A THREE-COMPONENT CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

John P. Meyer
Natalie J. Allen
The University of Western Ontario

Diversity in the conceptualization and measurement of organizational commitment has made it difficult to interpret the results of an accumulating body of research. In this article, we go beyond the existing distinction between attitudinal and behavioral commitment and argue that commitment, as a psychological state, has at least three separable components reflecting (a) a desire (affective commitment), (b) a need (continuance commitment), and (c) an obligation (normative commitment) to maintain employment in an organization. Each component is considered to develop as a function of different antecedents and to have different implications for on-the-job behavior. The aim of this reconceptualization is to aid in the synthesis of existing research and to serve as a framework for future research.

Organizational commitment has been the subject of several critical reviews in recent years (Griffin & Bateman 1986; Morrow 1983; Mowday, Porter, & Steers 1982; Reichers 1985; Salancik 1977; Scholl 1981; Staw 1977). Among the issues of major concern in these reviews has been the lack of consensus in construct definition. This problem has been compounded by the use of measures of commitment that do not always correspond to the definition being applied (see Morrow 1983; Meyer & Allen 1984; Stebbins 1970). As a consequence, it is difficult to synthesize the results of commitment research.

In this article, we review organizational commitment theory and research and propose a model of commitment to (a) aid in the interpretation of existing research and (b) serve as a framework for future research. The review begins with the identification of various approaches taken to the conceptualization and measurement of commitment. We then propose a three-component model of organizational commitment and review previous research concerning the development and consequences of commitment in the context of this model. Finally, we describe the results of studies undertaken to test the model and discuss the implications of the model for future research.

Direct all correspondence to: John P. Meyer, Department of Psychology, The University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario N6A 5C2, Canada.

Human Resource Management Review,
Volume 1, Number 1, 1991, pages 61–89.
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.
Copyright © 1991
by JAI Press, Inc.
ISSN: 1053–4822

THE NATURE OF COMMITMENT

The Attitudinal and Behavioral Perspectives

The distinction between attitudinal and behavioral commitment is now well established in the organizational commitment literature (cf. Mowday et al. 1982; Reichers 1985; Salancik 1977; Scholl 1981; Staw 1977). Mowday et al. (1982 p. 26) offer the following descriptions of the two approaches.

> Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization.
>
> Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem.

The distinction between the attitudinal and behavioral approaches is also clearly reflected in the research traditions that have become associated with each. In the attitudinal approach, research has been directed largely at identification of the antecedent conditions that contribute to the development of commitment and at the behavioral consequences of this commitment (e.g., Buchanan 1974; Steers 1977). In the behavioral approach, research has focused primarily on identifying conditions under which a behavior, once exhibited, tends to be repeated, as well as on the effects of such behavior on attitude change (e.g., O'Reilly & Caldwell 1981; Pfeffer & Lawler 1980).

A schematic representation of the basic postulates of the attitudinal and behavioral approaches is presented in Figure 1. Examination of the ordering of variables and the primary causal relations (solid arrows) outlined in this figure reveals the obvious differences in the two approaches. Note, however, that both approaches include secondary relations (broken arrows) which imply that a complementary set of processes may be involved in the commitment-behavior link. In the attitudinal approach, the behavioral consequences of commitment are likely to have an influence on the conditions that contribute to stability or change in commitment. In the behavioral approach, attitudes resulting from behavior can be expected to affect the likelihood of that behavior occurring again in the future.

In the model of commitment to be described in this article, we incorporate both the attitudinal and behavioral approaches and their complementary relationship. The primary purpose of this article, however, is to expand upon the concept of organizational commitment as a mind set, or psychological state (i.e., feelings and/or beliefs concerning the employee's relationship with an organization). For reasons to be discussed, we will argue that this psychological state need not be restricted to value and goal congruence as described by Mowday et al. Rather, we argue that it can reflect a desire, a need, and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organization.

It is important to note that, as we expand the concept of commitment to

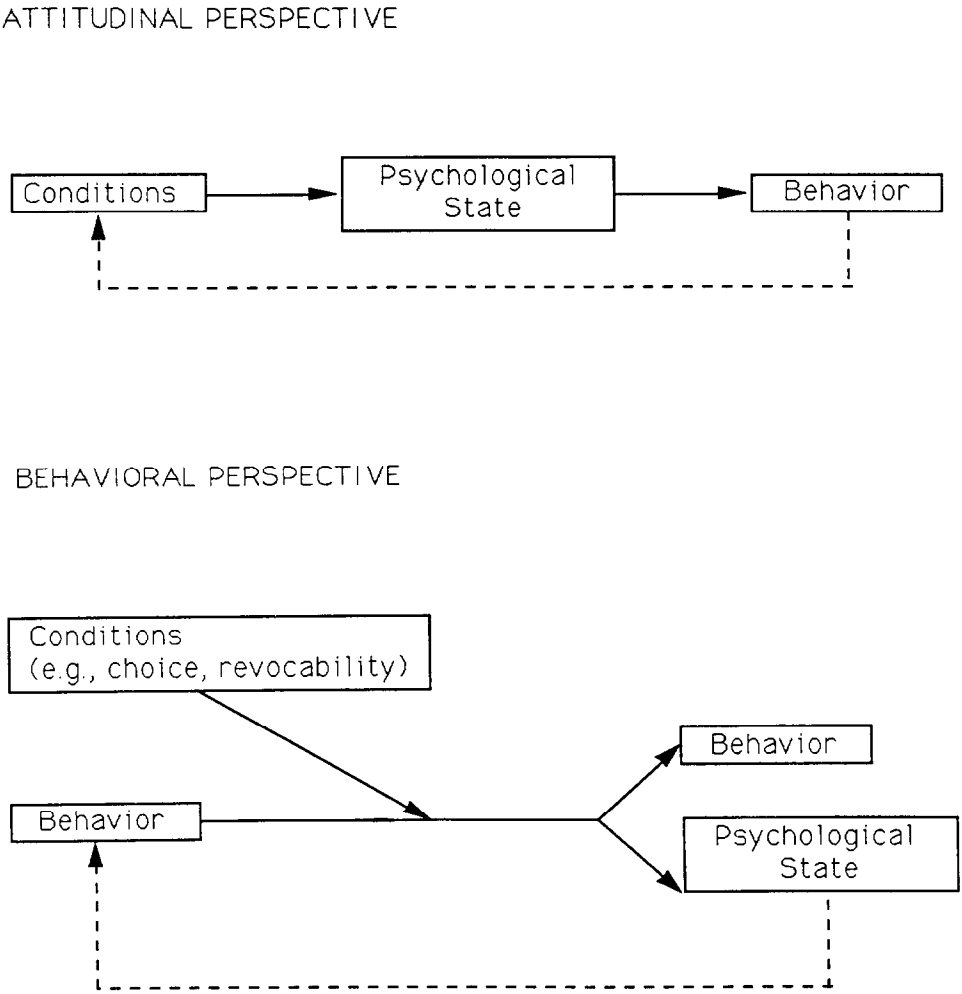


FIGURE 1. The Attitudinal and Behavioral Perspectives on Organizational Commitment.

include desire, need, and obligation to remain, it no longer falls within the traditional social psychological definition of an attitude. To avoid confusion, therefore, we will hereafter use the term "commitment" to refer to commitment as a psychological state (with an appropriate modifier, where necessary, to identify the nature of the psychological state), and the term "behavioral commitment" to refer to commitment as behavioral persistence.

Conceptualization and Measurement of Commitment

Although there are many and varied definitions of commitment, they appear to reflect at least three general themes: affective attachment to the organiza-

tion, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and obligation to remain with the organization.

Affective Attachment. For several authors, the term commitment is used to describe an affective orientation toward the organization. Kanter (1968), for example, defined what she called "cohesion commitment" as

> "the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group" (p. 507).

Likewise, Buchanan (1974) described commitment as a

> "partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (p. 533).

Finally, Porter and his associates (Mowday, Steers, & Porter 1979; Porter, Crampon, & Smith 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian 1974) described commitment as

> "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al. 1979, p. 226).

The most commonly used measure of employees' affective attachment to the organization has been the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ: Mowday et al. 1979), a 15-item scale designed to assess acceptance of organizational values, willingness to exert effort, and desire to maintain membership in the organization. Mowday et al. have provided strong evidence for the internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity of the OCQ. A parallel measure developed in Great Britain for use with blue collar workers has also been shown to be

> "psychometrically adequate and stable" (Cook & Wall 1980, p. 39).

Although other measures have been developed for use in specific studies, they typically have not been subjected to such rigorous psychometric evaluation.

Perceived Costs. Other authors view commitment as the continuation of an action (e.g., remaining with an organization) resulting from a recognition of the costs associated with its termination. Becker (1960), for example, described commitment as a disposition to engage in

> "consistent lines of activity" (p. 33)

resulting from the accumulation of "side bets" which would be lost if the activity were discontinued. In the case of commitment to an organization, a side bet is made when something of importance to an individual (e.g., pension, seniority) becomes contingent upon continued employment in that organiza-

tion. Similarly, Kanter (1968) defined "cognitive-continuance commitment" as that which occurs when there is a

> "profit associated with continued participation and a 'cost' associated with leaving" (p. 504).

For Stebbins (1970), continuance commitment was

> "the awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity . . . because of the immense penalties involved in making the switch" (p. 527).

Still others have used the term "calculative" to describe commitment based on a consideration of the costs and benefits associated with organizational membership that is unrelated to affect (Etzioni 1975; Hrebiniak & Alutto 1972; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice 1978). Finally, Farrell and Rusbult (1981) suggested that commitment is

> "related to the probability that an employee will leave his job and involves feelings of psychological attachment, independent of affect" (p. 79).

It is important to note that Becker's side-bet theory of commitment has often been included under the rubric of behavioral commitment (e.g., Mowday et al. 1982; Scholl 1981). The reason for this is that, like the behavioral approach described by Salancik (1977) and others (e.g., Brickman 1987; Kiesler & Sakamura 1966; Staw 1977), Becker's definition emphasizes the tendency to continue a course of action. There is an important difference between the two approaches, however, that is often ignored. For Becker, commitment requires a recognition on the part of the individual of the costs associated with discontinuing an activity. Without this recognition there is no commitment. In Becker's words,

> The element of recognition of the interest created by one's prior action is a necessary component of commitment because, even though one has such an interest, he will not act to implement it . . . unless he realizes it is necessary. (1960, p. 36)

In contrast, for Salancik (1977), the conditions contributing to the initiation and continuation of behavior may be very subtle and beyond conscious recognition. Moreover, rather than recognition of costs, the psychological state associated with behavioral commitment tends to be a desire to continue the action, or an attraction to the object of that action. That is, under the right conditions (e.g., freedom of choice, irrevocability of the act), agreeing to work for an organization can result in an intention to continue employment, followed by the development of a positive attitude toward the organization that justifies the behavior (O'Reilly & Caldwell 1981).

In distinguishing Becker's theory from the behavioral perspective, we make

the assumption that recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization is a conscious psychological state that is shaped by environmental conditions (e.g., the existence of side bets) and has implications for behavior (e.g., continued employment with the organization). Thus, in our view, the basic propositions of the side-bet theory are more consistent with the framework for the attitudinal approach than for the behavioral approach, as outlined in Figure 1.

Although several different measures have been developed to assess commitment conceptualized as perceived cost, each has its inherent problems. For example, Ritzer and Trice (1969) and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) developed measures which require respondents to indicate the likelihood that they would leave the organization given various inducements to do so (e.g., increases in pay, status, freedom, and promotional opportunity). There is some doubt, however, as to whether these measures reflect a cost-induced commitment (see Meyer & Allen 1984; Stebbins 1970). Obtaining a high score on either scale requires that the individual be unwilling to leave the organization despite the availability of attractive alternatives. This suggests that the major impetus for the intention to stay may not be the costs associated with leaving, but rather an affective attachment to the organization.

Other measures that have been used require simply that the respondents indicate the strength of their intention to remain with the organization (e.g., Farrell & Rusbult 1981; O'Reilly & Caldwell 1981). Unfortunately, measures of this sort are also subject to interpretations other than cost-induced commitment. The intention to remain could as easily reflect an affective attachment to the organization or, as we will describe below, a sense of moral obligation to remain.

Obligation. Finally, a less common, but equally viable approach has been to view commitment as an obligation to remain with the organization. Marsh and Mannari (1977), for example, described the employee with "lifetime commitment" as one who

> "considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him over the years" (p. 59).

In a similar vein, Wiener (1982, p. 421) defined commitment as

> "the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests," and suggested that individuals exhibit these behaviors solely because "they believe it is the 'right' and moral thing to do."

Although commitment as obligation has not received a great deal of attention per se, the concept has a parallel in popular reasoned-action models of behavior. Wiener (1982) noted the similarity between his "normative" view of commitment and the "subjective norm" component of Fishbein's model (Fishbein &

Ajzen 1975). In actuality, however, his description of commitment as an internalized normative pressure is more reminiscent of the "personal norm" (i.e., internalized moral obligation) included in Triandis' (1975) model. The fact that several researchers (e.g., Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews 1987; Schwartz 1973; Schwartz & Tessler 1972) have found personal norms to be important contributors to the prediction of behavior, including turnover, attests to the potential utility of a normative view of commitment.

Marsh and Mannari (1977) developed a four-item measure of lifetime commitment. Of the four, two items measure intention (of self and others) to remain with the organization until retirement. As noted earlier, it is impossible to infer with certainty the motive for intentions, moral obligation or otherwise, from responses to such items. The remaining items have a somewhat more obvious moral tone. The internal consistency estimate (coefficient alpha) for this scale was only .51 for male employees and .38 for all employees.

Wiener and Vardi (1980) used a three-item scale to measure normative commitment. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they believe

> "a person *should* be loyal to his organization, *should* make sacrifices on its behalf, and *should* not criticize it" (Wiener & Vardi 1980, p. 86, emphasis added).

Other than internal consistency (interitem reliability estimate = .60), the psychometric properties of the scale were not reported.

A Three-Component Framework

Commitment as conceptualized in the three approaches identified above will be referred to, hereafter, as *affective, continuance,* and *normative* commitment, respectively. Common to these three approaches is the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization. Beyond this, however, it is clear that the nature of the psychological states differ. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization.

We believe it is more appropriate to consider affective, continuance, and normative commitment as components, than as types, of commitment. The latter implies that the psychological states characterizing the three forms of

commitment are mutually exclusive. To the contrary, it seems more reasonable to expect that an employee can experience all three forms of commitment to varying degrees. One employee, for example, might feel both a strong desire and a strong need to remain, but little obligation to do so; another might feel little desire, a moderate need, and a strong obligation, and so on. An important implication of viewing commitment in this way, as we will discuss later, is that the various forms of commitment might be expected to interact to influence behavior.

Given their conceptual differences, it seems likely that the psychological states reflecting the three components of commitment will develop as the function of quite different antecedents and have different implications for work-relevant behavior other than turnover. This is the central thesis of this article and served as the impetus for the development of the three-component model of commitment presented in Figure 2. In the following sections we will illustrate how the relations outlined in the model derive from, and help to organize, the results of previous research.

As we review the existing literature in the context of this model, there are several points to consider. First, the model does not provide a complete summary of existing research findings, nor was this its purpose. Rather, it highlights what have, to date, been shown and/or purported to be the major variables associated with the three components of commitment, and to identify areas where further research is needed. Second, because of problems associated with some of the measures of commitment, it is sometimes not clear which of the

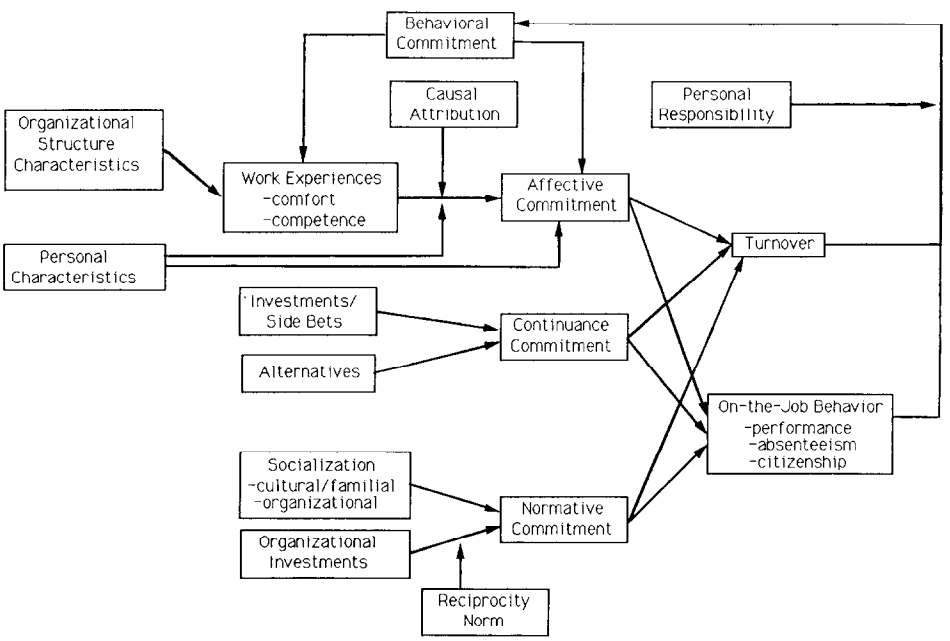


FIGURE 2. A Three-component Model of Organizational Commitment

three forms of commitment was being assessed in a particular study. Results of these studies, therefore, cannot always be considered relevant to the hypotheses they were designed to test, or, by implication, to the three-component model that incorporates these hypotheses. As we review the literature, we will identify those studies where problems with interpretation exist. Finally, even where findings can be considered relevant to the predictions of the model, it must be recognized that they do not provide a test of the model. Rather, the model was, to a large extent, derived inductively from the results of these studies. Studies that have been conducted specifically to test the model (or parts of the model) are described in a separate section.

THE ANTECEDENTS OF COMMITMENT

Many different variables have been examined as potential antecedents of commitment. It is not our intention here to review this research in detail. Rather, we wish to identify general patterns that have emerged in the literature and, more importantly, to illustrate differences in the antecedents of the three components of commitment.

Affective Commitment

Mowday et al. (1982) noted that the antecedents of (affective) commitment fall generally into four categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work experiences. Because the distinction between objective job characteristics and subjective work experiences has been somewhat blurred in research by the use of self-report measures, we will use the more global term, work experience, hereafter, in reference to both objective and subjective characteristics of work.

Personal Characteristics. Although demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, sex, and education have been linked to commitment (e.g., Angle & Perry 1981; Glisson & Durick 1988; Morris & Sherman 1981; Morrow & McElroy 1987; Mottaz 1988; Pierce & Dunham 1987; Steers 1977), the relations are neither strong nor consistent. More importantly, even when relations are observed, they cannot be interpreted unequivocally (Salancik 1977). For example, the positive relation between tenure and commitment may be due to tenure-related differences in job status and quality or, alternatively, to attempts on the part of senior employees to justify their having remained with the company for so many years. Recently, Mottaz (1988) demonstrated that the links between these demographic characteristics and commitment are indirect and disappear when work rewards and work values are controlled.

Personal dispositions such as need for achievement, affiliation, and autonomy (e.g., Morris & Snyder 1979; Steers 1977; Steers & Braunstein 1976; Steers & Spencer 1977), higher order need strength (Cook & Wall 1980; Pierce & Dunham 1987), personal work ethic (Buchanan 1974; Kidron 1978), locus of control (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor 1987; Pierce & Dunham 1987), and central

life interest in work (Dubin, Champoux, & Porter 1975) have been found to correlate, albeit modestly, with commitment. These correlations suggest the possibility that employees differ in their propensity to become affectively committed to an organization (Griffin & Bateman 1986; Mowday et al. 1982).

Another approach to examining the effects of personal dispositions on commitment has been to consider their interaction with environmental factors. Individuals whose work experiences are compatible with their personal dispositions (i.e., provide fulfillment of needs, utilization of abilities, expression of values, etc.) should have more positive work attitudes than those whose experiences are less compatible (Hackman & Oldham 1976; Hulin & Blood 1968). To date, only a few studies have tested the person-environment fit hypothesis as it pertains to organizational commitment (e.g., Blau 1987; Cook & Wall 1980; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins 1989; Steers & Spencer 1977; Stumpf & Hartman 1984), and results have been mixed.

Organizational Structure. Relatively few studies have examined the relations between organizational characteristics and commitment (Glisson & Durick 1988). Nonetheless, there is some evidence that affective commitment is related to decentralization of decision making (Brooke, Russell, & Price 1988; Morris & Steers 1980) and formalization of policy and procedure (Morris & Steers 1980; O'Driscoll 1987; Podsakoff, Williams, & Todor 1986). As is typical of this research, however, these studies used an individual rather than an organizational level of analysis. It may be that the influence of structural characteristics on commitment is not direct (Podsakoff et al. 1986), but rather, is mediated by those work experiences such as employee/supervisor relations, role clarity, and feelings of personal importance, that are associated with these structural characteristics.

Work Experiences. In contrast to personal and organizational characteristics, there has been a considerable amount of research examining the links between work experience variables and affective commitment. Unfortunately, however, this research has been largely unsystematic and is therefore difficult to summarize. Reichers (1985, p. 467) noted that the

> "literature is still characterized by a 'laundry list' of significant antecedent or correlate variables."

For purposes of this review, we found it helpful to begin with the assumption that commitment develops as the result of experiences that satisfy employees' needs and/or are compatible with their values. Then, following the hygiene/motivator distinction made by Herzberg (1966), we observed that work experience variables could be divided roughly into two categories: those that satisfied employees' need to feel comfortable in the organization, both physically and psychologically, and those that contributed to employees' feelings of competence in the work role.

Variables in the comfort category that have been found to correlate with affective commitment include confirmation of pre-entry expectations (Blau

1988; Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988), equity in reward distribution (Lee 1971; Ogilvie 1986; Rhodes & Steers 1981) organizational dependability (Buchanan 1974; Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988; Steers 1977), organizational support (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro 1990; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa 1986), role clarity and freedom from conflict (Blau 1988; DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Glisson & Durick 1988; Jamal 1984; Morris & Koch 1979; Morris & Snyder 1979; Podsakoff et al. 1986), and supervisor consideration (DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Glisson & Durick 1988; Morris & Sherman 1981; Stone & Porter 1975). The competence-related experiences include accomplishment (Angle & Perry 1983), autonomy, (Colarelli, Dean, & Konstans 1987; DeCotiis & Summers 1987), fairness of performance-based rewards (Brooke et al. 1988; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller 1986), job challenge (Buchanan 1974; Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988), job scope (Blau 1987; Buchanan 1974; Glisson & Durick 1988; Pierce & Dunham 1987; Steers & Spencer 1977), opportunity for advancement (O'Reilly & Caldwell 1980), opportunity for self-expression (Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988), participation in decision making (DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Rhodes & Steers 1981), and personal importance to the organization (Buchanan 1974; Steers 1977).

Although the comfort/competence distinction appears to be a useful one for purposes of synthesizing previous research, it should be considered only as a starting point for the development of a more comprehensive taxonomy of commitment-related work experiences. The development of such a taxonomy will require greater attention to the identification of basic needs and work values and to the fit between these personal dispositions and work experiences, as we will discuss below.

Continuance Commitment

Because continuance commitment reflects the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, anything that increases perceived costs can be considered an antecedent. The most frequently studied antecedents have been side bets, or investments, and the availability of alternatives.

Becker (1960) suggested that commitment to a course of action develops as one makes side bets that would be lost if the action were discontinued. These side bets can take many forms and may be work- or nonwork-related. For example, the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring non-transferable skills, of losing attractive benefits, of giving up seniority-based privileges, or of having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships, can be perceived as potential costs of leaving a company.

Testing Becker's theory is made difficult by the fact that the costs associated with leaving tend to be quite different for each individual. One strategy, therefore, has been to correlate proxy variables, such as age and tenure, with measures purported to reflect Becker's side-bet commitment, on the assumption that the number and magnitude of side bets generally increase over time (e.g., Alutto et al. 1973; Aranya & Jacobson 1975; Ferris & Aranya 1983; Hrebiniak 1974; Hrebiniak & Alutto 1972; Parasuraman & Alutto 1984; Ritzer & Trice

1969; Shoemaker, Snizek, & Bryant 1977; Stevens et al. 1978). Results of these studies have been mixed, with age and/or tenure correlating with commitment in some studies but not in others. Even if the findings were consistent, however, they would be difficult to interpret. In addition to the problems with the measures of side-bet commitment discussed earlier, Meyer and Allen (1984) questioned whether it is appropriate to assume that side bets accumulate with age and tenure. They noted, for example, that employees who acquire transferable skills during their tenure with an organization might be in a better position to leave the organization than their younger, less experienced, counterparts. For these reasons, we did not include age and tenure as antecedents of continuance commitment in the model.

Rusbult and Farrell (1983; Farrell & Rusbult 1981) included both investments and alternatives among the proposed antecedents in their "investment model" of commitment. In both laboratory and field research they demonstrated that job commitment increased as the number and/or magnitude of investments increased and the attractiveness of alternatives decreased. Although these findings appear to support a perceived-cost interpretation of commitment, they too must be interpreted with some caution. Because the measure of commitment used in this research consisted of questions concerning intention to remain on the job, it is not clear to what extent responses reflect a need to remain, as opposed to a desire and/or obligation to remain. The fact that job satisfaction also correlated positively with commitment in these studies suggests that the commitment measure reflects something other than, or in addition to, continuance commitment.

Although it seems reasonable to assume that continuance commitment will develop as a function of a lack of alternative employment opportunities and an accumulation of side bets, it is clear that the results of existing research findings cannot be interpreted unequivocally as justification for these predictions. We have included alternatives and side bets as antecedents of continuance commitment in Figure 2, therefore, more on the strength of the theoretical arguments than on the basis of empirical evidence.

Normative Commitment

To this point, the literature on the development of normative commitment is theoretical rather than empirical. Wiener (1982) suggested that the feeling of obligation to remain with an organization may result from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into the organization (i.e., familial or cultural socialization), or following entry (i.e., organizational socialization). Normative commitment may also develop, however, when an organization provides the employee with "rewards in advance" (e.g., paying college tuition), or incurs significant costs in providing employment (e.g., costs associated with job training). Recognition of these investments on the part of the organization may create an imbalance in the employee/organization relationship and cause employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organization until the debt has been repaid (Scholl 1981).

THE CONSEQUENCES OF COMMITMENT

The most widely studied behavioral correlate of commitment has been tenure in the organization, or its obverse, turnover. The hypothesized negative relation between commitment and turnover (or turnover intention) has been found in studies using measures purported to reflect affective (e.g., Angle & Perry 1981; Arnold & Feldman 1982; Bluedorn 1982; Colarelli et al. 1987; DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon 1985; Clegg 1983; Ferris & Aranya 1983; Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin 1979; Koch & Steers 1978; Lee & Mowday 1987; Michaels & Spector 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman 1986; Porter et al. 1976; Porter et al. 1974; Steers 1977; Werbel & Gould 1984; Williams & Hazer 1986), continuance (e.g., Abelson 1987; Farrell & Petersen 1984; Farrell & Rusbult 1981; Ferris & Aranya 1983; Parasuraman 1982; Parasuraman & Alutto 1984; Rusbult & Farrell 1983), and normative (Wiener & Vardi 1980) commitment. The generalizability of the commitment-turnover link has been confirmed in recent meta-analytic studies (Cotton & Tuttle 1986; Steel & Ovalle 1984). In view of this evidence, commitment has been incorporated as a major variable in several models of the turnover process (Arnold & Feldman 1982; Bluedorn 1982; Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur 1984; Price & Mueller 1986; Steers & Mowday 1981; Stumpf & Hartman 1984).

We noted earlier that the binding of the individual to an organization is a common denominator in all three conceptualizations of attitudinal commitment. If reduction of turnover is the only concern of researchers or managers, the differences among the various conceptualizations become somewhat irrelevant—one form of commitment may be as good as another. This focus on turnover, however, may be shortsighted. Organizational effectiveness depends on more than simply maintaining a stable workforce; employees must perform assigned duties dependably and be willing to engage in activities that go beyond role requirements (Katz 1964; Organ 1987). Although remaining in the organization is a necessary precondition for both role-required and extra-role behavior, it is not a sufficient condition for either.

Research conducted to examine the link between commitment and on-the-job behavior has yielded mixed results. Commitment was found, for example, to be positively related to attendance behavior in some studies (Blau 1986; Farrell & Petersen 1984, Pierce & Dunham 1987; Steers 1977; Terborg, Lee, Smith, Davis, & Turbin 1982) but not in others (Angle & Perry 1981; Ivancevich 1985; Jamal 1984). Similarly, commitment was shown to correlate positively with individual- or group-level indices of performance in some studies (e.g., Blau 1988; Colarelli et al. 1987; DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Lee 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Dubin 1974; Steers 1977; Wiener & Vardi 1980), but not in others (e.g., Green, Blank, & Liden 1983).

Although it would be premature to draw conclusions about the relations between commitment and work-related behavior, other than turnover, based on the limited research available to date, it seems reasonable to assume that employees' willingness to contribute to organizational effectiveness will be influenced by the nature of the commitment they experience. Employees who

want to belong to the organization (affective commitment) might be more likely than those who need to belong (continuance commitment), or feel obligated to belong (normative commitment), to exert effort on behalf of the organization. It is noteworthy that, of the studies that have reported positive correlations between commitment and performance, most have used measures of affective commitment. It is possible, of course, that an obligation to remain will carry with it an obligation to contribute, in which case normative commitment would also correlate positively with effort and performance. Indeed, Wiener & Vardi (1980) reported a significant positive correlation between their measure of normative commitment and work effort. Continuance commitment is perhaps least likely to correlate positively with performance. Under normal circumstances, employees whose tenure in the organization is based primarily on need may see little reason to do more than is required to maintain their membership in the organization (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson 1989).

Finally, it should be noted that the relation between any component of commitment and behavior will be complicated by the fact that all three components can exert independent (and possibly interactive) effects on a particular behavior. Consider, for example, the relation between continuance commitment and turnover. Although a high level of continuance commitment might be sufficient to tie an individual to an organization, it is not necessarily the case that an individual low in continuance commitment will leave. Despite a low need to remain, an employee might stay because of desire or obligation. It will be important in future research, therefore, to examine the joint effects of the three commitment components on employees' behavior.

THE COMMITMENT PROCESS

To this point, we have alluded to, but not discussed, the process by which antecedent variables produce the psychological states we have labelled commitment, and by which these states are translated into behavior. There has been a general lack of attention paid in the commitment literature to process, a situation which has been the subject of considerable criticism (e.g., O'Reilly & Chatman 1986; Scholl 1981; Staw 1977). We will attempt here to identify processes that might underlie the development and consequences of the three components of commitment. Considering the paucity of studies, however, this discussion is necessarily speculative. It is intended primarily to illustrate the importance of process considerations, to indicate how different processes are likely to operate for affective, continuance, and normative commitment, and to provide some direction for future research.

Affective Commitment

Although other factors (e.g., personal or structural characteristics) might contribute, research to date would suggest that the desire to maintain membership in an organization is largely the result of work experiences. Unfortunately, however, examination of the relations between work experiences and

affective commitment has not been theory driven. Consequently, as Mowday et al. (1982) noted,

> "it is sometimes difficult to discern why a particular job or work environment factor *should* be related to commitment" (p. 57).

Similarly, it is not always made explicit why, once developed, affective commitment to the organization should have an effect on behavior.

The few cases where process issues have been addressed usually involve little more than a passing reference to principles of exchange (e.g., March & Simon 1958; Vroom 1964). Presumably, employees want to remain in organizations that provide them with positive work experiences because they value these experiences and expect them to continue. Moreover, they are likely to exert effort, and contribute to organizational effectiveness, as a means of maintaining equity in their relationship with the organization. While this explanation has been accepted by some as self-evident, it has led others to question the value of the commitment construct (Salancik 1977; Scholl 1981; Staw 1977). Scholl, for example, asked,

> "if equity and expectancy theory explain membership and performance in organizations through an exchange process, what is added by arguing that commitment also explains membership and performance and that commitment is developed through a positive exchange relationship?" (p. 590).

Although a detailed answer to this question is beyond the scope of this article, it should be noted that a major limitation of expectancy and equity theories has been the measurement of relevant cognitions (see Miner 1980). The measurement problem is exacerbated as the amount of information (e.g., inputs and outcomes, instrumentalities and valences) and/or behavioral options increases. The value of affective commitment might be that it is a measurable construct which reflects a psychological summary of equity and expectancy considerations. Moreover, because affective commitment represents a general psychological orientation, it is likely to have implications for a wide range of organization-relevant behavior. Although more accurate prediction of specific behaviors might be obtained using an expectancy, or reasoned-action, model, it is unlikely, given the measurement difficulties, that it could be applied to other than the most foreseeable and frequently occurring behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, turnover). Estimating the likelihood that its employees will act in an organization's best interest across situations, including situations that cannot be easily foreseen, may be facilitated more by the measurement of affective commitment than expected value.

Recently, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) attempted to address the process issue using Kelman's (1958) taxonomy of the bases for attitude change. Of greatest relevance to affective commitment are Kelman's "identification" and "internalization" categories. Identification involves the acceptance of influence in order to maintain a satisfying relationship; internalization involves acceptance of influence based on shared values. The explanation for commitment

based on identification is similar to the exchange mechanisms explanation outlined above. Employees want to remain and are willing to exert effort on behalf of the organization because of the benefits they derive from the relationship. From an internalization perspective, employees become committed to organizations with which they share values. Moreover, they work toward the success of these organizations, because in doing so they are behaving in a manner consistent with their own values.

Even if one accepts the involvement of exchange, identification, or internalization mechanisms, it is not clear what needs or values are relevant for the development of commitment. Is there a universal set of needs and values that workers seek to satisfy? If so, it should be possible to identify a common set of work experiences that can be expected to contribute to the development of affective commitment for all employees. The fact that fairly consistent evidence has emerged for relations between affective commitment and the many work experiences we earlier categorized as comfort- and competence-related, suggests that a common set of needs and values may indeed exist. On the other hand, it might be argued that there are individual differences in the needs and values employees bring to the work place. If so, a particular type of work experience (e.g., job challenge, role clarity) should influence commitment only among those employees for whom it is relevant.

Unfortunately, the few studies assessing the person-environment fit hypothesis as it pertains to the development of affective commitment have yielded mixed results (see Blau 1987; Cook & Wall 1980; Morris & Snyder 1979; Stumpf & Hartman 1984; Steers & Spencer 1977). Moreover, comparison of these studies is complicated by the fact that they have not used a common set of needs, values, and work experiences. Although there have been various attempts to categorize needs (e.g., Alderfer 1972; Herzberg 1966; Maslow 1943; Murray 1938) and work values (e.g., Bartol & Manhardt 1979; Meglino et al. 1989; Super 1970), none of these classification systems has been used systematically in tests of the person-environment fit hypothesis.

Another possible explanation for the mixed results is that the effect of person-environment congruence on attachment to the organization is conditional. It may be necessary, for example, that the employee see the organization as responsible for the fit (e.g., it is a consequence of effective management policy; similar fit could not be achieved elsewhere) in order for it to influence commitment to the organization. If employees believe that other organizations would provide similar work experiences, their current experiences might have little impact on affective commitment. For this reason, we have included causal attribution as a potential moderator of the relation between work experiences and affective commitment in Figure 2.

Clearly, the person-environment fit notion requires further study. The relations among work experiences, commitment, and behavior may well reflect the simultaneous operation of several different processes. If our understanding of the development and consequences of affective commitment is to progress beyond a simple laundry list of correlates, it will be necessary to conduct research to examine these processes more explicitly.

Continuance Commitment

The development process is perhaps most straightforward in the case of continuance commitment. Anything that increases the cost associated with leaving an organization has the potential to create continuance commitment. In some cases, potential costs develop as the direct result of actions taken by the employee with full recognition that they will make leaving the organization more difficult (e.g., accepting a job assignment that requires very specialized skills training). In other cases, potential costs accumulate over time without the employee being aware (e.g., the market value of an employee's skills may gradually erode without his or her knowledge). Becker (1960) referred to the latter situation as "commitment by default" (p. 38). Regardless of how they come into being, however, potential costs of leaving will only produce continuance commitment if, and when, they are recognized. The employee whose skills are becoming less marketable may not experience continuance commitment until (or unless) the time comes to test the market. It is through the recognition of costs, therefore, that continuance commitment develops.

Because continued employment in an organization is a matter of necessity for the employee with high continuance commitment, the nature of the link between commitment and on-the-job behavior is likely to be dependent upon the implications of that behavior for employment. For example, an individual whose primary tie to the organization is a high level of continuance commitment may exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization if he or she believes continued employment requires such performance. Where employment is essentially guaranteed (i.e., is contingent only on exceeding some minimal standard), however, performance may be barely acceptable. The process by which continuance commitment is translated into behavior, therefore, may involve the employee's evaluation of the behavior-employment link.

Normative Commitment

The feeling of obligation to remain with an organization, according to Wiener (1982), results from the internalization of normative pressures. The socialization experiences that lead to this felt obligation may begin with observation of role models and/or with the contingent use of rewards and punishment. For example, parents who stress the importance of remaining loyal to one's employer may well set the stage for a strong normative commitment to the organization in their children. At a more macro level, cultures may do the same thing to their members by emphasizing the importance of the collective rather than the individual. Similarly, albeit within a more compressed time frame, organizations may provide new hires with socialization experiences that communicate to them that the organization expects and values employee loyalty. The internalization of these experiences—whether familial, cultural, or organizational in origin—might be explained in terms of social learning theory principles (see Davis & Luthans 1980) or more complex psychodynamic processes (see Bowlby 1982).

In addition to these subtle socialization processes, a more specific reciprocity mechanism may also be operative in the development of normative commitment. To the extent that the individual has internalized a reciprocity norm or "exchange ideology" (Eisenberger et al. 1986), the receipt of special favors, or investments, from the organization may oblige him or her to remain even in the face of other, more attractive, alternatives.

Note that the concept of reciprocity has been postulated as a mechanism by which both normative and affective commitment are translated into behavior. There may well be a difference, however, in the nature of the reciprocity motive. The motive arising from affective commitment might best be described as a desire to contribute to the well-being of the organization in order to maintain equity in a mutually beneficial association. In contrast, that arising from normative commitment reflects an obligation to do what is right. The distinction between *reciprocity by desire* and *reciprocity by obligation* has not been made to this point in the commitment literature, perhaps because of the failure to make a clear distinction between affective and normative commitment. Although the behavioral consequences of the two may be difficult to distinguish under normal circumstances, there may be subtle differences that are reflected more in the tone than in the nature of the behavior. For example, obligation may carry with it an underlying resentment and a tendency to keep an accurate account of inputs and outcomes that is absent in the case of desire. Moreover, where normative commitment results from the receipt of advanced rewards, once the debt has been repaid, the employee may choose to leave the organization and/or cut back on the level of effort exerted.

Integration with Behavioral Commitment

A distinction was made earlier between commitment as a psychological state and commitment as behavioral persistence. Although the focus of the present review was on the former, it is important to again acknowledge the link between the two. Mowday et al. (1982) attempted to integrate the attitudinal (affective) and behavioral approaches to commitment by proposing an ongoing reciprocal influence process. They argued that, under conditions that increase felt responsibility, behavior may be instrumental in shaping attitudes, which, in turn, influence subsequent behavior. Thus, for example, employees who perform at a high level of proficiency may become (behaviorally) committed to that level of performance and, consequently, develop a more positive attitude (affective commitment) toward the organization. Such an attitude, once developed, may ensure the continuation of a high level of performance in the future. This is recognized in the present model by including behavioral commitment as an antecedent of affective commitment and as part of a feedback chain in which positive work behaviors (for which the employee accepts responsibility) increase behavioral commitment and consequently, affective commitment.

TESTS OF THE MODEL

Although inductive in its development, the model has subsequently been subjected to preliminary empirical investigation. This began with the development of measures of the three components of commitment. The result was three eight-item scales (see Allen & Meyer 1990). Internal consistency estimates (alpha coefficients) obtained in studies employing these scales (Allen & Meyer 1990; Allen & Smith 1987; Bobocel, Meyer, & Allen 1988; McGee & Ford 1987; Meyer & Allen 1984, 1986; Meyer et al. 1989; Withey 1988) range from .74 to .89 for the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), .69 to .84 for the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and .69 to .79 for the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). Only in the case of affective commitment was there an existing instrument (the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire: OCQ) which measured commitment in a manner sufficiently similar to the new scales that testing for convergent validity was possible. Correlations between the ACS and OCQ typically exceed .80 (e.g., Allen & Meyer 1990; Meyer & Allen 1984; Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker 1990).

Allen & Meyer (1990, Study 1) reported that items from the ACS, CCS, and NCS loaded on separate orthogonal factors, thereby providing some evidence for the hypothesized independence of the three constructs. Correlations among the raw scores, however, told a slightly different story. Although continuance commitment did not correlate significantly with affective ($r = .06$) or normative ($r = .14$) commitment, the latter correlated significantly with one another ($r = .51$). This suggests that feelings of what one *wants* to do and what one *ought* to do may not be completely independent.

Preliminary attempts to examine the correlates of the three components of commitment have provided support, particularly in the case of affective and continuance commitment, for relations with antecedent and consequence variables outlined in the model. Allen and Meyer (1990, Study 2) measured commitment and several of the hypothesized antecedent variables for 337 full-time, non-unionized employees in three organizations. They found, using canonical correlation analysis, that work experiences associated with personal comfort (e.g., organizational dependability, peer cohesion, role clarity) and perceived competence (e.g., personal importance, job challenge, participation) were the best predictors of affective commitment. In contrast, investments (e.g., specificity of education and skills, pension contributions) and perceived lack of alternatives were most predictive of continuance commitment. Although normative commitment was related to perceptions of a commitment norm within the organization as predicted, it was also related to several of the antecedents of affective and continuance commitment. Allen and Meyer noted, however, that their study was not a good test of the model's predictions concerning normative commitment.

Withey (1988) also reported findings consistent with the model's predictions for affective and continuance commitment (he did not include a measure of normative commitment in his study). Affective commitment correlated most

strongly with job satisfaction, management receptiveness, leader-member relations, and opportunity to voice one's views. Continuance commitment correlated more highly with measures of sunk costs, skill specificity, and availability of better alternatives (negatively).

Bobocel et al. (1988) examined pre-entry variables that might be associated with the development of affective and continuance commitment to the organization among recent university graduates. Affective commitment during the first year of employment, as might be expected, correlated significantly with confidence in choice of employer, the importance of intrinsic factors in job choice, anticipated satisfaction with the job, and starting salary. Continuance commitment correlated positively with the importance of extrinsic factors in job choice and negatively with anticipated job satisfaction and the number of job offers received. The best predictor of continuance commitment, however, was perceived difficulty of finding alternative employment. This variable, measured prior to entry, correlated significantly with continuance commitment after 1, 6, and 11 months on the job.

To test the model's predictions concerning relations with work-related behavior, Meyer et al. (1989) correlated scores for affective and continuance commitment obtained from first-level managers in a large food service company with supervisors' ratings of their performance and promotability. They found that affective commitment correlated positively with supervisors' ratings, whereas continuance commitment correlated negatively. In a similar study, Shore (1990) also found significant negative correlations between continuance commitment and managers' ratings of performance, promotability, and managerial potential; correlations with affective commitment were positive but not significant.

Allen and Smith (1987) and Meyer and Allen (1986) found that self-report measures of citizenship behavior correlated positively with measures of affective and normative commitment but not with continuance commitment. In fact, Meyer and Allen found a negative correlation between continuance commitment and an overall measure of citizenship, and Allen and Smith found a negative correlation between continuance commitment and the extent to which employees felt they were innovative at work. Shore (1990) found that affective commitment correlated positively, whereas continuance commitment correlated negatively, with managers' ratings of citizenship.

Finally, Randall et al. (1990) examined the links between the three components of commitment and a multidimensional self-report measure of work behavior. The results of multiple regression analyses in which the ACS, CCS, and NCS were entered into the equations simultaneously revealed that affective commitment contributed significantly to the prediction of concern for quality, sacrifice orientation, and willingness to share knowledge, normative commitment contributed only to the prediction of sacrifice orientation, and continuance commitment did not add significantly to the prediction of any of these behaviors. Together, these findings provide support for the proposition that the three components of commitment have different implications for work-related behavior other than turnover.

We suggested earlier that affective, continuance, and normative commitment may interact to influence behavior. To test this possibility, Meyer et al. (1989) conducted both moderated multiple regression and subgroup analyses in their study of the link between commitment and managers' ratings of performance and promotability. They found that, although the interaction of affective and continuance commitment did not contribute significantly to the prediction of performance and promotability ratings, a comparison of subgroups (based on mean splits) revealed that overall performance and promotability ratings of managers in the high affective-low continuance commitment groups were significantly greater than those of managers in the remaining three groups. Randall et al. (1990), in their study of the commitment-behavior link, found that inclusion of the normative-continuance commitment interaction added significantly to the prediction of sacrifice behaviors. Sacrifice was greatest for the high normative and low continuance combination, and lowest for the low normative and high continuance combination. Thus, there is some evidence, albeit modest, for the interactive effects of the commitment components on organizational behavior.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Development of the three-component model was intended to provide a summary of what is known to date about commitment. Although recognizing distinctions in the way commitment has been conceptualized in the literature eliminates some of the confusion that exists, it is clear that there remain significant gaps in our understanding of the commitment process. Identification of these gaps should provide direction for future research.

First, the model, like the literature, implies the existence of causal effects; commitment is presumed to be caused by the antecedent variables and to cause subsequent behavior. At this time, however, there is insufficient evidence in most cases to make causal claims. Although some evidence for directional relations has been provided in recent studies using structural equation analyses (e.g., Clegg 1983; Dougherty et al. 1985; Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, in press; Mowday et al. 1984; Pierce & Dunham 1987; Stumpf & Hartman 1984) there has also been evidence for relations in the direction opposite to that specified in the model (e.g., Bateman & Strasser 1984; Meyer & Allen 1986, 1988). For example, Meyer and Allen (1988) found that commitment measured after 1 month on the job predicted ratings of organizational dependability after 6 months, and commitment after 6 months predicted ratings of organizational dependability and personal importance after 11 months. This may merely reflect an attitude-behavior-perception feedback loop similar to that suggested by Mowday et al. (1982) and included in the model. There is too little evidence available, however, to conclude with any confidence that this is the case.

A second direction for investigation concerns the relations among the com-

mitment components. Although we have described affective, continuance, and normative commitment as if they represent three distinct psychological states reflecting a desire, a need, and an obligation to remain, there is some evidence to suggest that they are not completely independent (Allen & Meyer 1990; Meyer & Allen 1986; Randall et al. 1990). Moreover, it is also not clear that the three components of commitment outlined here are the only relevant components of commitment or that each represents a unitary construct. With regard to the latter, McGee and Ford (1987) suggested recently that the CCS comprises two subscales, one assessing personal sacrifice associated with leaving the organization (CC:HiSac) and the other an awareness of the lack of alternatives (CC:LoAlt). Interestingly, they also found that these subscales, although positively correlated with one another, correlated in opposite directions with affective commitment (i.e., CC:HiSac correlated positively and CC:LoAlt correlated negatively). This pattern of relations was partially replicated by Meyer et al. (in press). They found, using confirmatory factor analysis, that the division of the CCS into two subscales produced a slightly better fit to the data, although the subscales were highly correlated. Moreover, as in McGee and Ford's study, they found that the personal sacrifice subscale was positively related, and lack of alternatives subscale was negatively related, to affective commitment. In contrast, Meyer et al. (1989) found that, not only were the subscales highly correlated, they correlated similarly with measures of performance and promotability. In light of these findings, the three component model should not be viewed as a final analysis. Rather, the model reflects existing distinctions in the literature and should be used as a source of hypotheses to be tested in future research.

Finally, the process by which commitment develops and is translated into behavior has not been well researched. There are several directions that future research might take including (a) identification of relevant needs and values to be included in tests of the person-environment congruence hypothesis, (b) examination of the moderating effects of felt responsibility in the behavior-attitude link, (c) investigation of the role that attribution of responsibility for positive work experiences plays in the development of affective commitment to the organization, and (d) testing the effects of reciprocity norms in the development of normative commitment.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this review was to provide organization to what has become a somewhat confusing literature. In examining the various conceptualizations of organizational commitment as a psychological state, we uncovered what appear to be three general themes. The first, which we labeled affective commitment, reflects a desire to maintain membership in the organization that develops largely as the result of work experiences that create feelings of comfort and personal competence. The second, continuance commitment, reflects a need to remain, and results from recognition of the costs (e.g., existence of side bets,

lack of alternatives) associated with leaving. The third, normative commitment, reflects an obligation to remain resulting from internalization of a loyalty norm and/or the receipt of favors that require repayment. It was argued that these themes represent components of commitment, and that each employee has a commitment profile reflecting his or her degree of desire, need, and obligation to remain. Finally, although the likelihood of leaving the organization decreases as any one of the three components increases in strength, it was argued that the effects of the three components on on-the-job behavior might be quite different.

At the present time, the three-component model may have the greatest relevance for those conducting commitment research. It underscores the need to (a) specify clearly the nature of the construct under examination, (b) use measures that are reliable and valid indicators of the intended construct, (c) examine the proposed antecedent-commitment and commitment-behavior links using procedures designed to test the implicit causal hypotheses, (d) explore the relations among the components of commitment, both within and across time, as well as the link between affective and behavioral commitment, and (e) pay greater attention to the processes involved in both the development and consequences of commitment. Specific implications of the model for human resource practitioners will depend, of course, on the results of this research. At this point, however, it would seem important that they view commitment as more than a mechanism to reduce turnover. They should also consider other effects that efforts to increase commitment might have on employees, including their personal well-being and willingness to work toward the attainment of organizational goals.

REFERENCES

Abelson, M. A. 1987. "Examination of Avoidable and Unavoidable Turnover." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 72: 382–386.

Alderfer, C. P. 1972. *"Existence, Relatedness, and Growth: Human Needs in Organizational Settings*. New York: Free Press.

Allen, N. J. and J. P. Meyer. 1990. "The Measurement and Antecedents of Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment." *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 63: 1–18.

Allen, N. J. and J. Smith. 1987 (June). *An Investigation of "Extra-role" Behaviours Within Organizations*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Vancouver, British Columbia.

Alutto, J. A., L. G. Hrebiniak, and R. C. Alonso. 1973. "On Operationalizing the Concept of Commitment." *Social Forces* 51: 448–454.

Angle, H. L. and J. L. Perry. 1981. "An Empirical Assessment of Organizational Commitment and Organizational Effectiveness." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 27: 1–14.

_____. 1983. "Organizational Commitment: Individual and Organizational Influences." *Work and Occupations* 10: 123–146.

Aranya, N. and D. Jacobson. 1975. "An Empirical Study of the Theories of Organizational and Occupational Commitment." *Journal of Social Psychology* 97: 15–22.

Arnold, H. J. and D. C. Feldman. 1982. "A Multivariate Analysis of the Determinants of Job Turnover." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 67: 350–360.

Bartol, K. and P. J. Manhardt. 1979. "Sex Differences in Job Outcome Preferences: Trends Among Newly Hired College Graduates." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 64: 477–482.

Bateman, T. S. and S. Strasser. 1984. "A Longitudinal Analysis of the Antecedents of Organizational Commitment." *Academy of Management Journal* 27: 95–112.

Becker, H. S. 1960. "Notes on the Concept of Commitment." *American Journal of Sociology* 66: 32–42.

Blau, G. J. 1986. "Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment as Interactive Predictors of Tardiness and Absenteeism." *Journal of Management* 12: 577–584.

_____. 1987. "Using a Person-environment Fit Model to Predict Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 30: 240–257.

_____. 1988. "An Investigation of the Apprenticeship Organizational Socialization Strategy." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 32: 176–195.

Bluedorn, A. C. 1982. "A Unified Model of Turnover from Organizations." *Human Relations* 35: 135–153.

Bobocel, D. B., J. P. Meyer, and N. J. Allen. 1988 (June). *Longitudinal Analysis of Relations Among Job Choice, Work Experiences, and Organizational Commitment.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

Bowlby, J. 1982. *Attachment.* New York: Basic Books.

Brickman, P. 1987. *Commitment, Conflict, and Caring.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Brooke, P. P., Jr., D. W. Russell, and J. L. Price. 1988. "Discriminant Validity of Measures of Job Satisfaction, Job Involvement, and Organizational Commitment." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 73: 139–145.

Buchanan, B. 1974. "Building Organizational Commitment: The Socialization of Managers in Work Organizations." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 19: 533–546.

Clegg, C. 1983. "Psychology of Employee Lateness, Absence, and Turnover: A Methodological Critique and an Empirical Study." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 68: 88–101.

Colarelli, S. M., R. A. Dean, and C. Konstans. 1987. "Comparative Effects of Personal and Situational Influences on Job Outcomes of New Professionals." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 72: 558–566.

Cook, J. and T. Wall. 1980. "New Work Attitude Measures of Trust, Organizational Commitment and Personal Need Non-fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 53: 39–52.

Cotton, J. L. and J. M. Tuttle. 1986. "Employee Turnover: A Meta-analysis and Review with Implications for Research." *Academy of Management Review* 11: 55–70.

Curry, J. P., D. S. Wakefield, J. L. Price, and C. W. Mueller. 1986. "On the Causal Ordering of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment." *Academy of Management Journal* 29: 847–858.

Davis, T. V. R. and F. Luthans. 1980. "A Social Learning Theory Approach to Organizational Behavior." *Academy of Management Review* 5: 281–290.

DeCotiis, T. A. and T. P. Summers. 1987. "A Path Analysis of a Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment." *Human Relations* 40: 445–470.

Dougherty, T. W., A. C. Bluedorn, and T. L. Keon. 1985. "Precursors of Employee Turnover: A Multiple-sample Causal Analysis." *Journal of Occupational Behaviour* 6: 259–271.

Dubin, R., J. E. Champoux, and L. W. Porter. 1975. "Central Life Interests and Organizational Commitment of Blue-collar and Clerical Workers." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 20: 411–421.

Eisenberger, R., R. Huntington, S. Hutchison, and D. Sowa. 1986. "Perceived Organizational Support." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 71: 500–507.

Eisenberger, R., P. Fasolo, and V. Davis-LaMastro. 1990. "Perceived Organizational Support and Employee Diligence, Commitment, and Innovation." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 75: 51–59.

Etzioni, A. 1975. *A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations*. New York: Free Press.

Farrell, D. and J. C. Petersen. 1984. "Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover of New Employees: A Longitudinal Study." *Human Relations* 8: 681–692.

Farrell, D. and C. E. Rusbult. 1981. "Exchange Variables as Predictors of Job Satisfaction, Job Commitment, and Turnover: The Impact of Rewards, Costs, Alternatives, and Investments." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 27: 78–95.

Ferris, K. R. and N. Aranya. 1983. "A Comparison of Two Organizational Commitment Scales." *Personnel Psychology* 36: 87–98.

Fishbein, M. and I. Ajzen. 1975. *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Glisson, C. and M. Durick. 1988. "Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in Human Service Organizations." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 33: 61–81.

Green, S. G., W. Blank, and R. C. Liden. 1983. "Market and Organizational Influences on Bank Employees' Work Attitudes and Behaviors." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 68: 298–306.

Griffin, R. W. and T. S. Bateman. 1986. "Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment." Pp. 157–188 in *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology,* edited by C. L. Cooper and I. Robertson. New York: Wiley & Sons.

Hackman, J. R. and G. R. Oldham. 1976. "Motivation Through the Design of Work: Test of a Theory." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 16: 250–279.

Herzberg, F. 1966. *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland: World Publishing.

Hom, P. W., R. Katerberg, and C. L. Hulin. 1979. "Comparative Examination of Three Approaches to the Prediction of Turnover." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 64: 280–290.

Hrebiniak, L. G. 1974. "Effects of Job Level and Participation on Employee Attitude and Perception of Influence." *Academy of Management Journal* 17: 469–662.

Hrebiniak, L. G. and J. A. Alutto. 1972. "Personal and Role-related Factors in the Development of Organizational Commitment." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 17: 555–573.

Hulin, C. L. and M. I. Blood. 1968. "Job Enlargement, Individual Differences, and Worker Responses." *Psychological Bulletin* 69: 41–45.

Ivancevich, J. M. 1985. "Predicting Absenteeism From Prior Absence and Work Attitudes." *Academy of Management Journal* 28: 219–228.

Jamal, M. 1984. "Job Stress and Job Performance Controversy: An Empirical Assessment." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 33: 1–21.

Kanter, R. M. 1968. "Commitment and Social Organization: A Study of Commitment Mechanisms in Utopian Communities." *American Sociological Review* 33: 499–517.

Katz, D. 1964. "The Motivational Basis of Organizational Behavior." *Behavioral Science* 9: 131–146.

Kelman, H. C. 1958. "Compliance, Identification, and Internalization: Three Processes of Attitude Change." *Journal of Conflict Resolution* 2: 51–60.

Kidron, A. 1978. "Work Values and Organizational Commitment." *Academy of Management Journal* 21: 239–247.

Kiesler, C. A. and J. Sakamura. 1966. "A Test of a Model for Commitment." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 3: 349–353.

Koch, J. L. and R. M. Steers. 1978. "Job Attachment, Satisfaction, and Turnover Among Public Employees." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 12: 119–128.

Lee, S. M. 1971. "An Empirical Analysis of Organizational Identification." *Academy of Management Journal* 14: 213–226.

Lee, T. W. and R. T. Mowday. 1987. "Voluntarily Leaving an Organization: An Empirical Investigation of Steers and Mowday's Model of Turnover." *Academy of Management Journal* 30: 721–743.

Luthans, F., D. Baack, and L. Taylor. 1987. "Organizational Commitment: Analysis and Antecedents." *Human Relations* 40: 219–236.

March, J. G. and H. A. Simon. 1958. *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.

Marsh, R. M. and H. Mannari. 1977. "Organizational Commitment and Turnover: A Predictive Study." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 22: 57–75.

Maslow, A. H. 1943. "A Theory of Human Motivation." *Psychological Review* 50: 370–396.

McGee, G. W., and R. C. Ford. 1987. "Two (or more?) Dimensions of Organizational Commitment: Reexamination of the Affective and Continuance Commitment Scales." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 72: 638–641.

Meglino, B. M., E. C. Ravlin, and C. L. Adkins. 1989. "A Work Values Approach to Corporate Culture: A Field Test of the Value Congruence Process and its Relationship to Individual Outcomes." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 74: 424–432.

Meyer, J. P. and N. J. Allen. 1984. "Testing the "Side-bet Theory" of Organizational Commitment: Some Methodological Considerations." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 69: 372–378.

———. 1986 (June). *Development and Consequences of Three Components of Commitment*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada, Whistler, B.C.

———. 1987. "A Longitudinal Analysis of the Early Development and Consequences of Organizational Commitment." *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science* 19: 199–215.

———. 1988. "Links Between Work Experiences and Organizational Commitment During the First Year of Employment: A Longitudinal Analysis." *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 61: 195–209.

Meyer, J. P., N. J. Allen, and I. R. Gellatly. (in press). "Affective and Continuance Commitment to the Organization: Evaluation of Measures and Analysis of Concurrent and Time-lagged Relations." *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

Meyer, J. P., S. V. Paunonen, I. R. Gellatly, R. D. Goffin, and D. N. Jackson. 1989. "Organizational Commitment and Job Performance: It's the Nature of the Commitment That Counts." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 74: 152–156.

Michaels, C. E. and P. E. Spector. 1982. "Causes of Employee Turnover: A Test of the Mobley, Griffith, Hand, and Meglino Model." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 67: 53–59.

Miner, J. B. 1980. *Theories of Organizational Behavior*. Hinsdale, IL: The Dryden Press.

Morris, J. H. and J. L. Koch. 1979. "Impact of Role Perceptions on Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement, and Psychosomatic Illness Among Three Vocational Groupings." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 14: 88–101.

Morris, J. H. and J. D. Sherman. 1981. "Generalizability of an Organizational Commitment Model." *Academy of Management Journal* 24: 512–526.

Morris, J. H. and R. A. Snyder. 1979. "A Second Look at Need for Achievement and Need for Autonomy as Moderators of Role Perception-outcome Relationships." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 64: 173–178.

Morris, J. H. and R. M. Steers. 1980. "Structural Influences on Organizational Commitment." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 17: 50–57.

Morrow, P. C. 1983. "Concept Redundancy in Organizational Research: The Case of Work Commitment." *Academy of Management Review* 8: 486–500.

Morrow, P. C. and J. C. McElroy. 1987. "Work Commitment and Job Satisfaction Over Three Career Stages." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 30: 330–346.

Mottaz, C. J. 1988. "Determinants of Organizational Commitment." *Human Relations* 41: 467–482.

Mowday, R. T., C. S. Koberg, and A. W. McArthur. 1984. "The Psychology of the Withdrawal Process: A Cross-validation Test of Mobley's Intermediate Linkages Model of Turnover in Two Samples." *Academy of Management Journal* 27: 79–94.

Mowday, R. T., L. W. Porter, and R. Dubin. 1974. "Unit Performance, Situational Factors, and Employee Attitudes in Spatially Separated Work Units." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 12: 231–248.

Mowday, R. T., L. W. Porter, and R. M. Steers. 1982. *Employee-organization Linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover.* New York: Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T., R. M. Steers, and L. W. Porter. 1979. "The Measurement of Organizational Commitment." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 14: 224–247.

Murray, H. J. 1938. *Explorations in Personality.* New York: Oxford University Press.

O'Driscoll, M. P. 1987. "Attitudes to the Job and the Organisation Among New Recruits: Influence of Perceived Job Characteristics and Organisation Structure." *Applied Psychology: An International Review* 36: 133–145.

O'Reilly, C. A. and D. F. Caldwell. 1980. "Job Choice: The Impact of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors on Subsequent Satisfaction and Commitment." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 65: 559–565.

———. 1981. "The Commitment and Job Tenure of New Employees: Some Evidence of Postdecisional Justification." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 26: 597–616.

O'Reilly, C. A. and J. Chatman. 1986. "Organizational Commitment and Psychological Attachment: The Effects of Compliance, Identification, and Internalization on Prosocial Behavior." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 71: 492–499.

Ogilvie, J. R. 1986. "The Role of Human Resource Management Practices in Predicting Organizational Commitment." *Group and Organization Studies* 11: 335–359.

Organ, D. W. 1987. *Organizational Citizenship Behavior.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Parasuraman, S. 1982. "Predicting Turnover Intentions and Turnover Behavior: A Multivariate Analysis." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 21: 111–121.

Parasuraman, S. and J. A. Alutto. 1984. "Sources of Outcome Stress in Organizational Settings: Toward the Development of a Structural Model." *Academy of Management Journal* 27: 330–350.

Pfeffer, J. and J. Lawler. 1980. "Effects of Job Alternatives, Extrinsic Rewards, and Behavioral Commitment on Attitude Toward the Organization: A Field Test of the Insufficient Justification Paradigm. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 25: 38–56.

Pierce, J. L. and R. B. Dunham. 1987. "Organizational Commitment: Preemployment Propensity and Initial Work Experiences." *Journal of Management* 13: 163–178.

Podsakoff, P. M., L. J. Williams, and W. D. Todor. 1986. "Effects of Organizational Formalization on Alienation Among Professionals and Nonprofessionals." *Academy of Management Journal* 29: 820–831.

Porter, L. W., W. J. Crampon, and F. J. Smith. 1976. "Organizational Commitment and Managerial Turnover." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 15: 87–98.

Porter, L. W., R. M. Steers, R. T. Mowday, and P. V. Boulian. 1974. "Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Among Psychiatric Technicians." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 59: 603–609.

Prestholdt, P. H., I. M. Lane, and R. C. Mathews. 1987. "Nurse Turnover as Reasoned Action: Development of a Process Model." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 72: 221–228.

Price, J. L. and C. W. Mueller. 1986. *Absenteeism and Turnover Among Hospital Employees*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press Inc.

Randall, D. M., D. B. Fedor, and C. O. Longenecker. 1990. "The Behavioral Expression of Organizational Commitment." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 36: 210–224.

Reichers, A. E. 1985. "A Review and Reconceptualization of Organizational Commitment." *Academy of Management Review* 10: 465–476.

Rhodes, S. R. and R. M. Steers. 1981. "Conventional vs. Worker-owned Organizations." *Human Relations* 12: 1013–1035.

Ritzer, G. and H. M. Trice. 1969. "An Empirical Study of Howard Becker's Side-bet Theory." *Social Forces* 47: 475–479.

Rusbult, C. E. and D. Farrell. 1983. "A Longitudinal Test of the Investment Model: The Impact on Job Satisfaction, Job Commitment, and Turnover of Variations in Rewards, Costs, Alternatives, and Investments." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 68: 429–438.

Salancik, G. R. 1977. "Commitment and the Control of Organizational Behavior and Belief." Pp. 1–54 in *New Directions in Organizational Behavior*, edited by B. M. Staw and G. R. Salancik. Chicago: St. Clair Press.

Scholl, R. W. 1981. "Differentiating Commitment From Expectancy as a Motivating Force." *Academy of Management Review* 6: 589–599.

Schwartz, S. H. 1973. "Normative Explanations of Helping Behavior: A Critique, Proposal, and Empirical Test." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 9: 349–364.

Schwartz, S. H. and R. C. Tessler. 1972. "A Test of a Model for Reducing Measured Attitude-behavior Discrepancies." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 24: 225–236.

Shoemaker, D. J., W. E. Snizek, and C. D. Bryant. 1977. "Toward a Further Clarification of Becker's Side-bet Hypothesis as Applied to Organizational and Occupational Commitment." *Social Forces* 56: 598–603.

Shore, L. 1990. *A Model of Affective and Continuance Commitment*. Manuscript in preparation.

Staw, B. M. 1977 (August). *Two Sides of Commitment*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Orlando, FL.

Stebbins, R. A. 1970. "On Misunderstanding the Concept of Commitment: A Theoretical Clarification." *Social Forces* 48: 526–529.

Steel, R. P. and N. K. Ovalle. 1984. "A Review and Meta-analysis of Research on the Relationship Between Behavioral Intentions and Employee Turnover." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 69: 673–686.

Steers, R. M. 1977. "Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 22: 46–56.

Steers, R. M. and D. N. Braunstein. 1976. "A Behaviorally-based Measure of Manifest Need in Work Settings." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 9: 251–266.

Steers, R. M. and R. T. Mowday. 1981. "Employee Turnover and Postdecision Accommodation Processes." In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior,* Vol. 3, pp. 235–282. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Steers, R. M. and D. G. Spencer. 1977. "The Role of Achievement Motivation in Job Design." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 62: 472–479.

Stevens, J. M., J. M. Beyer, and H. M. Trice. 1978. "Assessing Personal, Role, and Organizational Predictors of Managerial Commitment." *Academy of Management Journal* 21: 380–396.

Stone, E. F. and L. W. Porter. 1975. "Job Characteristics and Job Attitudes: A Multivariate Study." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 60: 57–64.

Stumpf, S. A. and K. Hartman. 1984. "Individual Exploration to Organizational Commitment or Withdrawal." *Academy of Management Journal* 27: 308–329.

Super, D. E. 1970. *Work Values Inventory.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Terborg, J. R., T. W. Lee, F. J. Smith, G. A. Davis, and M. S. Turbin. 1982. "Extension of the Schmidt and Hunter Validity Generalization Procedure to the Prediction of Absenteeism Behavior from Knowledge of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 67: 440–449.

Triandis, H. C. 1975. "Cultural Training, Cognitive Complexity, and Interpersonal Attitudes." In *Cross-cultural Perspectives on Learning,* edited by R. W. Brislin, S. Bocher, and W. J. Lonner. New York: Sage.

Vroom, V. H. 1964. *Work and Motivation.* New York: Wiley.

Werbel, J. D. and S. Gould. 1984. "A Comparison of the Relationship of Commitment to Turnover in Recent Hires and Tenured Employees." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 69: 687–690.

Wiener, Y. 1982. "Commitment in Organizations: A Normative View." *Academy of Management Review* 7: 418–428.

Wiener, Y. and Y. Vardi. 1980. "Relationships Between Job, Organization, and Career Commitments and Work Outcomes: An Integrative Approach." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 26: 81–96.

Williams, L. J. and J. T. Hazer. 1986. "Antecedents and Consequences of Satisfaction and Commitment Variables in Turnover Models: A Reanalysis Using Latent Variable Structural Equation Methods." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 71: 219–231.

Withey, M. 1988. "Antecedents of Value Based and Economic Organizational Commitment." *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada—Organizational Behavior Division* 9: 124–133.