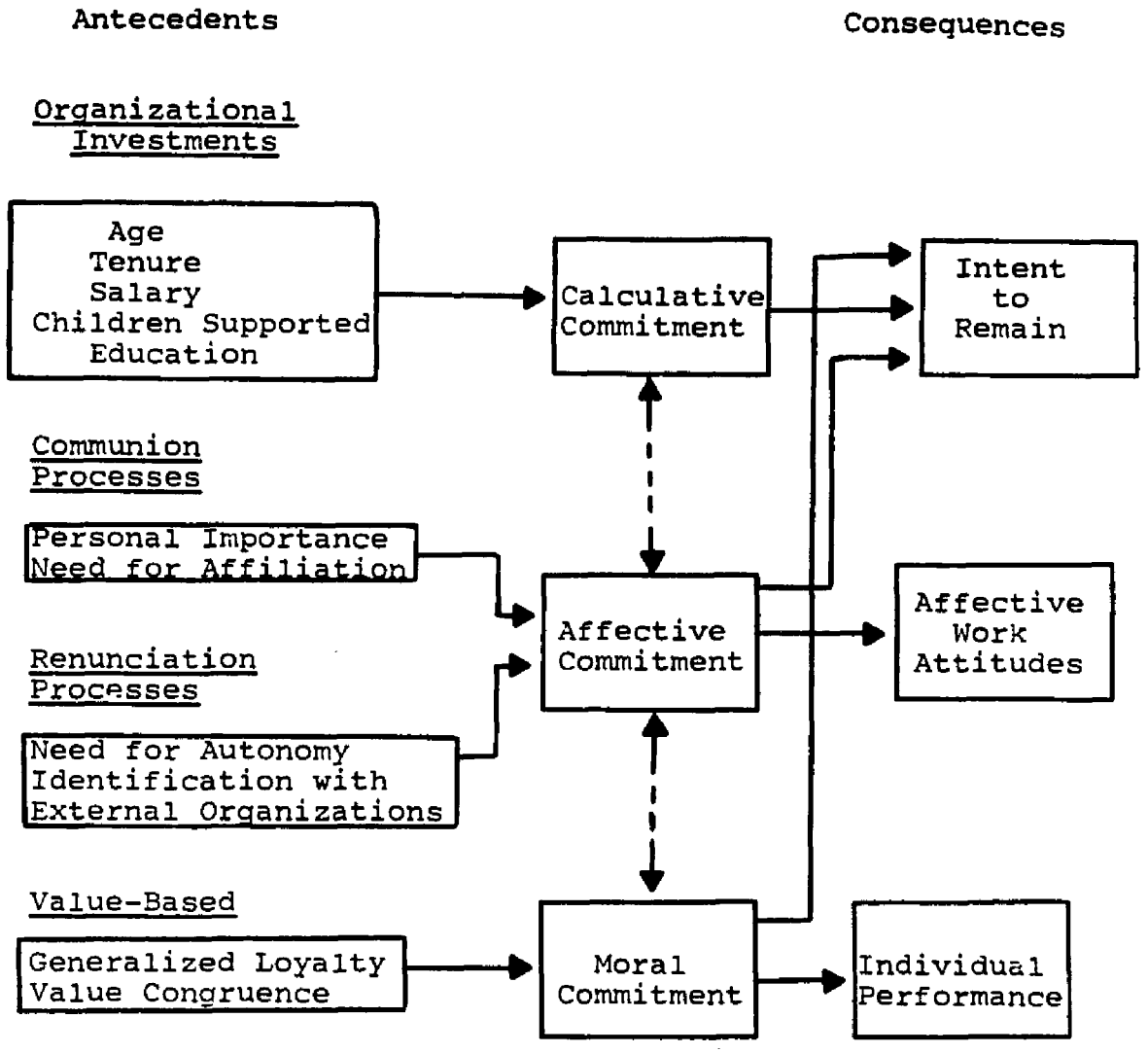

Figure 2. Analytical Plan of the Study

affective (cohesion) and normative (control) suggest that a relationship may be present, but that the nature of the relationship is unclear. The solid arrows represent Hypotheses 1 to 6.

The nature of the interrelationships among commitment types will affect the model presented in Figure 2. Under the null hypothesis (i.e. no interrelationships among commitment types), Figure 2 would represent (with the elimination of the dotted lines) three independent models of commitment, each type of commitment having unique antecedents and consequences. As such, those antecedents and consequences hypothesized to be associated with a specific form of commitment are expected to be associated with only that form of commitment [which is what Kanter (1968) initially proposed].

To the extent that commitment types are interrelated, the model in Figure 2 represents an integrated process model of organizational commitment. The precise form of the process will, of course, depend on the nature of the relationships among commitment types. One possibility discussed previously is that commitment involves a progession of attachments to

organizations governed first by rewards, then by affiliative ties, and finally by moral imperatives.

Within an integrated process model of commitment, it makes sense conceptually to examine relationships among the entire set of antecedents and consequences of commitment with each commitment type (rather than restrict specific antecedents and consequences of commitment to one form of commitment, as is done when three independent models of commitment are posited). That is, because commitment types suggest a single process model rather than three distinct models, unanticipated relationships among specific antecedents and/or consequences and a commitment type can be thought of as reflecting the complexity of the commitment process and can be incorporated into the model. In contrast, when commitment types are viewed as unrelated, such relationships make little conceptual sense, and thus are not consistent with a model based on this assumption.

The available literature provides few clues about interrelationships among commitment types. In general, the relationship between instrumental and normative commitment appears to be low to moderate. Wiener and Yovash (1980) reported a correlation of .10 between instrumental and normative commitment, but Ferris and

Arayna (1983) and Kidron (1978) report moderate relationships between these two commitment types (.39 and .49, respectively). [Although these correlations might be viewed as substantial in light of the poor reliabilities associated with measures of work attitudes, the issue of common method variance must also be considered. Given the relatively low relationships reported between instrumental and normative commitment in two of the three studies, it seems reasonable to view them as unrelated.]

On the basis of prior research, analytical considerations, and theoretical parsimony, the (analytical) plan of the study is to proceed under the assumption of the null hypothesis (no interrelationships among comitment types). As such, only those antecedents hypothesized to be related to a specific commitment type are expected to attain statistical significance.

Prior research, sparse as it is, suggests that it is reasonable to view commitment types as independent. As noted earlier, observed relationships among commitment types are modest at best. Given the problems with common method variance and the fact that prior measures of affective and calculative commimtent tend to overlap

(Meyer and Allen, 1984) thus inflating correlations between these two commitment types, it is justifiable to proceed under the assumption of independence.

Additionally, analytical considerations favor the assumption of independence. The appropriate test of interrelations among commitment types in relation to their antecedents is a system of structural equations (path analysis). Blalock (1964) has cautioned against the tendency for researchers to posit relationships among variables within a path analysis that do not have adequate theoretical justification. These models serve often serve only to confuse, and despite their greater complexity, frequently do not "fit" the data any better than their simpler counterparts. Given the lack of a conceptual framework to guide commitment research (Steers, 1977), the more conservative alternative (no relationships among commitment types) is warranted until empirical data in conjunction with theory suggest that it is no longer tenable.

Finally, factors associated with theory building are also consistent with the assumption of independence among commitment types. Bunge (1964) in his influential argument against positivistic science suggests that the purpose of theory building is to develop concepts that

become increasing abstract (that is, removed from the empirical world). An important consideration in this effort is theoretical parsimony. This is because as more interrelationships among low level concepts are proposed on the basis of empirical relationships between them, it becomes increasing difficult to precisely define these concepts, and to model the processes in which they are imbedded. (Unfortunately, this is exactly what has happened to the commitment literature to date).

Consequently, it is appropriate from a theory building perspective to first consider the possibility of independence among commitment types, and then to reject this assumption, if and when it becomes untenable.

CHAPTER V.:

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Data were collected from employees of a large public educational institution. The sample (N=202) is comprised of 94 members of the full-time teaching staff and 108 members of the administrative and support staff (including administrative assistants, secretaries and assistants to program administrators). Although high-level administrators (deans, provost), were sampled the return rate for this sample was less than one percent, and they were thus not included in the study. The mean age of the sample was 42 years with an average organizational tenure of 8.8 years. There are 107 males and 94 females (n=1, missing data for sex).

These two subsamples were pooled for data analyses. Because the processes being studied are general in nature, they are hypothesized to operate in a wide variety of settings, and thus it is appropriate to consider pooling the data. A similar pproach has been taken by Dunham (1977) and Lefkowitz, Somers and Weinberg (1984).

Additionally, pooling the data provides more stable parameter estimates provided that the two subsamples do not differ widely (Dunham ,1977). Subgroup means, standard deviations and t-tests are presented in Table 1. Differences between these subsamples do not appear to preclude the possibility of pooling the data. More detailed information regarding these subsamples is presented in Appendix II., and the consequences of pooling the data are discussed in greater detail in Chapter VII.

Questionnaires were distributed and returned through campus mail with a follow-up letter approximately two weeks after distribution. All replies were completely anonymous. Approximately 25 percent of the 976 questionnaires distributed were returned.

Although this response rate is not uncharacteristically low for a survey distributed by mail, the possibility of non-response error must be considered. That is, the 75% of potential respondents (those who received the survey and did not respond) may differ systematically from those who did complete and return the survey. If this is the case, the results of the survey would not be projectable to the entire organization, and the generalizabilty of the study would

Table 1

Comparison of Subgroups on Major Study Variables

	Teaching Staff			Adm. and Support Staff			
Variable	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	t
Calc. Commmnt	89	24.5	7.8	103	25.2	5.9	.59
Aff. Commmnt	89	23.5	7.1	107	22.6	6.4	-.88
Mrl. Commmnt	91	20.8	4.8	104	22.3	4.5	1.12
Psnl. Impntce	82	11.6	3.1	97	11.3	3.1	-.71
Loyalty	90	25.4	2.8	105	23.5	2.9	-2.04
n Auty	93	20.4	4.1	105	18.5	3.5	-3.33**
n Affl	89	12.2	2.5	99	12.2	2.2	.20
Job Sat.	88	19.9	5.0	97	16.6	5.6	-4.13**
Org. Sat.	83	14.1	4.1	97	13.9	3.9	-.32
Int. Remain	74	10.9	7.4	80	13.3	6.9	1.94
Age	94	44.3	10.4	103	39.9	12.8	-2.60*
Job Tenure	91	8.3	7.1	103	5.5	6.0	-3.02**
Org. Tenure	92	10.1	7.8	107	7.7	6.9	-2.25*
Salary	94	5.7	1.3	106	3.7	1.4	-10.1**

*p<.05
**p<.01

be even more limited (Dimling, 1985).

Measures

Antecedents of Commitment

Investments in the organization. Investments in the organization were assessed with the following demographic/ personal variables: age, tenure, salary, number of dependents, and education. (cf. Ritzer and Trice, 1968; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972).

Need for autonomy and need for affiliation. The Manifest Needs Questionnaire (Steers & Braunstein, 1976) was used to measure needs for affiliation and autonomy. Steers and Braunstein (1976) present evidence of both convergent and discriminant validity from survey research, behavioral observation in natural settings, and laboratory studies. Each scale has five items. Two items were dropped from the affiliation scale, as they had negative item-total correlations for this sample. Cronbach's alpha was .62 for the need for autonomy scale and .42 for the need for affiliation scale (.25 with all five items).

Applying the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula (Walker and Lev, 1953) to these scales indicates that it would take four times as many items for the need for affiliation scale to attain acceptable reliability

(estimated alpha = .74) while twice as many items would be required for the need for autonomy scale (estimated alpha = .76). Despite the extensive validation work done by Steers and Braunstein (1976), it appears that additional items (or revision of the existing ones) are needed for a stable estimate of need for autonomy. In this regard, this scale should have been modified through pilot work for this study. The items for the need for affiliation scale are so hetereogeneous that four times as many items (20) are needed to attain an acceptable alpha. Given the constraints on questionnaire length, another measure of need for affiliation should have been used on this study.

It can also be noted that these scales had markedly low reliability in other studies (median alpha of .09 for need for affiliation and .43 for need for autonomy) (Jennings and Pitman, 1983).

The marginally low reliability of both of these scales will, of course, affect their observed relationships with other variables. Attenuated correlations with other variables can be expected.

Personal importance to the organization. Two items ("I feel that much of what I do is directly related to

helping achieve my organization's goals" and "I do not feel that I am a valued member of my organization.") were added to the sample item taken from Buchanan's (1974) questionnaire ("It is generally accepted by those who matter that my work is important to my organization.") to obtain a measure of personal importance. Cronbach's alpha was .71.

External group identification. Although a measure of external group identification is available (Rotondi, 1975), to obviate the problem of common method variance, respondents were asked to list the extra-work organizations to which they belong. They were summed to obtain a measure of external group identification.

Sense of loyalty and duty. The Social Responsibility Scale (Berkowitz and Litterman, 1968) was used as a measure of generalized loyalty and duty. Sample items include: "One should give time to community activities" and "I often feel bad when I fail to do something I said I would" which corresponds closely to Wiener's (1982) notion of generalized loyalty. Thus, although termed "social responsibility" the scale measures a sense of duty stemming from one's early socialization experiences (Berkowitz and Litterman, 1968).

Two items were excluded (from the eight original items) and four of the six remaining items were modified slightly in order to reduce the likelihood of responses being affected by concern with responding in a socially desirable manner. Specifically, "Every person should give some time for the good of one's town or country" was changed to "Everyone should donate some time for the good of one's community"; "Letting friends down is not so bad because you can't do good all the time for everybody" was changed to "Letting friends down may sometimes not be so bad because you can't always do good all the time for everybody"; "I feel very bad when I have failed to finish a job I promised I would do" was changed to "I usually feel very bad when I have failed to finish a job I promised I would do" and "It is the duty of every person to do their jobs the best they can" was changed to "People have an obligation to do their jobs the best they can."

Cronbach's alpha was .39. As, with the Manifest Needs questionnaire low reliability can be expected to attenuate observed relationships between this variable and the other variables in the study.

The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula indicates that

it would take four times as many items to attain an acceptable level of reliability (estimated alpha = .72). As such, this measure should have been modified through pilot work, or another measure of generalized loyalty should have been used.

Person-organization value congruence. Super's (1968) measure of work values as modified by Butler (1983) was used to measure person-organization value congruence. The scale taps the following values: intellectual stimulation, altruism, economic returns, independence, security, way of life, creativity, achievement, supervisory relations, aesthetics, management, surroundings, associates, prestige and variety.

To measure person-organization value congruence, the following item stems were added: To what extent do you think organizations should have these qualities? and To what extent are they present in the organization that you work for? The response format was along a five point scale ranging from "not at all" to "to a very great extent" with "to a considerable extent" as the midpoint.

A measure of person-organization value congruence was formed by subtracting the "to what extent are these qualities present in your organization?" item from the "to what extent should organizations have these

qualities?" item for each of the fifteen values. The possible range of scores thus was from 0 to 60. Scores were then reversed so that a high score indicated a greater degree of person-organization value congruence.

It can be noted that 95% of the discrepancies were in the positive direction (with reverse scoring). That is, 95% of the respondents felt their organizations did not possess as much of the characteristics measured as they thought organizations in general should. Since discrepancies were all in the same direction, there is no need to be concerned with the "direction" of the differences in these discrepancy scores.

Because these items are designed to measure distinct and qualitatively different organizational values, a measure of internal consistency reliability is not meaningful. Item stability for this measure must be assessed over time which, unfortunately, was not possible in this study.

Scale reliabilities of antecedents of commitment. It should be noted that those measures of "antecedents of commitment" that had low inter-item reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) are to be included in hypothesis testing. Although a good case can be made

for eliminating them from the study, they were retained for the following reasons: (a) low scale reliabilities increase the probability of Type II and not Type I errors thus leading to "conservative conclusions", and statisticians generally regard this as acceptable (cf. Neter and Wasserman, 1975); (b) hardly any data are available regarding the development and consequences of commitment types, and low scale reliabilities can be taken into account when interpreting the results; and (c) all of the measures which are troublesome have been flagged in the method and discussion chapters, and all conclusions reached have been done so with these low reliabilites in mind.

Measures of Commitment

Instrumental (continuance) commitment. Meyer and Allen's operationalization of Becker's (1960) concept of side-bets was used to measure instrumental commitment. The scale measures one's perceived ease of leaving one's organization based on accrued investments and does not correlate with affective commitment, unlike other measures of instrumental commitment, and thus does not confound these two commitment types (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Cronbach's alpha was .81. The scale had eight items.

Affective (cohesion) commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1984) eight-item measure was used to assess affective commitment. The scale taps one's emotional attachment to an organization and corresponds closely to Kanter's (1968) notion of cohesion commitment. Cronbach's alpha was .85.

Normative (control) commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1984) eight-item scale was used to measure normative commitment. The scale reflects an internalized duty to act in an organizationally sanctioned manner (Meyer and Allen, 1980) and asks respondents to indicate to what extent they believe a person should be loyal to his/her organization, and feels a duty to retain organizational membership. Cronbach's alpha was .65.

The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula indicates that it would take two additional items to raise alpha to a more acceptable level (estimated alpha = .70).

It can be noted that these commitment scales were developed by the same researchers. Although it might be argued that only a limited view of commitment is represented by these measures, this is clearly not the case. Meyer and Allen (1984) have taken great care to clarify the meaning of commitment and to develop

measures that reflect widely-accepted definitions of the concept. In addition, Meyer and Allen have taken great care to insure that their measures do not confound calculative and affective commitment. Given the problems with the definition of commitment (Morris and Sherman, 1981), it is important to select measures that have emerged from "programmatic research."

In addition, these scales have been selected because they are well suited to the objectives of the study [that is to examine the development and conseqeunces of each type of commitment in relation to the other commitment types, and to assess their potential as an alternative to the "multidimensional approach" (See Chapter 1 for a complete discussion)]. In this regard, this study is not "measures driven" (selection of the Organizational Commimtment Questionnaire, and hence a tacit acceptance of the multidimensional perspective, merely because others have done so) nor is it exploratory (inclusion of a host of potential antecedents without any compelling rationale), as much of the commitment research has been (cf. Morris and Sherman, 1981; Reichers, 1985).

That is, measures of commitment have been selected to the extent to which the provide an adequate operationalization of the commitment typology proposed by

Kanter (1968), and later refined by Patchen (1970), Rotondi (1975) and Wiener (1982). It can also be noted that this typology does not reflect an idiosyncratic, limited view of commitment in that it is broader than the psychological approach because both sociological and psychological dimensions of commitment are considered. Moreover, it is the only approach that includes all of the mechanisms thought to drive the commimtent process (rewards, affiliative ties and values), and to explicitly consider the effects of these mechanisms on both the individual and the organization. And, thus, it is the only approach to the study of organizational commitment to date which is (potentially) integrative.

Consequences of Commitment

Job satisfaction. Quinn and Staines' (1979) four-item scale was used to measure job satisfaction. It provides a measure of overall job satisfaction that is highly correlated with the Job Descriptive Index and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha was .82.

Organizational satisfaction. The company identification subscale consisting of five items of the Index of Organizational Reactions was used to measure

organizational satisfaction. Item analyses, factor analysis, reliability and validity evidence are reported by Dunham and Smith (1979). Although termed the "company identification" scale, it provides a measure of organizational satisfaction. Items assess one's "overall satisfaction" with the organization as well as the perception of the organization as a place to work relative to similar organizations thus providing a measure of organizational satisfaction. Cronbach's alpha ws .85.

Intent to retain organizational membership. Bluedorn's (1977) four item measure of intent to retain membership was used. Evidence of reliability and validity is presented by Bluedorn (1977). Cronbach's alpha was .93.

Performance and effectiveness. Performance data were gathered for full-time faculty only (as only teaching and research performance were assessed and these measures were not applicable to the rest of the sample). Two indices of individual performance were used: teaching effectiveness and research productivity.

Quality of performance was assessed by student-faculty course evaluation, copies of which respondents were asked to provide when returning the survey.

"Overall" rating, measured along a five-point scale, was used as a measure of teaching effectiveness.

Quantity of performance was assessed with a self-report item tapping the number of presentations, journal articles and books published or accepted for publication during the past three years. A composite measure was formed by weighting each component of research performance as follows: books were the equivalent of three journal articles, presentations were .5 journal articles and publications in non-refeered journals were .25 journal articles. This weighting system is based on the assumption that books require more effort to publish than do journal articles, and that refeered publications are more valuable than are non-referred publications. The weights are similar to those used by Stumpf (1980).

Statistical Analysis

Hypotheses One to Three were tested with multiple regression analysis using sets of independent variables. Independent variables can be grouped into sets for both design and conceptual reasons. In this case, they were grouped into sets because the variables that comprise the hypothesized antecedents of each type of commitment are related conceptually to each other, and thus can be

placed into meaningful groups. Age, education, salary, organizational tenure and number of children supported constitute what Becker (1960) refers to as organizational investments and thus constitute one logical grouping. Needs for affiliation and autonomy, personal importance, and identification with external organizations reflect the degree to which one "identifies" with the focal organization and thus constitue a second logical group. And finally, person-organization value congruence and the extent to which one feels that personal values must be adhered to constitue a third logical grouping. When this is the case, Cohen and Cohen (1975) suggest that independent variables be analyzed within these "sets."

The TEST subprogram of the NEW REGRESSION procedure within SPSS was used to build the regression models (See Table 2). First a simultaneous model including all of the variables hypothesized to be antecedent to commitment was built, yielding standardized regression weights for each of the individual variables, and the explained variance for the "full" (entire) model. The effect of the antecedent sets on commitment was then assessed by removing each of the antecedent sets from the full model and observing the decrement in explained variance. In so doing, it can be noted that those sets

of variables which are the "best" predictors of each type of commitment can be identified (Hull and Nie, 1981).

Interpretation is as follows: a significant decrease in explained variance indicates that an antecedent set is predictive of commitment (with greater decrements indicating greater predictive power). It can be noted that because the variance explained by an antecedent set is compared with the variance explained by the full model, it represents the effect of that predictor set on commitment while controlling for the effects of the other predictor sets (Cohen and Cohen, 1975).

Given that an antecedent set is predictive of commitment, inspection of the standardized regression weights of the variables which comprise the set indicates which variables are responsible for the decrease in explained variance. Because these weights are derived from the full model, it can be noted that they represent the effect of a particular variable on commitment while controlling for the effects of all the variables in the model, and not only those within the predictor set.

attain statistical significance are predicitive of commitment regardless of the "set" of which they are a part.

The remaining hypotheses (Hypotheses Four to Six) were also tested with multiple regression analysis. In this case, each commitment type served as an independent variable and the hypothesized consequences of commitment served as dependent variables. Heirarchical models were used, and the unique variance of each commitment type was estimated (Cohen and Cohen, 1975).

Finally, it may prove useful to examine the "mediating role" of commitment on the relationship between its hypothesized antecedents and consequences. These analyses must be done post hoc because it must first be established that it is plausible to assess the mediating effect of commitment (that is, the general antecedents--mediating variable--consequences framework must be supported). In other words, if commitment types are not associated with any of their hypothesized antecedents and consequences, it makes little sense to examine the "mediating role" of commitment.

If it is reasonable to examine the mediating effects of comitment, it is most profitably accomplished with partial correlation analysis.

Table 2

Overview of Regression Analysis for Hypothesized Antecedents of Commitment Types

Indedendent Variables	Dependent Variables
Variable Set:	Commitment Type:
Investments age salary org. tenure education number of children	Calculatve
Communion and Renunciation need for affiliation personal importance need for autonomy number of external orgs.	Affective
Value-Based loyalty person-org. value congruence	Moral

Note: Each commitment type was regressed on the antecedent sets. Commitment types are placed across from their hypothesized predictors.

As discussed earlier, these analyses are based on the assumption that commitment types are not interrelated (i.e. that there are three separate models of commitment). If this does not prove to be the case (i.e. commitment types are highly interrelated), it would be useful to construct a path model of organizational commitment (cf. Blalock, 1964).

Additionally, if (non-hypothesized) antecedents emerge as significant predictors of a non-corresponding commitment type, this greater complexity in the development of commitment can be modelled with path analysis.

Each of the proposed relationships in the path model would be treated as a causal hypothesis, the intent being to "fit" a system of structural equations to a set of empirical relationships. The outcome would be a singular process model of organizational commitment, incorporating all three aspects of commitment. However, as discussed in detail in Chapter IV, this alternative is one for future research pending the results of this study.

CHAPTER VI.

RESULTS

The findings of this study cover three major areas: (a) antecedents of commitment; (b) interrelationships among commitment types; and (c) consequences of commitment. In general, the results are only suggestive that there may be distinct types of commitment, and that differences among these types do not appear as clear cut as hypothesized.

Descriptive Statistics

Before turning to the major areas of the study, it is useful to provide descriptive data about the variables included in the analyses. Means and standard deviations for the variables in the study are summarized in Table 3.

Sample means for each of the three commitment measures approximated the scale midpoint, and there was little evidence of skewness.

As indicated in Table 3, the remaining variables in the study also approximated their scale midpoints with the exception of job satisfaction and personal importance to the organization. However, the distributions of even these two variables do not appear to be badly skewed.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of
Study Variables

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Scale Mid-Point
Age	197	42.00	11.97	---
Children Sptd.	199	.79	1.15	---
Salary	200	4.66	1.67	---
Education	202	4.12	1.34	---
Org. Tenure	199	8.82	7.41	---
External Orgs.	198	2.16	2.02	---
Psnl Imptce	179	11.47	3.05	9
N Affl	188	12.23	2.33	12
N Auty	199	19.22	4.01	20
Loyalty	195	23.93	2.91	18
Value Cong.	180	17.09	11.76	---
Calc. Comm.	192	24.91	6.86	21
Aff. Comm.	196	23.03	6.73	21
Moral Comm.	195	21.03	4.25	21
Int. to Remain	154	12.10	7.25	16
Job Sat.	185	18.15	5.60	15
Org. Sat.	179	13.99	7.01	15
Rsch. Perf.	84	3.85	3.49	---
Teach Perf.	25	4.28	.23	3

Intercorrelations among hypothesized antecedents and hypothesized consequences of commitment are presented in Tables 4 and 5.

Antecedents of Commitment

Formal tests of Hypotheses One to Three were conducted with multiple regression analysis. Pearson product-moment correlations between hypothesized antecedents of commitment and commitment types are presented in Appendix I, as are correlations between commitment and its hypothesized consequences. They are intended to provide an overview of the results, and to provide estimates of the relationship between commitment types and those variables which were not included in the regression equations because of extreme multicolinearity.

Additionally, correlations between commitment types and their hypothesized antecedents for each subsample (teaching staff vs. administrative and support staff) are presented in Appendix II. The pattern of relationships between commitment and its antecedents is consistent across subsamples providing additional justification for pooling the data, and suggesting that the processes leading to commitment are general in nature.

Table 4

Intercorrelations Among Antecedents of Commitment

(N=173)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Salary	---											
2. Org. Tenure	43**	---										
3. Job Tenure	46**	84**	---									
4. Age	42**	66**	58**	---								
5. Education	66**	02	12	05	---							
6. Children Supptd.	19**	03	04	10	15*	---						
7. Psnl Imptce.	06	-01	-07	02	08	15**	(71)					
8. n Affl.	07	-04	04	07	02	-01	21**	(42)				
9. n Auty	20**	-06	-03	04	24**	-09	-19**	-53**	(62)			
10. Ext Orgs.	02	28**	27**	23**	27**	12	02	07	06	(39)		
11. Loyalty	10	01	-02	10	16*	08	14*	19**	08	06	---	
12. Value Cong.	05	08	10	08	12	18**	44**	06	-18*	01	-03	---

Decimals omitted

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Scale reliabilities in parentheses

Table 5

Intercorrelations Among Consequences of Commitment

Variable	n	1	2	3	4	5
1. Int. to Remain	145	(93)				
2. Job Satis.	176	45**	(82)			
3. Org. Satis.	165	27**	50**	(85)		
4. Research Perf.	77	17	05	09	---	
5. Teaching Perf.	23	14	67**	41*	-30	---

Decimals Omitted

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Scale reliabilities in parentheses

Because the hypothesized antecedents of each commitment type represent alternative commitment models, it is most appropriate to enter them into the regression equation as sets, and not as individual variables (cf. Cohen and Cohen, 1975). To accomplish this, the TEST subprogram of the NEW REGRESSION procedure of SPSS was used (Hull and Nie, 1981).

The sets of independent variables are as follows: (a) investments in the organization was comprised of age, salary and organizational tenure, education and number of children supported; (b) communion and renunciation were comprised of personal importance to the organization, needs for affiliation and achievement, and membership in external organizations; and (c) value-based antecedents were comprised of person-organization value congruence and generalized loyalty and duty.

Regression of calculative commitment on each of these three sets of variables provides moderate support for Hypotheses 1a and 1b. As indicated in Table 6, those variables associated with investments in the organization were predictive of calculative commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .12$; $F = 4.07$; $p < .01$). More significantly, only organizational investments were predictive of

calculative commitment thus supporting Hypothesis 1b.

Specifically, calculative commitment was significantly related to two of the five investment variables: age and organizational tenure (Beta = .28 and .32 respectively; $p<.01$).

The results regarding affective commitment are less clear. As expected, those variables associated with communion and renunciation processes were predictive of affective commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .16$; $F=9.02$ $p<.01$). However, the two other predictor sets also yielded statistically significant results. In particular, value-based antecedents were also predictive of affective commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .06$; $F=6.25$ $p<.01$) as were investments in the organization ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $F=2.51$ $p<.05$). (See Table 7).

Moreover, only one of the variables included in communion and renunciation processes--personal importance to the organization--attained statistical significance (Beta=.47; $p<.01$).

To summarize: as hypothesized, communion and renunciation processes were predictive of affective commitment; investments in the organization and value-based antecedents were also predictive of affective commitment; and the magnitude of the effect within the hypothesized set of predictors was due to one only variable.

Table 6

Regression of Calculative Commitment
on Antecedent Sets
(N=135)

Antecedent Set removed from the full model	decrement R^2 in R	df	F	Beta	R^2 a
					.40
Investments	.13	5	4.07**		
age				.28**	
org. tenure				.32**	
salary				.08	
education				.17	
children supported				.01	
Communion and Renunciation	.03	4	1.02		
naffl				.11	
nauty				.17	
psnl imptce				-.10	
ext. orgs.				-.01	
Value-Based	.01	2	.80		
val con				.11	
loyalty				.06	

* p.< 05
** p(.01

a-for the full model

Table 7

Regression of Affective Commitment
on Antecedent Sets
(N=135)

Antecedent Set removed from the full model	decrement in R^2	df	F	Beta	R^a
					.68
Investments	.03	5	2.51*		
age				.13	
salary				.16	
org. tenure				-.01	
education				-.20*	
children supported				-.02	
Communion and Renunciation	.16	4	9.02**		
n affl				.03	
nauty				.09	
ext orgs				.03	
psnl imptce				.47**	
Value Based	.06	2	6.25**		
val con				.27**	
loyalty				.09	

* p<.05
** p<.01

a-for the full model

Consequently, Hypothesis 2 was only partially supported and Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

Turning to moral commitment, those variables reflective of personal and organizational values were not, as hypothesized, associated with normative commitment (ΔR^2 =.001;F=.37). The only variable set associated with moral commitment was that which had been hypothesized to associated with calculative commitment--those tied to one's investments in the organization (ΔR^2 =.07;F=2.40 $p<.01$). (Although only one variable, age, was associated with moral commitment [Beta = .24;$p<$ .05]). Hypotheses 3 and 3a thus were not supported (See Table 8).

Interrelationships Among Commitment Types

As expected, and consistent with prior research (Meyer and Allen, 1984), calculative commitment was not correlated with either affective (r= -.05) or moral commitment (r=.04). Only a moderate correlation between affective and moral commitment was observed (r=.39)

It seems reasonable, therefore, to conclude that the assumption of independence among commitment types (Kanter, 1968) on which the model presented in Figure 2 is based is tenable. (See Table 9).

Table 8

Regression of Moral Commitment
on Antecedent Sets
(N=135)

Antecedent Set removed from the full model	decrement in R^2	df	F	Beta	R^a
					.40
Investments	.07	5	2.40*		
age				.24*	
salary				-.13	
org. tenure				.01	
education				-.16	
children supported				.04	
Communion and Renunciation	.04	4	1.22		
n affl.				-.13	
n auty				-.19	
ext. orgs.				-.03	
psnl. imptce				.11	
Value-Based	.001	2	.37		
val. con.				.04	
loyalty				-.06	

* p .05
** p .01

a-for the full model

Table 9

Intercorrelations Among Commitment Types

Commitment Type	1.	2.	3.
1. Calculative	---- (192)		
2. Affective	-.05 (190)	---- (196)	
3. Moral	.04 (190)	.39 ** (193)	---- (195)

** $p < .01$
N in parentheses

Consequences of Commitment

Consequences of commitment include both attitudinal (job satisfaction, organizational satisfaction and intent to retain organizational membership) and individual performance variables (teaching and research performance). The latter were collected only for the full-time teaching staff which comprised about one half of the sample.

In general, commitment was related to other work attitudes in a consistent and meaningful fashion, the exception being that of moral commitment.

Only two of the three commitment types--calculative and affective--were related to intent to retain organizational membership providing only partial support for Hypothesis 4. As indicated in Table 10, calculative commitment was the strongest predictor of intent to remain, (Beta = .40;p .01) but its effect was not much greater than that of affective commitment (Beta = .37;p< .01).

With regard to affective responses to work, affective commitment emerged as the only significant predictor of job and organizational satisfaction (Beta = .49 and .37 respectively;p<.01). Hypothesis 5 was

Table 10

Multiple Regression of Intent to Remain on Commitment Types (N=110)

Commitment Type	Beta	Unique Variance	R	Explained Variance
Calculative	.40 **	.15	.53	.28
Affective	.37 **	.12		
Moral	.03	.001		

** p<.01

thus supported. It is of course possible that this result is largely a result of common method variance (See Table 11 and 12).

Turning to the relationship between commitment and research performance, all of the commitment types were unrelated to job performance. As indicated in Table 13, commitment explained less than one percent of the variance in research performance, and of course, moral commitment was not associated with research performance. Moral commitment was also not associated with student-rated teaching performance, and thus Hypothesis 6 was not supported. ($r=..24; p<.05$) (See Table 14).

Affective commitment however was related to student-rated teaching performance in direct opposition to Hypothesis 5 ($r=.42$ $p<.05$). A sample size of 24, however, is too small for any definite conclusions to be reached, especially when the response rate of 25% for this variable is considered (24 of the 94 members of the teaching staff provided this information).

The Mediating Role of Commitment

As with most prior studies on this topic, an antecedents--mediating variable--consequences model of commitment was proposed. Because the pattern of results supports this implicit model it is appropriate to examine

Table 11

Multiple Regression of Job Satisfaction on Commitment Types (N=110)

Commitment Type	Beta	Unique Variance	R	Explained Variance
Calculative	.07	.006	.59	.35
Affective	.49 **	.30		
Moral	-.001	.001		

** p<.01

Table 12

Multiple Regression of Organizational Satisfaction on Commitment Types (N=110)

Commitment Type	Beta	Unique Variance	R	Explained Variance
Calculative	-.07	.01	.66	.427
Affective	.37 **	.35		
Moral	-.003	.001		

** p<.01

Table 13

Multiple Regression of Research Performance on Commitment Types (N=77)

Commitment Type	Beta	R
Calculative	-.03	.05
Affective	.03	
Moral	.01	

Table 14

Correlations Between Commitment Types and Teaching Performance

Commitment Type	r	n
Calculative	.05	23
Affective	.42 *	24
Moral	.24	24

* $p < .05$

(post hoc) the mediating effect of commitment on the relationship between its hypothesized antecedents and consequences. (Had significant relationships between commitment and its hypothesized antecedents, and commitment and its hypothesized consequences not been observed, support for this model would not have been indicated. That is, if the hypothesized links between commitment and its antecedents and commitment and its consequences do not emerge, it makes little sense to investigate the "mediating effect" of commitment.)

The intent of this analysis is to examine the degree to which relationships between hypothesized antecedents and consequences of commitment remain statistically significant when the effect of commitment is controlled for (partialled out). If significant relationships between hypothesized antecedents and consequences of commitment become non-significant when commitment is held constant, a mediating role for commitment is suggested; that is, relationships between antecedents and consequences of commitment is mediated by their linkages to commitment. If the mediating effect of commitment is more limited (observed relationships are reduced, but they remain statistically

significant), it suggests that variables in addition to commitment influence the relationships between its hypothesized antecedents and consequences.

As indicated in Tables 15 to 17, when commitment is partialled out, the relationships between hypothesized antecedents and consequences are lowered although in most cases, the partial correlations retain statistical significance.

These findings provide only limited support for the implicit "mediating role" of affective commitment, and little support for the other commitment types. Consequently, variables in addition to commitment appear to influence the relationship between its hypothesized antecedents and consequences.

Finally, to further assess the mediating effect of commitment, the relationship between commitment types and its hypothesized consequences while controlling for the effects of hypothesized antecedents was assessed. As indicated in Appendix IV., only calculative commitment remains significantly related to intent to remain once the effects of the antecedents of commitment are partialled out. Additionally, affective commitment remained significantly related to organizational satisfaction once antecedents of commitment were controlled for, but

Table 15

Partial Correlation Analysis
Antecedents of Commitment and Intent to Remain

(N=141)

Variable	r[b]	First-Order Partials[a] Calculative Commitment	Affective Commitment	Moral Commitment	Third Order Partial
Org. Tenure	.32**	.26**	.27**	.31**	.19*
Salary	.31**	.33**	.25**	.36**	.24**
n auty	-.14	-.15	-.09	-.09	-.12
n affl	.12	.13	.08	.12	.12
Per. Imptce.	.20*	.26**	.00	.18*	.04
Ext. Orgs.	.27**	.29**	.23**	.28**	.22**
Val. Con.	.43**	.44**	.31**	.42**	.30**
Loyalty	.06	.07	.01	.06	.02

* $p<.05$
** $p<.01$

a First-order partial with each commitment type.

b with intent to remain

Table 16

Partial Correlation Analysis
Antecedents of Commitment and Job Satisfaction

(N=161)

Variable	r[b]	First-Order Partials[a] Calculative Commitment	Affective Commitment	Moral Commitment	Third Order Partial
Org. Tenure	.14	.13	.03	.12	.02
Salary	.32**	.32**	.25**	.34**	.24**
n auty	-.09	-.09	-.02	-.04	-.05
n affl	.13	.13	.09	.13	.08
Per. Imptce.	.50**	.50**	.30**	.48**	.30**
Ext. Orgs.	.21**	.21**	.16*	.23**	.15
Val. Con.	.50**	.50**	.33**	.49**	.31**
Loyalty	.14	.14	.09	.15	.08

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

a First-order partials with each commitment type.

b with job satisfaction

Table 17

Partial Correlation Analysis
Antecedents of Commitment and Organizational Satisfaction

(N=159)

Variable	r[b]	First-Order Partials[a] Calculative Commitment	Affective Commitment	Moral Commitment	Third Order Partial
Org. Tenure	-.03	.00	.00	-.06	.00
Salary	.05	.04	.04	.06	.03
n auty	-.11	-.11	-.03	-.05	-.03
n affl	-.05	-.03	-.05	-.05	-.03
Per. Imptce.	.57**	.56**	.36**	.55**	.35**
Ext. Orgs.	.03	.03	-.07	.04	-.08
Val. Con.	.49**	.50**	.28**	.48**	.29**
Loyalty	.16*	.16*	.10	.17	.09

* p<.05
** p<.01

a First-order partial with each commitment type.

b with organizational satisfaction

not to intent to remain and to job satisfaction.

As with the prior partial correlation analysis, only moderate support for the implicit mediating effect of commitment is indicated.

CHAPTER VII:
DISCUSSION

Almost a decade ago, Steers (1977) observed that progress in understanding organizational commitment had been hampered by the absence of a theoretical framework to guide commitment research. This lack of a conceptual model of commitment has resulted in a stream of research that is mostly atheoretical, producing a host of predictor variables and little understanding of why they are predictive of commitment. (Morris and Sherman, 1981; Reichers, 1985).

Although the growing concern with the need for a model of commitment has not yet altered the atheoretical character of commitment research, it has lead to re-examination and re-thinking about what organizational commitment is and what it means to be committed to an organization. And there has been increased interest in developing measures of commitment which accurately reflect the properties ascribed to it (cf. Ferris and Aranya, 1983; Meyer and Allen, 1984).

The central issues surrounding organizational commitment thus remain those which Steers raised in his 1977 paper and include: (a) the meaning and measurement

of commitment; (b) antecedents of commitment; and (c) consequences of commitment.

The discussion is focused on the implications of this study with regard to these key problem areas. It then turns to suggestions for future research and examines the limitations of the study.

Meaning and Measurement of Organizational Commitment

The most central and most difficult question concerning organizational commitment is definitional; what it means psychologically to be committed to an organization. As discussed in detail earlier (See Chapter II.), researchers have either painted with very broad strokes, seemingly combining several commitment types into a confused "global" concept (the multidimensional perspective) or have proposed limited, and thus limiting, definitions (the unidimensional perspective).

More specifically, the multidimensional perspective is based on the assumption that commitment is a global concept containing calculative, affective and/or moral elements. Support for this position requires that observed relationships among commitment types are moderate to high indicating that there is a common

thread running through the elements which are hypothesized to define commitment.

Conversely, a unidimensional perspective is based on the assumption that commitment takes only one form--be it calculative, affective or moral. Support for a unidimensional perspective, therefore, requires that only one form of commitment emerge. That is, for only one form of commitment to be associated with the all of the hypothesized antecedents and consequences of commitment.

This study does not support either view. With regard to the multidimensional perspective, the low to moderate correlations observed among commitment types suggest that they are distinct, and should not be subsumed under a broader concept. More importantly, calculative commitment had unique antecedents--investments in the organization--indicating that it presents an analytically distinct problem. Grouping commitment types into a multidimensional concept may, therefore, lead to confusion about how commitment develops, as it may not be possible to disentangle and organize its hypothesized antecedents.

The unidimensional perspective, and the more limited definitions of commitment stemming from it, was

not supported either. Both calculative and affective commitment appear to be necessary to understand the processes associated with the development and consequences of organizational commitment. Despite the assertions of several writers (Becker, 1960; Sheldon, 1971) that commitment is solely calculative, this study suggests that affective commitment is associated with the processes by which members become to feel that they belong to their organizations, and with affective work outcomes such as job and organizational satisfaction.

To understand commitment fully, it may be necessary to consider several types of person-organization attachment, and not only one. Consequently, to limit commitment to either an instrumental, or affective or moral state might overlook the other salient aspects of person-organization attachment.

To summarize: Kanter's (1968) hypothesis that each commitment type presents an analytically distinct problem appears to have gained some support. Consequently, it may be useful to view attitudinal commitment in terms of Kanter's (1968) commitment typology, and to study it from this perspective.

The implications of these findings for the

measurement of organizational commitment are clear. Distinct commitment types require non-overlapping, internally-consistent measures.

Given the problems associated with the measurement of work attitudes in general (response sets, priming, poor stability over time; cf. Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978) and the ever-present problem of common method variance, this is no easy task. In this regard, it is imperative that the properties of each commitment type be stated precisely. Fuzzy notions of commitment types are bound to lead to concepts, and hence measures, that overlap.

Meyer and Allen (1984) have been aware of the problems in measuring distinct commitment types. They have apparently developed a homogeneous measure of calculative commitment in that it was not confounded with either affective or moral commitment in their research or in this study. Additional work especially with regard to the measurement of moral commitment is, however, needed.

Development and Consequences of Commitment

Because commitment types were only moderatelty related in this study, it is useful to consider each form of commitment separately. Calculative commitment is

considered first and then the discussion turns to the other two forms of commitment-- affective and moral.

Calculative commitment. Although Becker's (1960) notion of side-bets has received some attention in the management and the sociological literature (cf. Ritzer and Trice, 1968; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972), calculative commitment has not been studied in relation to other commitment types, and more importantly, in relation to antecedents not tied directly to organizational investments.

As with prior studies, calculative commitment was associated with organizational investments (especially age and tenure). And investments emerged as the only significant predictor of calculative commitment (See Table 6).

It is especially important that calculative commitment was not associated with antecedents attributed to other commitment types. Several studies have been designed with this implicit assumption, (cf. Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1970; Sheldon, 1972), but this is the first study that provides direct evidence that calculative commitment is related only to organizational investments.

In this study, the only investments that had a significant effect on calculative commitment were organizational tenure and age. It is likely, however, that different types of "investments" will be more or less predictive of calculative commitment as a function of both personal and organizational characteristics. Researchers interested in reward-based commitment would do well to study the relative effects of specific investments to see if any patterns emerge.

Finally, it should be noted that organizational investments were also predictive of the other two commitment types. That is, while investments are uniquely predictive of calculative commitment, investments also are predictive of the other two commitment types.

With regard to the consequences of calculative commitment, Becker's (1960) side-bets notion is clearly supported. As expected, clearly supporting Hypothesis 4, calculative commitment was associated only with intent to retain organizational membership. In fact, it had the largest effect on "intent to remain" among the three commitment types, and was unrelated to affective work outcomes (job and organizational satisfaction) and to individual performance.

To summarize: there appears to be a reasonably distinct form of person-organization attachment that is governed by the perceived value of organizational investments, and which acts to hold members to an organization as a function of the perceived value of their investments.

Affective commitment. Affective commitment refers to an emotional attachment to an organization (cf. Kanter, 1968; Wiener, 1982) and thus should be associated with those processes which draw one into an organization and which lead to severance with other organizations.

This study, however, provides only modest support for the notion that affective commitment was associated with communion processes; that is, the processes by which an emotional bond with the focal organization is formed. Moreover, affective commitment was not associated with renunciation--the processes through which ties with competing organizations are severed.

It should be also noted that only one of the variables associated with communion and renunciation processes (personal importance) attained statistical significance. Given that measures of two of the other

variables hypothesized to be related to affective commitment (needs for affiliation and autonomy) had low reliabilities, it is not clear if these variables are not associated with affective commitment, or if a significant relationship was not observed because of the measures used to assess these variables. Thus the processes leading to the development of affective commitment are not entirely clear.

Moreover, contrary to expectations, affective commitment was also associated with organizational investments and with person-organization value congruence. Although communion and renunciation accounted for nearly three times as much variance in affective commitment than did organizational investments and value-based antecedents, interpreting this difference as meaningful would be misleading because the effect of "communion and renunciation" was due to only one variable--personal importance. Consequently, the relative effect of communion and renunciation processes cannot be meaningfully assessed because the variables indicative of these processes were not predictive of affective commitment (see Table 7).

It is not clear why this pattern of results emerged. Methodological considerations (especially common method

variance) are one possibility, but it is unlikely that biases inherent in survey research are solely responsible for this pattern of results. A more appropriate interpretation is that the processes leading to affective commitment need to be explored further. Communion and renunciation processes appear to be tied to the development of affective commitment, but whether they are its sole determinants remains a question for future research.

The consequences of affective commitment appear to be much clearer. As expected, affective commitment was positively associated with intent to retain organizational membership, its effect only slightly smaller than that of calculative commitment. Calculative commitment accounted for 18 % of the unique variance in intent to remain while affective commitment accounted for 13 % .

Additionally, as expected, affective commitment emerged as the sole predictor of both job satisfaction and organizational satisfaction accounting for the majority of the explained variance in each (34 % and 36 % respectively).

To summarize: there may be a second distinct form

of attachment to organizations based on the formation of affiliative ties. Its development is hypothetically governed by communion and renunciation processes, and possibly by organizational investments and organizational socialization.

With regard to consequences, affective commitment is associated with intent to retain organizational membership, and with job and organizational satisfaction.

Moral commitment. Although much attention has recently been focused on organizational value systems (cf. Peters and Waterman, 1983), not much is known about value-based attachment to organizations. Unfortunately, the present study is of little help in clarifying the development or consequences of normative commitment.

Moral commitment was not related to either of its hypothesized antecedents: generalized loyalty and duty; and person-organization value congruence. Contrary to expectations, moral commitment was associated with organizational investments, which accounted for considerably more variance in moral commitment than did either of the other two antecedent sets.

There are several possible explanations for this finding. One possibility is that the measures of the

antecedents of normative commitment were flawed. The measure of generalized loyalty and duty had surprisingly low internal consistency (α = .39) which will tend to lower observed relationships with other variables in the study. Consequently, it is not clear if generalized loyalty and duty is not associated with moral commitment or if the concept was not adequately operationalized. Given the low scale reliability, it is inaccurate to suggest that Wiener's (1982) hypothesis that a generalized sense of loyalty and duty is related to moral commitment was not supported. Measurement of the other hypothesized antecedent of moral commitment, person-organization value congruence, was also problematic. The measure used here was an adaptation of Super's (1968) measure of work values, and may have confounded utility (valued outcomes) with organizational values. That is, respondents may desire "interesting work" or "good supervision," and thus may rate them highly, but may not feel that these qualities are central tenets of organizational life (that organizations ought to provide them). However, if this were the case the "organizations should have this quality" items should correlate with calculative

commitment indicating that utility was being tapped, and they did not (r=.02).

A second possibility is that normative commitment was not adequately operationalized. Most of the items in Meyer and Allen's (1984) scale refer to the ethics involved in leaving one's present organization. These items may not adequately reflect all that Wiener's (1982) notion of normative attachment to organizations implies; as a perceived moral superiority of the focal organization relative to others and in an absolute sense.

A third possibility is that of sampling error. The (college) organization from which respondents were sampled may not be what Peters and Waterman refer to as a "high culture" organization. Thus, organizational values may have been ill-defined and/or not salient to most organizational members. In addition, one half of the sample was comprised of university professors. It is possible that this group identifies with the values of their profession so that the concept of moral commitment to a work organization has little meaning to them (although this group was no less morally committed than the administrative and support staff, See Table 1). These high status participants may also perceive that

prevailing organizational value systems are detrimental to the organization while still asserting the moral superiority of their organizations thereby accounting for the lack of relationship between value congruence and moral commitment.

Finally, it is possible that the concept of normative attachment to work organizations has little meaning to most people. While it is reasonable to suggest that commitment stems from rewards or from affiliative ties, commitment derived from moral values may not be as plausible as some writers have suggested (i.e. Wiener, 1982).

The findings regarding the consequences of moral commitment are no more encouraging. Moral commitment was not associated with any of the hypothesized consequences of commitment. It had virtually no effect on intent to retain organizational membership or on individual performance.

The latter finding is not surprising since commitment in general and moral commitment in particular have not been found to be related to performance in other studies (Steers, 1977; Rotondi, 1975). The former finding is very much unexpected, particularly when the

nature of the items tapping moral commitment are considered. Most of these items are focused on continued organizational membership, yet moral commitment was unrelated to intent to remain, accounting for less than one percent of the unique variance. (See Table 10).

Any definite conclusions at this time would be premature. Given that the concept of normative attachment to organizations is reasonalbly well grounded in theory and that recent interest has been expressed in concepts closely related to it (organizational socialization, organizational culture), normative commitment ought not to be abandoned. Although the results of this study provide no support for the notion of moral commitment, and the problems it raises are serious, additional research is needed before any definite conclusions can be reached.

Additional Implications

This study suggests that there are two distinct forms of commitment--calculative and affective--and possibly a third--moral. Commitment processes, therefore, may be more complex than initially thought, and researchers may need to be more sensitive to distinctions among the various forms of commitment.

The implications of these findings for the meaning and measurement, and the antecedents and consequences of commitment have been discussed; they need not be repeated here. One important issue, the question of a progression of attachment to organizations, remains.

Because commitment types appear to be distinct, the question of whether a developmental sequences among commitment types is present becomes relevant. In other words, the possibility of one form of commitment being antecedent to the other commitment types ought to be considered.

The most appropriate research design for investigating potential developmental sequences among commitment types is a longitudinal study, preferably with new organization members. This design allows commitment at organizational entry to be tracked through early employment, and hopefully beyond. The level and antecedents of each commitment type would be studied to determine if any one form of commitment emerges as predictive of the others.

Because this study was cross-sectional, potential developmental sequences must be investigated indirectly. This is most profitably accomplished with causal

modelling techniques (path analysis). In a path model, developmental sequences among endogeneous variables are evaluated on the basis of observed realtionships among them (Blalock, 1964).

As moral commitment was not associated with any of the hypothesized antecedents and consequences of commitment in this study, it would probably drop out of a path model of commitment. Given that the remaining commitment types--calculative and affective--were not related (r=.02), this study suggests that a developmental sequence among commitment types is not present, on the basis, of course, of this sample and these methods.

Examination of "commitment profiles" for high, moderate and low tenure groups supports the conclusions form the analysis of relationships among commitment types. As indicated in Appendix III., the only form of commitment which appears to build over time is calculative commitment--presumably because of increased investments. The other two commitment types do not appear to change in magnitude as a function of organizational tenure. This pattern was consistent across the two occupational groups: teaching staff and administrative and support staff.

It can also be noted that age was positively associated with both calculative and affective commitment. In the case of calculative commitment, this relationship probably reflects increased organizational investments. However, the significant relationship between age and affective commitment might be indicative of individual development, and this possibility should be explored.

Interestingly, in a study of utopian communities using a qualitative research methodology, Kanter (1968) concluded that each type of commitment presents an analytically distinct problem. With different methods, and with a considerably different sample, Kanter (1968) also found that commitment types were unrelated. And in the management literature, similar findings were reported by Wiener and Yovash (1980) and Kidron (1978).

Two studies, however, are hardly definitive. The question of a developmental sequence among commitment types must remain open pending additional research, but future studies can be designed similar to this one, operating under the assumption that commitment types are unrelated.

This study also has implications for human

resources management. Most notably, and consistent with prior research, significant relationships between commitment and individual performance did not emerge, as measured by research productivity for this sample of college professors.

It should be noted that a significant correlation between affective commitment and student-rated teaching performance was observed ($r=.42$). However, this correlation is based on a sample size of 24, and non-response bias is evident (only those respondents with good teaching evaluations appear to have supplied these data). As such, affective commitment is, at best, related to performance only for good performers (cf. Bradunn, 1985).

Affective commitment was either unrelated or related negatively to performance in other studies (cf. Rotondi, 1975), and there is not sufficient sample size to regress teaching performance on all three commitment types. To make matters even more confusing, non-response error has probably restricted the range of the teaching performance variable, thereby attenuating the observed commitment performance relationship. Consequently, this finding is difficult to interpret, but to take it at face value is probably a mistake.

As such, it seems that the common assumption that committed employees are more productive than are less committed employees is, at least, open to question as a valid generalization. While building commitment into an organization may be beneficial, increased productivity may not necessarily be one of the benefits.

The emergence of distinct forms of person-organization attachment also has implications for human resources management. Starting with reward-based attachment, the findings of this study suggest that organizations pay close attention to the (inevitable) effects of increasing organizational investments. Research focused on calculative commitment (cf. Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Sheldon, 1972) and confirmed by this study indicates that as one's investments in an organization increase, one's intention to leave steadily decreases.

This study extends prior research in that it indicates that calculatively committed employees are not necessarily more satisfied or more productive than their less committed counterparts. Although "committed" in the sense of being less likely to leave, such

employees are not necessarily an asset to their organizations. In fact, it is possible that they may perceive themselves as being "stuck" (they have no place to go), and the commitment generated by the investments which hold them into the system is not necessarily translated into enhanced individual performance.

Thus, human resources programs, especially career management systems, must be designed with the long-term employee in mind. It is important to keep these employees motivated and productive especially in light of their disinclination to leave.

In addition, from a systemic perspective, it must be recognized that a portion of the membership of every organization is locked in; that is, committed in the sense of not being able to leave, but not necessarily wanting to stay. Whether this is viewed as a problem or not depends on one's perspective and the rate at which the organization is facing pressure for change, but it is certainly a situation human resources managers need to understand.

Turning to affective commitment, it appears that affective commitment has implications for the psychological contract associated with organizational membership. This study suggests that at least some

organizational members view their relationship to their organizations in more than instrumental terms. That is, the work organization is viewed almost as a surrogate family, providing a sense of belonging to a larger community.

Members attached to the organization in this manner are likely to view most events in the organization differently from those whose attachment is solely reward-based or from those who are not committed at all. At the very least, their understanding of the psychological contract is likely to be much different from that of other organizational members. More specifically, those members who are affectively committed are likely to feel that the organization has a greater responsibility to its employees than those who are not committed or who are calculatively committed.

Although affective commitment is is related to satisfaction with the job and with the organization), it is also possible that affectively committed members avoid conflict (even when such conflicts can be constructive) and are less likely to acknowledge problems facing the organization. This is because members of a group who place great value on group

membership often distort potentially threatening information and actively suppress intra-group conflict (Janus and Mann, 1970).

To summarize: human resources managers should come to understand differences among commitment types and reach a decision about how they wish to build commitment into their organizations. While commitment is generally regarded as having only positive consequences, it must be recognized that (unintended) negative consequences may result as well.

Suggestions for Future Research

Relatively few researchers have studied separate commitment types, relying instead on the multidimensional perspective to guide commitent research. Because this study is focused on distinct commitment types, it provides several new directions for research which do not follow from the present literature.

Suggestions for future research are focused on (but not restricted to) the primary problem areas associated with the study of commitment: its measurement, development and consequences.

Turning first to measurement issues, this study suggests that the measurement of commitment is more

complex than commonly thought. Most researchers concerned with measurement issues have compared several commitment measures with regard to their psychometric properties and intercorrelations, and then have recommended the use of one of them [usually Porter et. al.'s (1974) measure] (cf. Ferris and Aranya, 1983).

This study suggests that it may be advisable to develop as many as three measures of commitment (one for each commitment type). At present, it seems that an adequate measure of calculative commitment is available, but additional work is needed on the measurement of affective and (particularly) normative commitment. A measure of normative commitment designed specifically to assess the concept as defined by Wiener (1982) is still not available.

Until sound measures of each commitment type are developed, it is not possible to determine if failure to support a proposed model of commitment is the result of an inadequate model or of inadequate measurement.

A second promising area for future research is the development of commitment. Unlike prior research, which has attempted to link a wide variety of antecedents to a

global notion of commitment, the present study suggests that specific antecedents may be associated with each commitment type.

These relationships, however, need to be explored further. While antecedents of calculative commitment are clear conceptually and well represented in the commitment literature, the development (and hence the antecedents) of affective and moral commitment needs to be examined further.

More specifically, communion and renunciation processes are fairly complex and need to be studied from a broader conceptual base than psychological predispositions (i.e. needs). For example, involvement in social networks and experiencing the organization as a source of affiliative satisfaction are likely to influence affective commitment. Thus, issues such as the segmentation of work and nonwork, work vs. play, and expected and actual organizational life from the perspective of social satisfactions are seemingly relevant to understanding the development of affective commitent.

Similarly, the complexities of person-organization value congruence as influences of moral commitment need to be examined further. At present, it is not clear

if a small set of values influences normative commitment for most people of if the values which are salient in everyday organizational life vary widely across people, and are more diffuse. It is also not clear how normative commitment is affected when members identify with some organizational values, but are opposed to others.

Longitudinal research is also clearly needed. Although calls for longitudinal studies are common in most areas of organizational psychology (and are rarely met), it is not possible to fully understand the development of commitment within the limitations of cross-sectional research. As noted earlier, longitudinal research is needed to study potential developmental sequences among commitment types, and to establish attitudinal commitment as an enduring psychological state with behavioral consequences (cf. Leik and Leik, 1976).

Turning to consequences of commitment, further exploration of the commitment-performance relationship is necessary. To this point, and much to the surprise of most researchers, commitment has not been related to individual performance. Why this is so is not

entirely clear. One possibility is that commitment is related to effort, but not to performance (i.e. committed employees exert more effort than do those who are less committed, but it is not translated into results). Thus, it may be useful to study the relationship between the determinants of performance (e.g. ability and effort) and commitment as well as the commitment-performance relationship.

Finally, a broader range of research techniques is needed if a more complete understanding of commitment is to be gained. Virtually all of the commitment research (including this study) has had the same design (quantitative attitude surveys). Qualitative techniques, especially in-depth interviews, seem useful in better understanding what commitment means, and are likely to prove useful in developing/modifying commitment measures. Additionally, participant-observer designs are likely to be useful in tracking social networks in organizations and in examining their influence on affective commitment.

Certainly quantitative survey research should be continued, but not at the expense of other techniques and other potentially valuable sources of data.

Limitations of the Study

This study is similar to the vast majority of research on the topic of organizational commitment in that it is an attitude survey using a cross-sectional design. Several limitations, all of which are well known and well documented, stem directly from that research design (cf. Kerlinger, 1979).

More specifically, the variables in the study were measured with self-report items along Likert-type scales. As such, observed relationships between commitment and its hypothesized antecedents, and commitment and its hypothesized consequences are subject to the influence of common method variance. Common method variance can either artificially inflate and/or decrease relationships among variables, and the results must be interpreted with this in mind.

Additionally, as with all self-report measures, a response set can be created based on the content and order in which questions are asked (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978). Because commitment items were asked first (and they focused on the importance of one's attachment to an organization), a "set" might have been created which increased the salience of organizational membership, and hence the importance of having favorable

work attitudes. If such a set were present, relationships between commitment and its hypothesized antecedents and consequences would be inflated. While this is the most likely response set, others of course also may have been present.

Although this study suggests that commitment types are distinct, it must be recognized that these biases were present, and that the results of future studies (with the same measures) may be considerably different.

Some of the measures used in this study were modified to measure concepts they were not originally intended to assess, and this must be kept in mind when interpreting the findings. Most notably, person-organization value congruence was measured by adapting Super's (1968) measure of work values (which may not correspond directly to the notion of person-organization value congruence). Given the difficulty associated with measuring this concept (Hofstede, 1975), and the failure of person-organization value congruence to correlate with normative commitment, it is not clear how adequately this concept was tapped.

Similarly, the measure of generalized loyalty and duty was troublesome. Its unacceptably low level of reliability did not provide an adequate test of the

hypothesis regarding moral commitment. Additionally, two other measures had low reliability: need for affiliation and need for autonomy.

Finally, with regard to measurement issues, performance was assessed with a self-report measure. An indicator of this type is, of course, less desirable than a more objective measure, and the results regarding individual performance must be viewed with this in mind.

The design of the study also does not permit trends in the development of commitment to be explored. The low correlations observed among commitment types suggest that they are independent, but to fully resolve this question, it is necessary to study the development of commitment(s) over time.

Lastly, it should be noted that the sample restricted. It included full-time teaching staff, and administrators and support personnel from a large, public university. Generalizability, therefore, may be limited especially since there is no analog of the "tenured professor" in most other organizations. However, the processes leading to commitment are general in nature and should be present in most work organizations regardless of their missions and charactersitics. For

example, processes leading to affective commitment appear to be similar in a wide variety of organizations including the TVA (Patchen, 1970), utopian communities (Kanter, 1968), and the Forest Service (Hall and Schnieder, 1970), involving psychological identification with the focal organization and renunciation of ties with competing organizations. Similarly, investments were related to calculative commitment in diverse samples including schoolteachers and nurses (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1970), engineers (Sheldon, 1971) and research scientists (Lee, 1970).

Conclusions

On the basis of the results of this study, in conjunction with relevant prior research, the following conclusions about the meaning, development and consequences of organizational commimtent seem warranted:

- The possible existence of distinct commitment "types" should be given more conisderation in explaining the development and consequences of commitment. This study suggests that calculative commitment is distinct from the other two commitment types, but additional work on these other two types is clearly needed.

- The hypothesized commitment--job performance relationship appears to be tenuous at best. Although the measures of performance in this study were limited in that they were not objective, commitment-performance relationships studies which used objective measures been either non-significant or modest (cf. Rotondi, 1975; Steers, 1977; Van Mannen, 1975).

- New approaches to the study of commitment are clearly needed. A conceptual framework to guide commitment research has still not emerged. As long as "laundry lists of antecedents" (Reichers, 1985) continued to be studied with widely differing measures of questionable validity (Morris and Sherman, 1981), such a framework is not likely to be developed. The notion of commitment "types" is only one alternative, and should be viewed as such.

APPENDIX I: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN HYPOTHESIZED ANTECEDENTS OF COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TYPES

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN HYPOTHESIZED CONSEQUENCES OF COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TYPES

Correlations Among Hypothesized Antecedents and Commitment Types

Antecedents	Calculative Commitment (N=187)	Affective Commitment (N=191)	Moral Commitment (N=190)
Investments:			
Age	.15*	.25**	.19*
Org. Tenure	.25**	.20*	.13
Job Tenure	.15*	.14	.11
Salary	-.02	.02	-.02
Education	.02	.02	.02
Children Supported	-.04	.10	.07
Communion and Renunciation:			
Personal Importance	-.09	.52*	.15*
n Affiliation	.03	-.12	-.03
n Autonomy	-.02	.10	.01
External Orgs.	-.05	.03	-.04
Value-Based:			
Loyalty	-.03	.11	-.06
Value Congruence	.04	.48**	.11

* $p<.05$
** $p<.01$

Correlations Between Commitment Types
and Hypothesized Consequences

Intent to Retain Organizational Membership

Commitment Type	r	n
Calculative	.34 **	147
Affective	.38 **	150
Moral	.15 *	150

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Correlations between Commitment Types and Hypothesized Consequences

Affective Work Outcomes

Commitment Type	Job Satisfaction r		Job Satisfaction n	Organizational Satisfaction r		Organizational Satisfaction n
Calculative	.04		176	-.09		172
Affective	.54	**	179	.63	**	175
Moral	.13		178	.19	*	175

* p<.05
** p<.01

APPENDIX II: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN HYPOTHESIZED ANTECEDENTS OF COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TYPES FOR EACH SUBSAMPLE

Teaching Staff

(N = 82)

Antecedent	Commitment Type Calculative	Affective	Moral
Age	.30**	.28**	.23*
Salary	.10	.34**	.10
Org. Tenure	.30**	.34**	.24*
Children Supptd.	-.05	.02	.09
Ext. Orgs.	-.01	.22*	-.03
n Auty	.02	-.15	-.26*
n Affl.	-.04	.22*	-.07
Val. Cong.	.07	.46**	.22
Per. Imptce	-.19	.55**	.10
Loyalty	-.03	.01	-.05

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Administrative and Support Staff

(N = 102)

Antecedent	Commitment Type Calculative	Affective	Moral
Age	.04	.21*	.24**
Salary	.12	.10	-.09
Org. Tenure	.23*	.02	.08
Children Suptd	.01	.16	.09
Ext. Orgs.	.04	.08	.03
n Auty	.13	-.12	-.28**
n Affl.	.02	.18	.10
Val. Cong.	.02	.50**	.04
Per. Imptce	-.01	.49**	.20*

*p < .05
**p < .01

APPENDIX III: COMMITMENT PROFILES AS A FUNCTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL TENURE

Mean Commitment Scores by Organizational Tenure

Total Sample

(N = 185)

Commitment Type	Tenure Low	Medium	High
Calculative	22.2	24.5	27.8
Affective	21.7	22.7	23.5
Moral	21.0	21.7	22.2

Administrative and Support Staff

(N = 101)

Commitment Type	Tenure Low	Medium	High
Calculative	23.6	25.1	27.8
Affective	22.7	22.2	23.1
Moral	21.3	22.6	23.1

Teaching Staff

(N = 84)

Commitment Type	Tenure Low	Medium	High
Calculative	20.4	23.3	27.8
Affective	20.1	23.5	24.5
Moral	20.4	20.2	21.7

APPENDIX IV: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN COMMITMENT TYPES AND HYPOTHESIZED CONSEQUENCES OF COMMITMENT CONTROLLING FOR HYPOTHESIZED ANTECEDENTS OF COMMITMENT

Partial Correlations between Commitment Types and Hypothesized Consequences of Commitment Controlling for All of the Hypothesized Antecedents of Commitment

Commitment Type	Hypothesized Consequence		
	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Satisfaction	Intent to Remain
Calculative	.07	.08	.39*
Affective	.15	.49**	.17
Moral	.17	.16	.03
n	154	153	151

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

APPENDIX V: MEASURES

Calculative Commitment

1. It would be very hard right now to leave my organization, even if I wanted to.

2. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)

3. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future. (R)

4. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

5. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my organization right now.

6. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

7. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice--another organization might not match the overall benefits I have here.

Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

2. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)

3. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.

4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)

6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)

7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Moral Commitment

1. I do not beleive that a person must be loyal to his or her organization. (R)

2. One of the main reasons that I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important, and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (R)

4. I do not think that wanting to be a "company man" or a "company woman" is sensible anymore. (R)

5. I was taught in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.

6. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.

7. If I got an offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel that it is right to leave my organization.

8. Things were better when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.

Person-Organization Value Congruence

List of 14 values (for response format see research questionnaire and Chapter V):

1. An opportunity to try out new ideas

2. Friendships with co-workers

3. A variety of tasks to do

4. Work that is important

5. An opportunity to help others

6. A job that will last

7. Nice surroundings in which to work

8. Having a boss who is reasonable

9. An opportunity to use leadership abilities

10. Being told when one does a good job

11. Being able to lead the life one enjoys most

12. Being one's own boss

13. The opportunity to keep solving new problems

14. Getting a raise when deserved

Personal Importance in the Organization

1. It is generally accepted by those who matter that my work is important to my organization.

2. I feel that much of what I do is directly related to helping achieve my organization's goals.

3. I do not feel that I am a valued member of my organization. (R)

Generalized Loyalty and Duty

1. There's not much use worrying about current events or public affairs; I can't do anything about them anyway. (R)

2. Everyone should donate some time for the good of one's community.

3. Letting friends down sometimes might not be so bad; you can't always do good all the time for everybody. (R)

4. People have an obligation to do their jobs the best they can.

5. At school, I usually volunteered for special projects.

6. I usually feel very bad when I have failed to finish a job I promised that i would do.

Need for Autonomy

1. I consider myself a team player at work. (R)

2. I go my own way at work regardless of the opinions of others.

3. I try my best to work alone on the job.

4. In work assignments, I try to be my own boss.

5. I disregard rules and regulations that hamper my personal freedom.

Need for Affiliation

1. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group rather than by myself.

2. I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work.

3. I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs. (R)

4. I express my disageements with others openly. (R)

5. I find myself talking with those around me about non-work related matters.

Job Satisfaction

1. All in all, how satisfied are you with your job? very satisfied; somewhat satisfied; not too satisfied; not at all satisfied.

2. If you were free to do any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be? same job as I have now; retire and not work at all; some other job.

3. In general, how would you say your job measures up to the sort of job you wnated when you took it? very much; somewhat; not very much.

4. If a good friend of yours told you s/he was interested in a job like yours, what would you tell him/her? strongly recommend your present job; have some doubts about recommending your present job; advise against your present job.

5. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you have now, what would you decide? decide without hesitation to take the same job; have some second thoughts about taking the same job; definitely not take the same job.

Intent to Remain

How would you rate the chances of you leaving this organization: three months from now; six months from now; one year from now; two years from now;

Organizational Satisfaction

1. How would you describe this organization as a company to work for? couldn't be much better; very good; fairly good; just another place to work; poor

2. From my experience I feel that this organization treats its employees: poorly; somewhat poorly; fairly well; quite well; extremely well.

3. How does working for this organization influence your attitude toward the work you do? It has a very unfavorable; unfavorable; no; favorable; very favorable influence.

4. There is something about working for this organization that greatly encourages; definitely encourages; slightly encourages; discourages; definitely discourages me to/from doing my best.

5. I think this organization considers the welfare of its employees: much less important;less important; about as important; more important than/as cost efficiency.

APPENDIX VI: RESEARCH QUESTIONNNAIRE

Ph.D. Program in Business

City University of New York

Work Survey

Dear Colleague:

This questionnaire survey has been constructed in order to implement a research project which I and Mark Somers, a student in the doctoral program in business, having been working on this past year.

Won't you please take the time to answer the questionnaire? The meaningfulness of the results depends very much on the proportion of replies received.

The purpose of this survey is to find out what people think and feel about working at xxxxxx. It covers three main topic areas:

a) questions about your organization (i.e. xxxxxxxxxxxxx) in general
b) questions about you--including background information and items about how you see yourself
c) questions about your job and your career plans

All replies are anonymous, and the personal information requested is to study the relationships among personal attributes and work attitudes (e.g. do people with high tenure have different attitudes than new hires?).

Please answer every item, and make each answer your own personal response. When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it to: **Joel Lefkowitz, Department of Psychology, Box 512.**

Thank you very much for your cooperation

Yours truly,

Joel

Joel Lefkowitz
Professor of Psychology

Section I.: The Organization

This section contains several sets of questions about the organization you work for. Please respond to them considering the organization as a whole, and not with reference to your particular job.

Listed below are several statements which may or may not describe how you feel about your organization. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by writing the appropriate number in the blank beside each statement based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

____ 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

____ 2. I do not believe that a person must be loyal to his or her organization.

____ 3. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

____ 4. I think I could easily become attached to another organization as I am to this one.

____ 5. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important, and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

____ 6. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.

____ 7. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.

____ 8. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.

____ 9. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.

____ 10. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

____ 11. I do not think that wanting to be a "company man" or a "company woman" is sensible anymore.

____ 12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

____ 13. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

____ 14. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.

____ 15. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my organization right now.

____ 16. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.

____ 17. I was taught in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.

____ 18. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

____ 19. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

____ 20. If I got an offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel that it was right to leave my organization.

____ 21. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice--another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

____ 22. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

____ 23. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.

____ 24. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Listed below are several qualities which are connected with work organizations. For each quality, you will be asked to give two ratings:

a) to what extent do you think organizations should have these qualities?

b) to what extent are these qualities present in the organization you work for?

Answer each question by circling the appropriate alternative on the following rating scale: N=Not at all; S=To Some Extent; C=To a Considerable Extent; G=To a Great Extent; VG=To a Very Great Extent.

1. An opportunity to try out new ideas:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

2. Friendships with co-workers

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

3. A variety of different tasks to do:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

4. Work that is important:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

5. An opportunity to help others:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

6. A job that will last:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

7. Nice surroundings in which to work:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

8. Having a boss who is reasonable:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

9. An opportunity to use leadership abilities:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

10. Being told when one does a good job:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

11. Being able to lead the life one enjoys most:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

12. Being one's own boss:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

13. The opportunity to keep solving new problems:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

14. Getting a raise when deserved:

a) organizations should have this quality N S C G VG
b) this quality is present in my organization N S C G VG

Listed below are three statments describing how you might feel about your contribution to the organization. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the appropriate alternative: SD = strongly disagree, D = disagree, N = neutral, A = agree, SA = strongly agree.

1. It is generally accepted by those who matter that my work is important to my organization — SD D N A SA

2. I feel that much of what I do is directly related to helping achieve my organization's goals. — SD D N A SA

3. I do not feel that I am a valued member of my organization. — SD D N A SA

Section II. Personal Information

This section asks for responses that will be helpful to us in studying personal characteristics and work attitudes.

Listed below are six statements which you may or may not agree with. Write a number in the blank beside each statement based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	not sure	agree	strongly agree

___ 1. There's not much use worrying about current events or public affairs; I can't do anything about them anyway.

___ 2. Everyone should donate some time for the good of one's community.

___ 3. Letting friends down may sometimes not be so bad because you can't always do good all the time for everybody.

___ 4. People have an obligation to do their jobs the best they can.

___ 5. At school I usually volunteered for special projects.

___ 6. I usually feel very bad when I have failed to finish a job I promised I would do.

The following statements describe how people act at work. For each statement, indicate how often you act this way while at work by placing a number next to each statement based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
never	almost never	seldom	sometimes	usually	almost always	always

___ 1. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group rather than by myself.

___ 2. I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work.

___ 3. I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs.

___ 4. I express my disagreements with others openly.

___ 5. I find myself talking with those around me about non-work related matters.

___ 6. In work assignments, I try to be my own boss.

___ 7. I consider myself a team player at work.

___ 8. I try my best to work alone on the job.

___ 9. I disregard rules and regulations that hamper my freedom.

___ 10. I go my own way at work, regardless of the opinions of others.

PERSONAL HISTORY

1. Indicate whether you are: _____male _____female

2. What is your age? _____

3. For how many children do you currently provide financial support, in whole or in part? _____

4. What is your present marital status?

a) _____ single-never married
b) _____ married
c) _____ divorced or separated
d) _____ widowed

5. Indicate whether you are:

a) _____ White
b) _____ Black
c) _____ Spanish Sur-named
d) _____ Asian/Oriental
e) _____ Native American Indian
f) _____ Other

6. Indicate your level of education:

a) _____ high school graduate
b) _____ some college
c) _____ college graduate (4 year degree)
d) _____ some post-graduate training
e) _____ post-graduate degree

7. What is your exact job title?_____

8. How long have you occupied your present job?
(nearest whole year):_____

9. How long have you worked for your present organization?
(nearest whole year):_____

10. What is your approximate annual earnings?

a) _____ Less than $10,000
b) _____ $10,001 to $15,000
c) _____ $15,001 to $20,000
d) _____ $20,001 to $30,000
e) _____ $30,001 to $40,000
f) _____ $40,001 to $50,000
g) _____ $50,001 to $75,000
h) _____ $75,001 to $100,000
i) _____ More than $100,000

11. Please list all of the organizations you are a member of (e.g. community service organizations, PTA, labor unions, professional associations such as the American Medical Association, National Association Accountants etc) not including the organization you work for.

a) _____
b) _____
c) _____
d) _____
e) _____
f) _____

12. During the past three years, how many manuscripts have you:

a) presented at professional meetings _____
b) published in refeered journals _____
c) published as books _____
d) published in non-refeered journals _____

13. If possible, and if applicable, please enclose a photocopy of the results of your last student course evaluation(s). Be sure to eliminate any identifying information such as course title, section, and of course, your name.

Section III. Your Job and Career Plans

Listed below are five items which may or may not describe how you feel about your job. Please check the alternative that you feel is appropriate.

1. All in all how satisfied are you with your job?

___ a) very satisfied
___ b) somewhat satisifed
___ c) not too satisifed
___ d) not at all satisifed

2. If you were free to do any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?

___ a) same job as I now have
___ b) retire and not work at all
___ c) some other job

3. In general, how well would you say your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?

___ a) very much
___ b) somewhat
___ c) not very much

4. If a good friend of yours told you s/he was interested in a job like yours, what would you tell him/her?

___ a) strongly recommend your present job
___ b) have some doubts about recommending your present job
___ c) advise against your present job

5. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you have now, what would you decide?

___ a) decide without hesistation to take the same job
___ b) have some second thoughts about taking the same job
___ c) definitely not take the same job

The following responses should be used in answering the next question. Please circle the appropriate alternative.

Excellent	Very Good	Good	So-So	Not So Good	Bad	Terrible
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

How do you rate the chances of you leaving this organization:

1.	Three months from now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Six months from now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	One year from now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Two years from now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Five years from now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Please respond to the following questions by placing a check mark next to appropriate alternative.

1. How do you describe this organization as a company to work for?

___ a) couldn't be much better
___ b) very good
___ c) fairly good
___ d) just another place to work
___ e) poor

2. From my experience I feel that this organization treats its employees:

___ a) poorly
___ b) somewhat poorly
___ c) fairly well
___ d) quite well
___ e) extremely well

3. How does working for this organization influence your attitude toward the work that you do?

___ a) It has a very unfavorable influence
___ b) It has an unfavorable influence
___ c) It has no influence one way or the other
___ d) It has a favorable influence
___ e) It has a very favorable influence

4. There is something about working for this organization that:

___ a) greatly encourages me to do my best
___ b) definitely encourages me to do my best
___ c) only slightly encourages me to do my best
___ d) tends to discourage me from doing my best
___ e) definitely discourages me from doing my best

5. I think this organization considers the welfare of its employees:

___ a) much less important than cost efficiency
___ b) less important than cost efficiency
___ c) about as important cost efficiency
___ d) more important cost efficiency

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