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Employee Commitment: The Combined Effects of Bases and Foci

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Employee Commitment: The Combined Effects of Bases and Foci

by

Meng Uoy Taing

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
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Dedication

Many important people in my life inspired the writing of this thesis. I would like to dedicate this work to my wife, Leakhena. She encouraged me to try my hardest and not to lose sight of my goals. I would also like to acknowledge the support provided by my mother Yon, father Nam, older brothers Heang and Pheng, and older sister Houng. It is with great pride that I dedicate this work to them.
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Employee Commitment: The Combined Effects of Bases and Foci

Meng Uoy Taing

ABSTRACT

Recent studies indicate that employees distinguish between commitments to interpersonal foci within the organization, such as supervisors and coworkers. Often, these commitments account for variance in outcomes incremental to organizational commitment (e.g., Becker, 1992). Unfortunately, research has tended to focus on affective forms of commitment to foci, while ignoring normative and continuance commitment. To address this gap, the current study proposed and tested models of commitment to foci which incorporate normative and continuance commitment in addition to affective commitment. Results showed some parallels with findings concerning organizational commitment. Much like organizational commitment, support from a focus relates to affective commitment to that focus, while expectations from a focus predict normative commitment to the focus. Additionally, both affective and normative commitment to supervisors and coworkers predicted favorable outcomes, but continuance commitment did not. In line with researchers recommendations (e.g., Johnson, Groff & Taing, in press), interactions among different bases and foci of commitment were also examined. Exploratory analyses suggested a three-way interaction between affective organizational, supervisor, and coworker commitment for predicting in-role performance.
Chapter One

Introduction

Recent research has demonstrated the importance of differentiating between commitments to interpersonal foci within the organization, such as supervisors (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996; Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Vandenberghen, 2002; Vandenberghen, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004) and coworkers (Bryant, 2001; Wasti & Can, 2008). These studies reveal that not only do employees distinguish between commitments to such foci (Snape, Chan, & Redman, 2006; Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropanzano, 2005), but often they account for variance in outcomes incremental to organizational commitment (Becker, 1992; Becker & Kernan, 2003; Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Like organizational commitment, the mindset accompanying commitment to a particular focus can be characterized as involving affective, normative, and continuance bases (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). As such, it is surprising that most of the research concerning commitment to foci has focused solely on the affective base. However, doing so may be problematic for several reasons. First, because different motivational mindsets accompany each base of commitment (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghen, 2004), it is likely that particular bases have unique antecedents and varying effects on outcomes. Secondly, a growing body of evidence suggests that interactions exist among the bases of organizational commitment (e.g., Jaros, 1997; Johnson, Groff, & Taing, in press; Somers, 1995), which raises the possibility that
interactions also characterize commitment to interpersonal foci. If so, measuring only affective commitment to foci and ignoring potential interactions among bases can result in model misspecification.

Of equal importance is the fact that employees can be simultaneously committed to multiple foci within the organization. Research suggests that employees engage in distinct exchange relationships with multiple organizational constituencies (Bishop et al., 2005; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003; Vandenberghe et al., 2004) yet few studies have investigated the interactive effects of being committed to more than one focus. Snape, Chan, and Redman (2006) examined interactions in a Chinese sample. However, their results may not generalize to a Western population because the nature of commitment in Chinese contexts is thought to differ from other cultures (Chen, Tsui, & Farh, 2002; Cheng, Jiang, and Riley, 2003; Farh, Early, & Lin, 1997). Becker and Billings (1993) studied the combined effects of commitment to the organization, supervisor, workgroup, and top management. Based on their patterns of commitment, employees were classified as having a particular “commitment profile.” Although a profile approach makes it easier to interpret the effect of commitment to multiple foci, a great deal of precision is lost through artificial categorization. Furthermore, their analyses confounded additive effects with interactive ones. Finally, Vandenberghe and Bentein (in press) examined interactive effects between affective organizational and supervisor commitment. However, they only explored interaction effects on turnover variables, rather than also considering variables such as performance. As a whole, these studies suggest that interactive effects characterize commitment to multiple constituencies.
However, a full understanding of the nature of these interactions is far from complete.

The purpose of the current study is threefold. First, it fills gaps in the literature by examining the three bases of commitment (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance) to supervisors and coworkers. Such investigation is needed as it is likely that each base has different antecedents and explains unique variance in the prediction of outcomes. Further, it provides an important opportunity to test whether relationships concerning bases of organizational commitment can be generalized to bases of commitment to foci. Second, the current study examines possible interactive effects among the bases of commitment within each focus. To the author’s knowledge, no study thus far has explored this issue. Doing so is necessary because, although affective commitment has generally been shown to have positive effects on outcomes, if interactions exist the effects of affective commitment may depend on the relative levels of normative and continuance commitment. Finally, this study considers interactions between commitments to different foci. Since employees show varying levels of commitment to the organization, supervisor, and coworkers, it is worthwhile to determine whether the combined effects of such commitments differ from their main effects. Thus far, research suggests that interactions between commitments exist, but our understanding of these effects is still preliminary.

Organizational Commitment

Perhaps the most widely studied type of employee commitment is organizational commitment, which is defined as a psychological force that binds employees to their organization and makes turnover less likely (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Organizational
commitment is commonly conceptualized as consisting of three distinguishable bases: affective organizational commitment (AOC), normative organizational commitment (NOC), and continuance organizational commitment (COC; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

AOC involves an emotional attachment to, involvement in, and identification with one’s organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). AOC arises from positive social exchanges between the employee and organization, which are based on perceptions of support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006) and fairness (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). NOC is based on a perceived obligation to maintain membership in the organization, which is grounded in a sense of morality. NOC is thought to result primarily from early socialization experiences or as a form of reciprocity for organizational benefits (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Powell & Meyer, 2004). Lastly, COC is derived from the perceived costs of leaving the organization, including the loss of investments and difficulty in finding a new job (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

AOC tends to have the strongest relationship with desirable outcomes (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). NOC also tends to relate favorably, but to a lesser degree than AOC (Meyer et al., 2002). With the exception of turnover and turnover intentions, COC tends to be unrelated or unfavorably related to outcomes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). That each base demonstrates relationships of varying strength with outcomes can perhaps be explained by the motivational mindsets which underlie each type of commitment (Meyer et al., 2004). Those with high AOC perceive congruence between their goals and those of the organization, which leads to
organizational goals being intrinsically and autonomously regulated (Meyer et al., 2004). On the other hand, NOC reflects commitment based on a moral obligation to remain, which is likely associated with introjected regulation (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Meyer et al., 2004). Introjected regulation reflects a weak form of autonomous motivation in which behaviors are performed to avoid feelings of guilt and shame (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Finally, because COC involves commitment based on external costs, it is thought to be associated with external regulation, the least autonomous form of motivation (Meyer et al., 2004). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), effort and performance are at their highest when people operate based on intrinsic or autonomous motivation. This proposition has been supported by a number of studies (e.g., Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Ryan & Connell, 1989).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) state that the effects of each base of commitment also depend on whether an outcome is considered focal or discretionary. Focal outcomes are attitudes and behaviors that are, by definition, implied by the commitment (Meyer et al., 2004; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Discretionary attitudes and behaviors are ones that aren’t necessarily implied by the commitment, but may be influenced by it (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For example, organizational commitment implies that an employee will stay with the organization, but it does not require that an employee performs organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), since they are not clearly stated to be conditions for employment (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995). According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), all three bases of commitment imply a greater inclination to remain with the organization because staying is focal to
organizational commitment. However, only AOC and NOC should necessarily have positive effects for discretionary outcomes because they represent mindsets (i.e. desire and obligation to remain, respectively) which involve some level of concern for the well-being of the organization. High levels of COC involve the perception that the costs of leaving the organization are great and do not imply any desire to do more for the organization than the bare minimum of maintaining membership (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006).

Commitment to Interpersonal Foci

Reichers (1985) argued that commitment to the organization may involve multiple constituencies. That is, the organization is an abstraction represented in reality by supervisors, coworkers, and other individuals related to the organization. Past research has shown that distinguishing between foci of commitment is useful in that commitment to different foci account for variance incremental to organizational commitment (e.g., Becker, 1992; Becker & Kernan, 2003; Stinglhamber et al., 2002). For some outcomes, they have even been shown to relate more closely (e.g., Cheng et al., 2003; Vandenberghe et al., 2004, Vandenberghe, Bentein, Michon, Chebat, Tremblay, & Fils, 2007).

Quite often, these stronger relationships with outcomes have been explained by the “compatibility hypothesis” (Cheng et al., 2003) or “salience of behavior” (Vandenberghe et al., 2004), which states that commitment to a focus (e.g., one’s work team) is a better predictor of behavior toward that focus (e.g., team cohesion) than commitment to a less relevant target such as the organization as a whole. On the other
hand, when predicting an organization-relevant outcome such as turnover, organizational commitment will be most influential. This idea is often credited to Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1977) principle of compatibility, which states that an attitude will predict a behavior only to the extent that the attitude is related to the behavior. Lewin’s (1943) field theory, which contends that behavior is most strongly influenced by the elements in the environment that are perceived as being most salient or proximal, is also widely cited.

Like organizational commitment, commitment to interpersonal foci encompasses the dimensions of affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Unfortunately, few studies have examined the effects of non-affective forms of commitment to interpersonal foci. A notable exception is Stinglhamber, Bentein, and Vandenberghe (2002), who developed scales for measuring affective, normative, and continuance commitment to five different foci. They showed that employees, in fact, distinguish between the bases of commitment to each focus. Additionally, Becker and Kernan (2003) explored the effects of affective and continuance (but not normative) supervisor commitment on in-role performance and OCB, finding evidence for stronger influences of affective supervisor commitment than continuance supervisor commitment on outcomes. Most recently, Wasti and Can (2008) showed that normative supervisor commitment accounted for variance in job stress and OCB directed toward the supervisor incremental to NOC. They did not, however, include affective and normative forms of commitment in the same regression model. Clearly, more research is needed to determine the effects normative and continuance commitment to interpersonal foci.
A Structural Model of Supervisor Commitment

Research on commitment to the supervisor has focused almost exclusively on affective supervisor commitment (ASC). This research has shown that, while organizational commitment can arise from perceptions of organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore et al., 2006), ASC can result from perceptions of positive leader-member exchanges (LMX; Vandenberghhe et al., 2004). Although not much research has explored potential antecedents of normative (NSC) and continuance supervisor commitment (CSC), findings from organizational commitment provide a basis for making predictions. It is thought that NOC derives from socialization experiences about proper behavior, such as the need to reciprocate favors and to live up to others’ expectations (Powell & Meyer, 2004). As such, it stands to reason that NSC should be influenced by one’s perceptions surrounding supervisor expectations about staying with the organization. Additionally, it has been argued that perceived support from the organization creates an obligation for an employee to reciprocate by giving the organization his or her affective commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Wasti and Can (2008) posited that this moral obligation to give commitment should involve normative commitment in addition to affective commitment. Indeed, they showed that perceptions of employee empowerment, which is primarily implemented by the supervisor, had positive implications for both ASC and NSC. Based on this rationale, we would expect that, in addition to ASC, NSC can arise from perceptions of positive LMX.

COC is thought to result from the accumulation of side-bets which increase the cost of leaving the organization over time (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Meyer & Allen, 1991).
These side-bets can include monetary benefits such as bonuses, or other investments such as the acquisition of non-transferrable skills (labeled “individual adjustments to social positions” by Powell & Meyer, 2004). Individual adjustments may be particularly relevant to the development of CSC because staying with the same supervisor for an extended period of time may involve learning skills and procedures that are only relevant to working with that supervisor. Changing supervisors may necessitate new training or the need to adjust to supervisor expectations. Therefore, it is possible that perceptions of high individual adjustments predict higher levels of CSC. Based on the reasoning above, the following hypotheses are put forth:

**Hypothesis 1:** LMX is positively related to a) ASC and b) NSC.

**Hypothesis 2:** Employees’ perceived expectations from the supervisor about staying in the organization are positively related to NSC.

**Hypothesis 3:** Individual adjustments are positively related to CSC.

Past research has shown ASC to relate significantly to in-role performance (e.g., Becker et al., 1996). Interestingly, in many cases, ASC has been found to relate more strongly to in-role performance than AOC (e.g., Becker & Kernan, 2003, Cheng et al., 2003; Vandenberghe et al., 2004). The proposed rationale for this finding is that because supervisors have the formal authority to monitor, direct, and provide feedback to their subordinates (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002) ASC may be especially salient in determining an employee’s in-role performance (Vandenberghe et al, 2004). However, it is likely that NSC relates to in-role performance in a similar direction (but to a lesser degree), because like affective commitment, normative commitment implies some level of concern for the target of commitment.
Existing research also suggests that both ASC (e.g., Bentein, Stinglhamber, & Vandenberghe, 2002) and NSC (Wasti & Can, 2008) are positively related to OCB directed toward the supervisor (OCB-supervisor). These relationships are not surprising, given that a past meta-analysis revealed that non-specific OCB is significantly related to both AOC and NOC (Meyer et al., 2002). It intuits that ASC and NSC should relate to OCB-supervisor because if one is concerned with the well-being of their supervisor, one would be more inclined to engage in behaviors that benefit him or her. On the other hand, as discussed earlier, continuance commitment may not imply any behavior beyond simply remaining associated with the target of the commitment. Thus, we would not expect that CSC relates to in-role performance or OCB-supervisor. Based on the discussion above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

**Hypothesis 4:** ASC is positively related to a) in-role performance, and b) OCB-supervisor.

**Hypothesis 5:** NSC is positively related to a) in-role performance, and b) OCB-supervisor.

As stated earlier, staying with the organization is considered a focal outcome of organizational commitment. In line with this definition, all three bases of organizational commitment have been found to have negative relationships with turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). However, it is likely that commitment to the supervisor also has favorable implications for maintaining organizational membership because discontinuing membership in the organization also involves the loss of the work relationship with the supervisor and coworkers. Thus, turnover may be a focal outcome of commitment to the organization, supervisor, and coworkers. Past research supports a negative relationship
between turnover intentions with ASC (e.g., Vandenberghe & Bentein, in press) and NSC (e.g., Stinglhamber et al., 2002), but has been equivocal for CSC (e.g., Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Nonetheless, the rationale of Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggests that all three bases of commitment should relate favorably to focal outcomes. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

*Hypothesis 6: Turnover intentions are negatively related to a) ASC, b) NSC, and c) CSC.*

Hypotheses 1-6 are summarized below in Figure 1.
A Structural Model of Coworker Commitment

Although a sizable amount of research has examined commitment to the workgroup (see Riketta & Van Dick, 2005 for a meta-analysis), not much research has explored commitment to coworkers. The sparse research that does exist suggests that employees distinguish between their commitments to coworkers from other foci and that coworker commitment relates positively to OCB (Snape et al., 2006, Wasti & Can,
Findings for commitment to the workgroup have paralleled those of supervisor commitment. Workgroup commitment relates more strongly than does organizational commitment to workgroup-related outcomes, such as workgroup satisfaction and workgroup extra-role behaviors (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005). Furthermore, workgroup commitment can arise from perceptions of workgroup support (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropazano, 2005).

Although little research has been conducted on affective, normative, and continuance coworker commitment (or ACC, NCC, and CCC, respectively), it is possible that findings on organizational and workgroup commitment can be generalized to coworker commitment as well. Based on this assumption, hypotheses concerning coworker commitment parallel those put forth concerning supervisor commitment. Because it has been argued that affective commitment arises from a social exchange where the organization or workgroup gives their support in exchange for an employee’s AOC or workgroup commitment, respectively (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Bishop et al., 2005), it follows that a similar process may underlie coworker exchanges. Because this process involves some level of moral obligation (Wasti & Can, 2008), it is expected that both ACC and NCC would relate to perceived coworker support. Since normative commitment can result from socialization experiences which emphasize the importance of living up to others’ expectations (Powell & Meyer, 2004), NCC may be influenced by perceived expectations from one’s coworkers about staying with the organization. Finally, because continuance commitment arises from the perception of costs associated with leaving a position, it follows that CCC should be related to the perception that a job
change would require high amounts of individual adjustment. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 7: Perceived coworker support is positively related to a) ACC and b) NCC.

Hypothesis 8: Employees’ perceived expectations from coworkers about staying in the organization are positively related to NCC.

Hypothesis 9: Individual adjustments are positively related to CCC.

Past research has supported that ACC and NCC relate significantly to OCB (Bryant, 2001; Wasti & Can, 2008). These findings, combined with general support for the compatibility hypothesis suggest that ACC and NCC will have positive effects on OCB directed toward coworkers (OCB-coworkers). Because of the motivational mindset which underlies continuance commitment, it is unlikely that CCC would be related to OCB-coworkers. Since turnover may be considered a focal outcome of commitment to coworkers, it is expected that all three bases of commitment will relate favorably to turnover intentions. Thus, the following hypotheses are presented.

Hypothesis 10: OCB-coworkers is positively related to a) ACC and b) NCC.

Hypothesis 11: Turnover intentions are negatively related to a) ACC, b) NCC, and c) CCC.

Hypotheses 7-11 are summarized below in Figure 2.
Interactive Effects of Commitment to Interpersonal Foci

The fact that employees experience varying levels of affective, normative, and continuance commitment simultaneously points to the need to consider whether the bases of commitment interact (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). When commitment to one’s organization is considered, numerous studies have found interactions (e.g., Gellatly et al., 2006; Jaros, 1997; Johnson et al., in press; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990; Somers, 1995). As such, it is

Note: Correlations between exogenous variables are assumed. PCS = perceived coworker support; Co-expect = coworker expectations about staying with the organization; Adjust = individual adjustments to social positions; ACC = affective coworker commitment; NCC = normative coworker commitment; CCC = continuance coworker commitment; OCB-co = organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward coworkers; Turn Intent = turnover intentions.
possible that interactive effects also characterize commitment to foci.

Johnson, Groff, and Taing (in press) identified several models that potentially characterize interactions among commitment bases. A compensatory interaction model describes situations where a high level of only one commitment base is needed to bring about desirable work outcomes (see Figure 3). High levels of commitment for other bases are merely redundant. They posited that the compensatory model would hold when outcomes were focal attitudes or behaviors. This is because any base of commitment should be sufficient in itself to produce the focal outcome (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). As stated earlier, maintaining membership in the organization may be seen as a focal behavior for commitment to supervisors and coworkers, because leaving the organization implies the loss of the work relationship with interpersonal foci within the organization.

Figure 3. Compensatory Interaction Model.

Johnson et al. (in press) posited that the compensatory model does not predict outcomes that are discretionary (i.e. non-focal) to a commitment. Instead, the authors
proposed a synergistic model for such outcomes (see Figure 4). According to this model, the bases of commitment have non-redundant, multiplicative effects on work outcomes such that the joint effects of high levels on multiple commitments have more favorable effects than is attainable by any one commitment. This is because high levels of commitment for more than one base imply multiple reasons for performing a discretionary behavior.

Figure 4. *Synergistic Interaction Model.*

Consistent with the reasoning of Johnson et al. (in press), Gellatly, Meyer, and Luchak (2006) found that for organizational commitment, the relationship between any base of commitment and staying intentions (a focal outcome) was strongest when the other bases of commitment were low. However, for predicting OCB (a discretionary outcome), they found that those with high levels of all three bases were predicted to perform the most OCB. Based on the discussion concerning the compensatory and synergistic model in predicting focal and discretionary behaviors, the following
hypotheses are proposed:

_Hypothesis 12:_ When predicting turnover intentions, interactions among the bases of supervisor commitment (i.e. ASC, NSC, and CSC) will show a compensatory pattern (i.e. high levels on more than one base of commitment are redundant in reducing turnover intentions)

_Hypothesis 13:_ When predicting (a) in-role performance and (b) OCB directed toward the supervisor, interactions among the different bases of supervisor commitment will show a synergistic pattern (i.e., outcomes are most favorable when employees report high levels on multiple bases).

_Hypothesis 14:_ When predicting turnover intentions, interactions among the bases of coworker commitment (i.e. ACC, NCC, and CCC) will show a compensatory pattern (i.e. high levels on more than one base of commitment are redundant in reducing turnover intentions)

_Hypothesis 15:_ When predicting OCB directed towards coworkers, interactions among the different bases of coworker commitment (ACC, NCC, and CCC) will show a synergistic pattern.

**Interactive Effects of Commitment across Different Foci**

Becker and Billings (1993) found that being committed to more than one focus is beneficial. That is, being committed to multiple foci predicted the highest levels of satisfaction and prosocial behavior. However, it is important to note that Becker and Billings (1993) did not actually examine interactive effects, but instead explored additive ones. To the author’s knowledge, the first test of statistical interactions between commitments to interpersonal foci was conducted by Snape et al. (2006) who posited that commitment to one focus is all that is needed to influence behavior. Therefore, commitments to additional foci would be largely redundant (i.e., a compensatory effect). They found some support for this, finding a compensatory interaction between ASC and affective work group commitment for two OCB dimensions (interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources). Most recently, Vandenberghe and Bentein (in press)
examined interactions between AOC and ASC for predicting turnover variables. They invoked Lewin’s (1943) field theory, stating that ASC would be more salient to employees when AOC was low. They reasoned that high ASC in the presence of low AOC should exert stronger effects in reducing turnover because such context makes attachment to the supervisor more salient. In support of this, they found compensatory interactions for predicting turnover in one sample and turnover intentions in two other samples.

The results of Snape et al. (2006) and Vandenberghe and Bentein (in press) are somewhat consistent with the model outlined by Johnson et al. (in press). That is, Vandenberghe and Bentein (in press) found consistent evidence for a compensatory interaction for focal outcomes (turnover and turnover intentions). Snape et al. (2006) found compensatory interactions for discretionary outcomes (OCB) as well, but only two out of 30 interactions they tested were significant. As such, more research is needed to determine the nature of interactions across foci. It may be the case that the compensatory model applies to focal outcomes, but interactions are absent for discretionary outcomes.

The current study adopts the reasoning of Johnson et al. (in press) that the direction of interactions across foci is determined by whether a behavior is considered focal or discretionary. However, as Becker and Billings (1993) noted, commitment to a specific focus should have positive implications concerning behavior and attitudes toward that focus, but not necessarily for other foci. Therefore, interactions between commitments to foci are more likely for outcomes that can be clearly related to each focus. As an example, supervisor commitment and coworker commitment may have
combined effects in determining OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI), since OCBI involves behavior toward both foci of commitment. Since OCBI is most likely viewed as a discretionary behavior, Johnson et al. (in press) would predict that the combined effects are synergistic. Similar rationale can be applied to predicting turnover intentions. Discontinuing membership in the organization is both related and focal to ASC, ACC, and AOC, because quitting the job also involves the loss of the work relationship with the supervisor and coworkers. Therefore, the combined effects of commitments to foci are likely to be compensatory when predicting turnover intentions.

Although it is important not to ignore the bases of commitment when considering interactions between foci, only hypotheses pertaining to affective forms of commitment are proposed. This choice was influenced by a couple reasons. First, research on organizational commitment suggests that the affective base exerts the strongest effects on outcomes (Meyer et al., 2002). Second, considering all possible interactions between the three bases and three foci of commitment is simply not feasible. Examining three bases and three foci simultaneously suggests the possibility of a 9-way interaction. I therefore limited my focus to affective commitment. Based on the discussion above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 16: The combined effects of ASC and ACC will be synergistic, when predicting OCBI.

Hypothesis 17: The combined effects of AOC, ASC, and ACC will be compensatory when predicting turnover intentions.

In summary, the current study investigates affective, normative, and continuance commitment to supervisors and coworkers. Doing so is important because each respective
base may have unique antecedents and different effects on outcomes. Furthermore, past research has revealed interactions among the bases of organizational commitment, raising the possibility that interactions also characterize commitment to foci. If so, only measuring the affective base of commitment can result in model misspecification, thereby promoting inaccurate conclusions. Finally, since employees can feel attachment to multiple constituencies simultaneously, interactions across foci are also explored.
Chapter Two

Method

Participants and Procedure

241 employees working at least 20 hours a week were recruited from undergraduate psychology courses to participate in the current study. Participants’ average age was 22.40 ($SD = 5.38$). They had been in college for an average of 3.47 years ($SD = 1.98$) and had been employed at their current position for an average of 23.31 ($SD = 21.38$) months. They worked an average of 28.69 hours per week ($SD = 8.72$) and they were employed predominantly in retail/service (e.g., cashier; 53.1%) and professional industries (e.g., accounting; 15.1%). 2.9% reported working in a government agency (e.g., city hall), 1.3% reported a technical industry (e.g., mechanic), while 27.2% reported their sector as “other”. The majority of the sample were female (76.5%) and either Caucasian (60.3%), African American (17.2%), or Hispanic (11.7%).

Participants received extra credit in their courses for completing the survey. In addition, they were asked to pass on a short survey to their supervisor and a coworker to complete. A cover letter was included with each other-report survey which stated that responses would be anonymous and to return the survey using the self-addressed, stamped envelope that was provided to them. In order to discourage participants from completing the other-source surveys themselves, respondents were told that they would
only receive extra credit for completing the self-report survey. Completion of the other-report surveys did not lead to additional points. Furthermore, contact information (e.g., phone number, email address) for supervisors was collected from the participant surveys. A subset of the supervisors (approximately 10%) who returned completed surveys was contacted to verify that they did indeed complete the supervisor survey. In all cases, the supervisors confirmed that they completed the survey. Supervisors’ average age was 37.81 ($SD = 11.62$) and they worked an average of 44.62 hours per week ($SD = 9.68$). 51.3% were male. They reported knowing their subordinate an average of 31.46 months ($SD = 54.23$). The average age of coworkers was 28.64 ($SD = 11.10$). 65.3% were female and they worked an average of 34.09 hours per week ($SD = 11.31$). They reported knowing their coworker an average of 23.49 months ($SD = 36.50$). The response rate for supervisors was 51.5%, while it was 49.4% for coworkers.

Measures

Except for the perceived expectations and individual adjustments scales, all survey items were measured via a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = “Strongly disagree” to 5 = “Strongly agree”). Supervisors were asked to rate participants’ (their subordinate) in-role performance and OCB directed toward the supervisor. Coworkers were asked to rate the participants’ (their coworker) OCB directed toward coworkers. All other measures were obtained from the participant.

Organizational commitment. Commitment to the organization was measured using Meyer and Allen’s (1997) organizational commitment scale. Six items each measure AOC ($\alpha = .84$), NOC ($\alpha = .86$), and COC ($\alpha = .80$). Sample items for AOC,
NOC, and COC, respectively, are “My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me,” “This organization deserves my loyalty,” and “Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.”

Supervisor commitment. Commitment to the supervisor was assessed with Stinglhamber et al.’s (2002) supervisor commitment scale. The scale includes six items for ASC ($\alpha = .88$), four items for NSC ($\alpha = .92$), and five items CSC ($\alpha = .81$). Sample items for ASC, NSC, and CSC, respectively, are “I feel proud to work with my supervisor,” “I would feel guilty if I left my supervisor now,” and “Changing supervisors would necessitate that I acquire new work habits.”

Coworker commitment. Commitment to coworkers was measured with a modified version of Stinglhamber et al.’s (2002) workgroup commitment scale. Items were reworded by replacing instances of the word “workgroup” with “coworkers.” Six items each assessed ACC ($\alpha = .92$), NCC ($\alpha = .93$), and CCC ($\alpha = .90$). Sample items for ACC, NCC, and CCC, respectively, are “I do not feel emotionally attached to my coworkers <reverse scored>,” “I do not feel it would be right to leave my coworkers, even if it were to my advantage,” and “Changing coworkers would require a great deal of effort on my part to adapt to a new way of working.”

Turnover intentions. Employee intentions to leave the organization were assessed using a hybrid scale ($\alpha = .88$) consisting of three items developed by Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur (1984) and three items by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978). A sample item is “I will probably look for a job in the near future.”

LMX. Participants reported on their perceptions of LMX quality, using Bernerth,
Armenakis, Feild, Giles, and Walker’s (2007) 8-item LMSX scale ($\alpha = .95$). An example item is “When I give effort at work, my manager will return it.”

*Perceived coworker support.* Perceived coworker support ($\alpha = .86$) was measured with a modified version of Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa’s (1986) 9-item perceived organizational support scale. Items were reworded by replacing instances of the word “organization” with “coworkers.” An example item is “Even if I did the best job possible, my coworkers would fail to notice <reverse scored>.”

*Perceived expectations about staying.* Perceived expectations about staying in the organization were measured with an adapted version of Powell and Meyer’s (2004) expectation of others scale. Three items each were used to measure expectations from the supervisor ($\alpha = .86$) and from coworkers ($\alpha = .85$). Participants were asked to rate each item in terms of their responsibility for staying with the organization on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all responsible, 5 = very responsible). Example items for supervisor and coworker expectations, respectively, are “Expectations that my supervisor has for me to stay” and “The need to return favors that my coworkers have done for me.”

*Individual adjustments.* The perception that changing positions would involve individual adjustments was measured with Powell and Meyer’s (2004) four-item individual adjustments to social positions scale ($\alpha = .82$). Like the perceived expectations scales, participants were asked to respond to each item in terms of how responsible they were for the participant staying with the organization on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all responsible, 5 = very responsible). An example item is “Time spent learning how to get along with people in the organization”.

25
In-Role Performance. The participant’s supervisor rated the subordinate’s in-role performance, using Williams and Anderson’s (1991) seven-item in-role performance scale ($\alpha = .77$). An example item is “Adequately completes assigned duties.”

OCB-supervisor. The participant’s supervisor rated the subordinate’s OCB directed toward the supervisor (OCB-supervisor; $\alpha = .79$). OCB-supervisor was measured with two items taken from Bentein, Stinglhamber, and Vandenberghe (2002), two items taken from Bryant (2001), and one item from Williams and Anderson’s (1991) OCBI scale. An example item is “Informs me when an unforeseeable problem occurs on the job.”

OCB-coworkers. Coworkers rated participant’s OCB directed toward coworkers (OCB-coworkers; $\alpha = .89$). OCB-coworkers measured with two items from Williams and Anderson’s (1991) OCBI scale and three items adapted from Podsakoff, Ahearne, and Mackenzie’s (1997) Helping behavior scale. The items from Podsakoff et al.’s (1997) scale address behavior toward crew members and were thus rewritten to reflect behavior toward coworkers. An example item from this measure is “Is willing to share his/her expertise with other coworkers.”

OCBI. OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI; $\alpha = .86$) was calculated using items from both the OCB-supervisor and OCB-coworkers scales. This approach was taken in order to capitalize on receiving data from both supervisors and coworkers. A similar approach has been adopted by others (e.g., Becker, 1992). Furthermore, OCBI is typically measured with items that tap OCB directed toward either coworkers or supervisors (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991).
Chapter Three

Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables are reported in Table 1. As can be seen, the various bases and foci show substantial positive correlations. As would be expected, the highest correlations tend to be among similar bases across foci (e.g., AOC and ACC), between affective and normative commitment to the same focus, and between normative and continuance commitment to the same focus. Although large, the correlations are not so high as to suggest complete conceptual overlap among bases or foci. Indeed, the observed correlation between ACC and perceived coworker support and between ASC and LMX are higher than any of the intercorrelations among commitments.

Before proceeding with tests of hypotheses, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine equivalence in mean levels of responses between participants with only self-report data and those from which other-report data was received. To do so, four groups were created: self-report only (N = 102), supervisor and self-report (N = 16), coworker and self-report (N=28), and all three reports (N = 98). The MANOVA compared the four groups on their reported levels of commitment, LMX, perceived coworker support, turnover intentions, individual adjustments, expectations from supervisors, and expectations from coworkers. The overall test revealed no significant differences between the groups, $F(3, 45) = 1.37$, ns.
Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables.

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<td>17. OCB_super</td>
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Note: For variables 1-15, N = 241. For variables 16-19, N ranges from 98 to 125. AOC = affective organizational commitment; NOC = normative organizational commitment; COC = continuance organizational commitment; ACC = affective coworker commitment; NCC = normative coworker commitment; CCC = continuance coworker commitment; PCS = perceived coworker support; Co_expect = coworker expectations; ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment; LMX = leader-member exchange; S_expect = supervisor expectations; Adjust = individual adjustments; Turn_Intent = turnover intentions; Inrole_perf = in-role performance; OCB_super, OCB_co, and OCBI = organizational citizenship directed at supervisors, coworkers, and individuals, respectively. *p < .05  **p < .01 ***p < .001
To determine whether employees actually distinguished between the various bases and foci of commitment, a confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 16.0 (Arbuckle, 2006) was conducted on all commitment items (i.e., AOC, NOC, COC, ASC, NSC, CSC, ACC, NCC, and CCC items). The hypothesized nine-factor model was compared with several other models. These included a one-factor model, where all commitment items loaded on one factor, and two three-factor models. The three-factor foci model specified all supervisor commitment items as loading on a general supervisor commitment factor, all coworker commitment items as loading on a general coworker commitment factor, and all organizational commitment items as loading on a general organizational commitment factor. The three-factor bases model specified all of the affective commitment items as loading on a general affective commitment factor, all normative commitment items as loading on a general normative commitment factor, and all continuance commitment items as loading on a general continuance commitment factor. Finally, the nine-factor model specified items as loading on the factors they were designed to assess (e.g., AOC items loading onto an AOC factor). A depiction of these models is shown in figure 5. As can be seen in Table 2, the hypothesized model resulted in significantly better fit than the best-fitting three-factor model, $\Delta\chi^2 (33) = 2736.07, p < .001$. Overall, the fit indices suggested passable fit for the hypothesized model (RMSEA = .05, TLI = .84, CFI = .86). While the fit is not perfect, it suggests that a nine-factor model is a substantial improvement over models that only distinguish between foci or only differentiate between bases.
Figure 5. Nested Confirmatory Factor Analytic Models.

Note: Correlations between factors are assumed. ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment; AOC = affective organizational commitment; NOC = normative organizational commitment; COC = continuance organizational commitment; ACC = affective coworker commitment; NCC = normative coworker commitment; CCC = continuance coworker commitment.
Table 2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Commitment Variables.

<table>
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<th>Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Change in $\chi^2$</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
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<td>1-Factor</td>
<td>6862.67</td>
<td>1225</td>
<td>2823.70***</td>
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<td>3-Factor Foci</td>
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<td>1213.07***</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.53</td>
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<td>1749.56***</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>1188</td>
<td>2736.07***</td>
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Note: $N = 241$, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. Change in $\chi^2$ for 1-factor model is relative to independence model, change in $\chi^2$ for 3-factor models are relative to 1-factor model, and change in $\chi^2$ for 9-factor model is relative to 3-factor bases model.

***p < .001

Structural Model of Supervisor Commitment

Path analysis using maximum likelihood estimation was conducted with AMOS 16.0 (Arbuckle, 2006) to test Hypotheses 1-6 on the sample of 112 matched employee-supervisor dyads. The initial model specified in Figure 1 had poor fit: $\chi^2 (22) = 79.50$, RMSEA = .15, TLI = .61, CFI = .76. Modification indices suggested adding a path between OCB-supervisor and in-role performance. A path leading from OCB-supervisor to in-role performance was favored rather than a path in the opposite direction for several reasons. First off, lab studies suggest that OCB influences ratings of overall performance (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Second, it is plausible that helping supervisors may aid in clarifying a subordinate’s job role, which could in turn result in higher levels of in-role performance.

Adding a path leading from OCB-supervisor to in-role performance resulted in significantly better fit to the data: $\Delta \chi^2 (1) = 54.27$, p < .001. Overall, the model fit the data well: $\chi^2 (21) = 25.37$, RMSEA = .04, TLI = .97, CFI = .98. The resulting standardized path coefficients for the model are shown in Figure 3, while results for significance tests of the
paths are shown in Table 3. Hypothesis 1 stated that LMX would be positively related to a) ASC and b) NSC and was fully supported. Hypothesis 2, which stated that expectations from the supervisor about staying with the organization would be positively related to NSC, was supported because the path leading from supervisor expectations to NSC was significant and positive. Hypothesis 3, which stated that high perceptions of individual adjustments would show a positive relationship with CSC, was not supported. Hypothesis 4 predicted that ASC would be positively related to a) in-role performance and b) OCB-supervisor. This prediction received partial support as ASC was found to have a significant path leading to OCB-supervisor, but not in-role performance. Hypothesis 5 stated that NSC would also exert significant direct effects on a) in-role performance and b) OCB-supervisor. This hypothesis was not supported because neither direct effect was significant. Finally, hypothesis 6 stated that turnover intentions would be negatively related to all three bases of supervisor commitment. This prediction was partially supported, in that ASC and NSC both had significant negative paths leading to turnover intentions, but CSC did not.
Figure 6. Standardized Estimates for Supervisor Structural Model.

Note:  $N = 112$. Standardized regression coefficients are reported in the figure. LMX = leader-member exchange; S-expect = supervisor expectations about staying with the organization; Adjust = individual adjustments to social positions; ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment, Inrole perf = in-role performance; OCB-super = organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the supervisor; Turn Intent = turnover intentions. 
* $p < .05$  *** $p < .001$
Table 3. Results for Supervisor Model Path Coefficients.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Raw Regression Weight</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Standardized Regression Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LMX --&gt; ASC</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.60***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX --&gt; NSC</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-expect --&gt; NSC</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.47***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjust --&gt; CSC</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC --&gt; Inrole perf</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC --&gt; OCB-super</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.39***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC --&gt; Turn Intent</td>
<td>-.47</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.35***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSC --&gt; Inrole perf</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSC --&gt; OCB-super</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSC --&gt; Turn Intent</td>
<td>-.25</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.29***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSC --&gt; Turn Intent</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB super --&gt; Inrole perf</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.63***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: \( N = 112 \). LMX = leader-member exchange; S-expect = supervisor expectations about staying with the organization; Adjust = individual adjustments to social positions; ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment, Inrole perf = in-role performance; OCB-super = organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the supervisor; Turn Intent = turnover intentions.

\* \( p < .05 \) \* * \( p < .01 \) \* * * \( p < .001 \)

Structural Model of Coworker Commitment

Path analysis was used to test Hypotheses 7-11 on the sample of 119 matched employee-coworker dyads. The initial hypothesized model (See Figure 2) provided poor fit to the data: \( \chi^2 (16) = 44.16, \) RMSEA = .12, TLI = .77, CFI = .87. Modification indices suggested adding a path leading from NCC to ACC. This is in line with Cohen (2007), who argued that normative commitment develops prior to entering the organization. Through early socialization experiences, people develop moral values related to the importance of displaying loyalty to work organizations. These perceptions may then be further shaped by employees’ work-related experiences after they join a company. As such, it is plausible for NCC to develop before ACC and thus exert effects on it. While the addition of the path leading from NCC to ACC improved model fit \( \Delta \chi^2 (1) = 12.56, p \)
< .001, overall model fit remained questionable: $\chi^2 (15) = 31.60$, RMSEA = .10, TLI = .86, CFI = .92. Modification indices were again examined, which suggested the addition of a path between NCC and CCC. A path leading from NCC to CCC was favored over the reverse direction because it is conceivable that a particular cost associated with leaving coworkers may be feelings of guilt and shame. Additionally, as argued by Cohen (2007), normative commitment may develop before affective or continuance commitment. The revised model resulted in significantly better fit than the model which added a path leading from ACC to NCC: $\Delta \chi^2 (1) = 15.43$ p < .001. Fit indices suggested that the revised model had good fit: $\chi^2 (14) = 16.17$, RMSEA = .04, TLI = .98, CFI = .99. The resulting standardized path coefficients for the model are shown in Figure 6, while tests for the significance of the paths are shown in Table 4.

Hypothesis 7 stated that perceived coworker support would be positively related to a) ACC and b) NCC. The path leading from coworker support to ACC was positive and significant. However, the path leading from coworker support to NCC was not. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 received partial support. Hypothesis 8, which stated that coworker expectations would have a significant path leading to NCC was supported. Hypothesis 9 was not supported because the path leading from individual adjustments to CCC was not significant. Hypothesis 10 was not supported because the paths from ACC and NCC to OCB-coworkers were not significant. Finally, Hypothesis 11 received partial support because ACC had a significant negative path leading to turnover intentions. However, neither NCC nor CCC’s paths leading to turnover intentions was significant.
Figure 7. Standardized Estimates for Coworker Commitment Model.

Table 4. Results for Coworker Model Path Coefficients.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Raw Regression Weight</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Standardized Regression Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PCS --&gt; ACC</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.67***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCS --&gt; NCC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-expect --&gt; NCC</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.55***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjust --&gt; CCC</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC --&gt; OCB-co</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC --&gt; Turn Intent</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.32***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC --&gt; ACC</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.23**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC --&gt; OCB-co</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC --&gt; Turn Intent</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC --&gt; CCC</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.37***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCC --&gt; Turn Intent</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:  $N = 119$. Standardized regression coefficients are reported in the figure. PCS = perceived coworker support; Co-expect = coworker expectations about staying; Adjust = individual adjustments to social positions; ACC = affective coworker commitment; NCC = normative coworker commitment; CCC = continuance coworker commitment; OCB-co = organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward coworkers; Turn Intent = turnover intentions. * $p < .05$  ** $p < .01$  *** $p < .001$
Interactive Effects among Bases of Commitment within a Single Focus

For all hypotheses concerning interactions, commitment variables were first centered before computing interaction terms (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). After centering, hierarchical regression was used to test Hypotheses 12-15. In step 1, each commitment base was entered, while all possible 2-way interaction terms for each combination of bases were entered in step 2, followed by the 3-way interaction term in step 3. Demographic control variables were not used because a regression analysis revealed that gender, age, and tenure did not significantly predict any of the outcome variables in the current study. It should be noted that, initially, there was concern that multicollinearity would affect the ability to test interactions. However, according to collinearity diagnostics, multicollinearity did not pose any problems (i.e. variance inflation factor numbers were much lower than 10 and tolerance numbers were all much greater than .10).

Results for Hypotheses 12 and 13 are reported in Table 5. Hypothesis 12 stated that interactions among bases of supervisor commitment would be compensatory for predicting turnover intentions. This hypothesis was not supported, as none of the interaction terms were significant. Hypothesis 13 stated that interactions among the bases of supervisor commitment would be synergistic for predicting a) in-role performance and b) OCB-supervisor. As can be seen in Table 5, the only significant interaction for predicting in-role performance was between ASC and CSC. However, not much can be made from this result for two reasons. As a set, the step 2 interaction terms did not account for significant incremental variance in in-role performance. Additionally, a
follow-up regression model was performed where ASC and CSC were entered in step 1 and the ASC by CSC term was entered in step 2. Entered this way the ASC by CSC interaction failed to reach significance ($\beta = -.17, ns$). As for OCB-supervisor, none of the interaction terms were significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 13 was not supported.

Table 5. Regression Results for Supervisor Commitment Base Interactions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>In-role Performance</th>
<th>OCB-supervisor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Step 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>-.35***</td>
<td>-.35***</td>
<td>-.34***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSC</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x NSC</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x CSC</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSC x CSC</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x NSC x CSC</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Change in $R^2$ | .00 | .00 | .03 | .01 | .01 | .00
Overall $R^2$ | .20*** | .20*** | .20*** | .12** | .16** | .16** | .17*** | .18** | .18**

Note: $N = 241$ for turnover intentions. $N = 112$ for in-role performance and OCB-supervisor. Standardized regression coefficients are reported in the table. ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment

Results for Hypotheses 14 and 15 are presented in Table 6. Hypothesis 14 stated that interactions among bases of coworker commitment would be compensatory for predicting turnover intentions. This hypothesis was not supported, as none of the interaction terms were significant. Hypothesis 15 stated that interactions among bases of coworker commitment would be synergistic for predicting OCB-coworker. Again, none of the interaction terms were significant. Thus, Hypothesis 15 failed to receive support.
Table 6. *Regression Results for Coworker Commitment Base Interactions*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>OCB-coworker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>-.24**</td>
<td>-.26***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCC</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC x NCC</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC x CCC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCC x CCC</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC x NCC x CCC</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Change in $R^2$: .01 .00 .01 .01 .02 .02

Overall $R^2$: .08*** .08** .09** .01 .02 .04

*Note:* $N = 241$ for turnover intentions. $N = 119$ for OCB-coworker. Standardized regression coefficients are reported in the table. ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment

** $p < .01$   *** $p < .001$

*Interactive Effects of Affective Commitment across Different Foci*

A similar approach was used to test Hypotheses 16 and 17. That is, commitment variables were centered before calculating interaction terms, and hierarchical regression was then used such that main effects were entered in step 1 and interaction effects were entered in step 2. Hypothesis 16 stated that the interaction between ASC and ACC would be synergistic for predicting OCBI. As can be seen in Table 7, the interaction effect was not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 16 was not supported. Hypothesis 17 stated that the interaction between ASC, ACC, and AOC would be compensatory for predicting turnover intentions. Results from this analysis are also presented in Table 8. As can be seen, the 3-way interaction term was not significant and therefore, Hypothesis 17 was not supported.

Results of all hypotheses are summarized in Table 9.
Table 7. Regression Results for the Interaction between Affective Supervisor and Coworker Commitment for Predicting Citizenship Behaviors Directed Toward Individuals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x ACC</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in $R^2$</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall $R^2$</td>
<td>.13***</td>
<td>.13**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $N = 98$. Standardized regression coefficients are reported in the table. ASC = affective supervisor commitment; ACC = affective coworker commitment. **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

Table 8. Regression Results for Tests of 3-Way Interactions Across Foci.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>-.23***</td>
<td>-.25***</td>
<td>-.22**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.41***</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AOC</td>
<td>-.48***</td>
<td>-.47***</td>
<td>-.47***</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x ACC</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x AOC</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC x AOC</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-.24*</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC x ACC x AOC</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.37***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in $R^2$</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.06**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall $R^2$</td>
<td>.33***</td>
<td>.34***</td>
<td>.34***</td>
<td>.12**</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.13**</td>
<td>.14*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $N = 241$ for turnover intentions. $N = 112$ for in-role performance. $N = 98$ for OCB-individuals. Standardized regression coefficients are reported in the table. ASC = affective supervisor commitment; ACC = affective coworker commitment; AOC = affective organizational commitment. *$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$
Table 9. Summary of Hypotheses and Results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) LMX is positively related to a) ASC and b) NSC</td>
<td>Fully supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Employees’ perceived expectations from the supervisor about staying in the organization are positively related to NSC</td>
<td>Fully supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Individual adjustments are positively related to CSC</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) ASC is positively related to a) in-role performance, and b) OCB-supervisor</td>
<td>Supported for OCB-supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) NSC is positively related to a) in-role performance, and b) OCB-supervisor</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Turnover intentions are negatively related to a) ASC, b) NSC, and c) CSC</td>
<td>Supported for ASC and NSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Perceived coworker support is positively related to a) ACC and b) NCC</td>
<td>Supported for ACC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Employees’ perceived expectations from coworkers about staying in the organization are positively related to NCC</td>
<td>Fully supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Individual adjustments are positively related to CCC</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) OCB-coworkers is positively related to a) ACC and b) NCC.</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Turnover intentions are negatively related to a) ACC, b) NCC, and CCC.</td>
<td>Supported for ACC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) When predicting turnover intentions, interactions among the bases of supervisor commitment (i.e. ASC, NSC, and CSC) will show a compensatory pattern (i.e. high levels on more than one base of commitment are redundant in reducing turnover intentions)</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) When predicting (a) in-role performance and (b) OCB directed toward the supervisor, interactions among the different bases of supervisor commitment will show a synergistic pattern (i.e., outcomes are most favorable when employees report high levels on multiple bases).</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14) When predicting turnover intentions, interactions among the bases of coworker commitment (i.e. ACC, NCC, and CCC) will show a compensatory pattern (i.e. high levels on more than one base of commitment are redundant in reducing turnover intentions)</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15) When predicting OCB directed towards coworkers, interactions among the different bases of coworker commitment (ACC, NCC, and CCC) will show a synergistic pattern.</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16) The combined effects of ASC and ACC will be synergistic, when predicting OCBI.</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17) The combined effects of AOC, ASC, and ACC will be compensatory when predicting turnover intentions.</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:*  
ASC = affective supervisor commitment; NSC = normative supervisor commitment; CSC = continuance supervisor commitment; LMX = leader-member exchange; ACC = affective coworker commitment; NCC = normative coworker commitment; CCC = continuance coworker commitment OCB-supervisor, OCB-coworkers, and OCBI = organizational citizenship directed at supervisors, coworkers, and individuals, respectively.
Exploratory Analyses

Additional analyses were conducted to explore potential 3-way interactions concerning in-role performance and OCBI. Results for these analyses are shown in Table 8. As can be seen, a significant 3-way interaction was found for in-role performance. The 3-way interaction term for OCBI was also sizable, but failed to reach significance. To better understand the interaction effect on in-role performance, mean values were plotted for individuals one standard deviation above and below the mean for commitment to each focus. Close examination of Figure 7 reveals that higher levels of ASC are associated with greater in-role performance. However, the effect of ASC is more pronounced when individual shows high levels of either AOC or ACC, but not both. When individuals are high or low on both AOC and ACC, the positive effect of ASC is attenuated.
Figure 7. Three-Way Interaction between Commitments to Foci for Predicting In-role Performance.

Note: AOC = affective organizational commitment, ASC = affective supervisor commitment, ACC = affective coworker commitment. High points show predicted standard scores for individuals one standard deviation above the mean on each respective commitment. Low points show predicted standard scores for individuals one standard deviation below the mean on each respective commitment.
Chapter Four

Discussion

The findings of the current study are threefold. First, they suggest that principles concerning bases of organizational commitment generalize to the bases of supervisor and coworker commitment. Second, unlike organizational commitment, interaction effects among bases appear to be absent for commitment to interpersonal foci. Third, the current study adds evidence that interactions exist when multiple foci are concerned.

Past research on commitment to different foci has focused almost exclusively on affective commitment. The current study addressed this shortcoming by examining normative and continuance commitment to supervisors and coworkers. Results revealed some generalizability of findings concerning the bases of organizational commitment. First, as with organizational commitment, perceived support from a focus predicted higher levels of affective commitment to that focus. This was found to be true for both commitments to supervisors and coworkers. Additionally, theory on organizational commitment suggests that expectations about staying with the organization should influence normative commitment (Powell & Meyer, 2004). The current study confirmed this hypothesis when commitment to and expectations from supervisors and coworkers are concerned. Interestingly, the perception that job change would require individual adjustments did not significantly predict continuance commitment in the path analysis. However, individual adjustments were related to CSC and CCC at the bivariate level.
The results of the current study also parallel findings on organizational commitment when the favorability of relationships between bases and outcomes are considered. Affective commitment to foci showed the most favorable relationships with criteria. Normative commitment showed some positive effects, while there was no evidence of beneficial effects for continuance commitment. When commitment to the supervisor is concerned, ASC significantly predicted higher levels of OCB-supervisor and lower turnover intentions, while NSC was only significantly related to lower turnover intentions. CSC was not significantly related to either outcome. When coworker commitment is concerned, ACC predicted significantly lower levels of turnover intentions, while NCC and CCC did not.

Research on organizational commitment suggests that statistical interactions exist among the bases of commitment but the current study suggests the absence of such interactions for supervisor and coworker commitment. However, it should be noted that the sample size available to test these interactions was not very large. Thus, the power to detect interactions may have been low. Furthermore, interactions can be difficult to detect using non-experimental methods (McClelland & Judd, 1993). On the other hand, the change in variance accounted for when interaction effects were added was never larger than .02, which suggests that if interactions exist they may not be practically important. More research will be needed before firm conclusions can be made about interactions among cases of commitment to foci.

The current study also adds to a growing body of literature examining the combined effects of commitment to different foci. Evidence was found for a 3-way
interaction between ASC, ACC, and AOC for predicting in-role performance. However, the nature of this interaction was counter to predictions made by Johnson et al. (in press). While in-role performance is certainly not a discretionary job requirement, it may not necessarily be implied by commitment to various foci. Therefore, Johnson et al. would predict the interaction to be synergistic. Instead, the interaction was such that the highest levels of performance were predicted for cases when high ASC was combined with either high ACC or high AOC, but not both. High levels of all three commitments actually predicted lower levels of in-role performance. Thus, the interaction was partly synergistic, but partly competitive.

It should be noted that Johnson et al. mention the possibility of competitive interactions where high levels of commitment to different foci actually work against each other, but they offer few predictions for when this would occur. They do suggest that such effect would be plausible when commitment to different foci force an employee to pursue incompatible goals. Perhaps an integration of the reasoning put forth by Johnson et al. and the rationale stated by Vandenberghe and Bentein (in press) can explain the interaction. As stated by Johnson et al. it seems that commitment to multiple foci can be synergistic because employees have multiple reasons for performing a behavior. However, commitments to too many foci result in a reduction in salience of any particular focus (Vandenberghe & Bentein, in press), thereby producing a compensatory effect. Further, I propose that commitment to a large number of foci make competitive interactions increasingly likely because there will be a greater chance of opposing goals between foci. However, it seems that in considering such interactions the foci of
commitment are not interchangeable. In the case of in-role performance, the combined effect of ASC and either AOC or ACC was synergistic. But, an individual highly committed to all three foci was predicted to have much lower levels of performance, indicating a competitive effect. On the other hand, those with high levels of both AOC and ACC were predicted to have virtually the same level of performance as those highly committed to all three foci, indicating a compensatory effect. Whether the distinction between focal and discretionary behaviors predicts the nature of interactions across foci (vs. within foci) is yet to be seen.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

Although normative and continuance commitment to foci are distinguishable from affective commitment, the latter tended to show the strongest relationships with criteria. Furthermore, there was no evidence in the current study that the bases of commitment to foci interacted. This suggests that focusing solely on affective commitment may be partially warranted because its effects are the most robust of the three bases and they do not appear to depend on the relative levels of normative or continuance commitment. However, this is not to say that there is no value gained in considering the other bases of commitment. Indeed, NSC predicted lower levels of turnover intentions when the contribution of ASC was accounted for. This suggests that at least normative commitment can aid in the incremental prediction of criteria. Furthermore, it seems that each commitment base is predicted by different antecedents. Thus, if one’s interest is in understanding how to improve outcomes via commitment to foci, consideration of bases is useful (i.e., focus on antecedents which are likely to increase affective commitment).
The current study also suggests robust effects of ASC, relative to AOC and ACC. Indeed, the multiple regression analyses indicate that ASC was positively related to in-role performance, OCBI, and turnover intentions even when the effects of AOC and ACC are accounted for. This suggests that the influence of the supervisor is central to the behavior and attitudes of employees. As stated earlier, supervisors have the formal authority to monitor and direct employees (Eisenberger et al., 2002), which may make supervisors an especially salient target of commitment. Therefore, researchers and practitioners alike may want to focus on ways to foster ASC.

The current study also adds evidence for the existence of interactions across commitments to foci. This makes prediction of the effects of commitment more complicated for both researchers and practitioners. Therefore, future research is needed to determine for what foci and outcomes these interactions exist. Furthermore, theory is needed to explain under what conditions a particular pattern of interactions will be observed. As stated earlier, it is unclear whether explaining interactions across foci using the distinction between discretionary and focal outcomes will hold. Similarly, the idea that multiple commitments automatically decrease the influence of any one commitment focus does not seem sufficient to explain such interactions. What seems clear is that synergistic, competitive, and compensatory interactions are all possible.

That coworker commitment did not significantly predicted OCB-coworker was somewhat surprising, given a past meta-analysis revealed workgroup commitment to be significantly related to workgroup extra-role behaviors (Riketta & van Dick, 2005). This suggests that commitment to the workgroup is not necessarily the same as commitment to
coworkers. According to Thompson (2004), workgroups imply some level of interdependence and shared responsibility between members of the group. This interdependence is not implied when considering the more general distinction of coworkers. Therefore, the effects of coworker commitment may be moderated by other factors, such as interdependence or group cohesion. As interdependence increases, the effect of coworker commitment may become more salient to employees.

Finally, another interesting feature of the results was that continuance commitment did not significantly predict turnover intentions despite theory stating that turnover is a focal outcome of employee commitment. Recent research on COC (e.g., Groff, Granger, Taing, Jackson, & Johnson, 2008; Vandenberghe et al., 2007) has suggested that it is comprised of two distinct dimensions: COC based on the lack of employment alternatives and COC based on the perception that job change would involve high sacrifices. When separated as such, research suggests that COC based on low alternatives relates positively to turnover intentions while COC based on high sacrifices relates negatively (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Therefore, combining the two dimensions into a unidimensional measure may cancel out each respective factor’s relationship with turnover intentions. It remains an open question whether continuance commitment to foci is also multidimensional. If so, a similar explanation may underlie the lack of significant relationships between continuance commitment to foci and turnover intentions.

Limitations

A limitation of the current research is the use of data from university students. This may call into question whether the results reported here generalize to non-students,
which may systematically differ in age and tenure. Even so, it is not clear how age or tenure would affect the nature of the results. On the positive side, in contrast to data collected from non-students in a single organization, the use of a student sample allows for data concerning the effects of commitment for a diverse set of jobs and organizations, thereby increasing generalizability to some extent. Nonetheless, data from an older sample would mitigate concerns over generalizability. Additionally, because the data reported here is cross-sectional, causal inferences cannot be drawn. However, past studies examining the effects of commitment have employed longitudinal designs and found results which support a similar causal order of variables as reported here (e.g. Bentein et. al, 2002, Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003; Vandenberghe & Bentein, in press).

One may argue that the observed results are explainable by particular statistical artifacts and biases. For example, some predictors and outcomes (e.g., commitment and turnover intentions) were reported by the same source and thus, results may have been influenced by common method bias. The results for performance may be explained by mutual liking between the employee and the focus reporting on the employee’s performance. For example, an employee may show attachment to the supervisor and thus the supervisor evaluates the employee’s performance favorably even if the employee does not truly perform at high levels. Results concerning ASC provide an example for why such phenomena may not hold. Although not reported, I also conducted an analysis where OCB-coworker was regressed on ASC, AOC, and ACC. In this analysis, ASC, which involves attachment to the supervisor, was reported by the employee while OCB was reported by the coworker. Even so, ASC was significantly related to OCB-coworker,
when AOC and ACC were held constant. Interestingly ACC did not significantly predict OCB-coworker. As such, the positive effects of ASC cannot easily be explained away with biases.

Conclusion

Past research has demonstrated the importance of examining commitment to interpersonal foci within the organization, such as supervisors and coworkers. Unfortunately, that research had focused almost exclusively on affective bases of commitment. The current study addressed this shortcoming by examining all three bases of commitment to supervisors and coworkers. The results revealed that relationships between the bases and other criteria correspond well with findings on organizational commitment. Unlike organizational commitment, no evidence was found for interactions among bases for commitment to supervisors and coworkers. Finally, the current study adds to evidence that interactions exist among commitments to foci. However, the nature of this interaction diverged from previous findings. Thus, future research is needed to establish theory concerning interactions among commitments to foci.
References


Organizational Behavior, 24, 251-270.


Appendices
Appendix A: List of Survey Items

Affective Organizational Commitment

1. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with my current organization
2. I really feel as if my organization’s problems are my own
3. I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at my organization
4. I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to my organization
5. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
6. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization

Normative Organizational Commitment

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now
4. This organization deserves my loyalty
5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it
6. I owe a great deal to this organization
Appendix A: (Continued)

Continuance Organizational Commitment

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to
2. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now
3. Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire
4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my organization
5. One of the few serious consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives
6. One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits that I have here

Affective Supervisor Commitment

1. I have respect for my supervisor
2. I appreciate my supervisor
3. I have little admiration for my supervisor
4. I feel proud to work with my supervisor
5. My supervisor means a lot to me
6. I do not really feel attached to my supervisor
Appendix A: (Continued)

*Normative Supervisor Commitment*

1. I would feel guilty if I left my supervisor now
2. I feel I have a moral obligation to continue working with my supervisor
3. I would not leave my supervisor at the moment because I feel obligated to him/her
4. If I were offered the chance to work with another supervisor, I would not think it morally right to leave my current supervisor

*Continuance Supervisor Commitment*

1. Changing supervisors would require me to substantially re-organize the way I perform my job
2. Changing supervisors would demand a great deal of effort on my part order for me to adapt to a new leadership style
3. Changing supervisors would necessitate that I acquire new work habits
4. I am so used to working with my current supervisor that it would be difficult for me to change
5. There would be few modifications to the way I work if I changed supervisors
Appendix A: (Continued)

Affective Coworker Commitment

1. My coworkers mean a lot to me
2. I really feel a sense of belonging with my coworkers
3. I feel proud to be associated with my coworkers
4. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging with my coworkers
5. I do not feel like part of the family with coworkers
6. I do not feel emotionally attached to my coworkers

Normative Coworker Commitment

1. It would not be morally right for me to leave my coworkers right now
2. I do not feel it would be right to leave my coworkers now, even if it were to my advantage
3. I think I would be guilty if I left my coworkers now
4. I feel I have to continue to work with my coworkers
5. If I were offered another job with different coworkers, I would not feel it was right to leave them
6. I would not leave my coworkers right now because I feel obligated to certain ones
Appendix A: (Continued)

*Continuance Coworker Commitment*

1. Changing coworkers would require me to adjust to new work habits

2. Changing coworkers would require me to get used to a new organization of work

3. If I changed coworkers, I would have to re-adapt to new group norms

4. Changing coworkers would require a great deal of effort on my part to adapt to a new way of working

5. Changing coworkers would require me to completely re-organize the way I work

6. I am so used to working with my present coworkers that it would be difficult for me to change

*Leader-Member Exchange*

1. My supervisor and I have a two-way exchange relationship

2. I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my supervisor will return a favor

3. If I do something for my supervisor, he or she will definitely repay me

4. I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my supervisor

5. My efforts are reciprocated by my supervisor

6. My relationship with my supervisor is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking

7. When I give effort at work, my supervisor will return it

8. Voluntary actions on my part will be returned in some way by my supervisor
Appendix A: (Continued)

_Perceived Coworker Support_

1. My coworkers strongly considers my goals and values
2. Help is available from my coworkers when I have a problem
3. My coworkers really care about my well-being
4. My coworkers are willing to extend themselves in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability
5. Even if I did the best job possible, my coworkers would fail to notice
6. My coworkers care about my general satisfaction at work
7. My coworkers show very little concern for me.
8. My coworkers care about my opinions
9. My coworkers take pride in my accomplishments at work

_Individual Adjustments to Social Positions_

1. Time spent learning the policies and procedures of the organization
2. Time spent learning how to get along with people in the organization
3. Training I’ve received that wouldn’t be useful in another organization
4. Time spent learning how to adjust to the performance expectations at the organization

_Perceived Expectations from the Supervisor about Staying_

1. Expectations that my supervisor has for me to stay
2. My supervisor counting on my continued employment at the organization
3. My obligation to reciprocate things my supervisor has done for me
Appendix A: (Continued)

Perceived Expectations from Coworkers about Staying

1. My coworkers counting on me to stay with the organization
2. Expectations that my coworkers have for me to stay
3. The need to return favors that my coworkers have done for me

Turnover Intentions

1. I constantly think about quitting
2. All things considered, I would like to find a comparable job in a different organization
3. I will probably look for a new job in the near future
4. I will probably find an acceptable alternative if I look for a new job
5. I am unlikely to leave my job soon
6. I don’t have any intention to look for a new job

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed toward the Supervisor

1. Gives advance notice to me when unable to come to work
2. Informs me when an unforeseeable problem occurs on the job
3. Assists me with my work (when not asked)
4. Volunteers for tasks that will help me do my job
5. Does what I ask without complaining
Appendix A: (Continued)

In-role Performance

1. Adequately completes assigned duties
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform
7. Fails to perform essential duties

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed toward Coworkers

1. Willing to give their time to help co-workers with work-related problems
2. Willing to share their expertise with other co-workers
3. Helps co-workers out if someone is falling behind on their work
4. Takes time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries
5. Passes along information to co-workers