

Running Head: The Investment Model and Workplace Behaviors

The Investment Model and Organizational Commitment:
Predicting Workplace Behaviors

Lucy Bayer

Haverford College

Abstract

A study of employees across a variety of professions was conducted to test several hypotheses concerning the Investment Model (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981), organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). It was hypothesized that organizational commitment would predict OCBs and that the components of the Investment Model – satisfaction, alternatives, and investments – would predict both organizational commitment and OCBs. More specifically, a mediated model was hypothesized, in which the relationship between the Investment Model components and OCBs is mediated by organizational commitment. Many of the findings of the current study support previous research in the field of organizational commitment. Our main hypothesis concerning a mediated model was largely supported, with commitment exhibiting a mediating effect on both satisfaction and investments in predicting OCBs. Additionally, group differences were analyzed to explore the ways in which employees of varying professions experience work differently. The current research provides additional support for the Investment Model and offers insight into the antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. Implications for both researchers and employers are addressed in the discussion.

The Investment Model and Organizational Commitment:
Predicting Workplace Behaviors

In the broad sense of the word, “commitment” can be defined as an obligation, agreement, or pledge to someone or something in the future. One can be committed to a friend, romantic partner, team, school, or, as is the focus of this current study, to one’s job. Being committed to a person, place, or thing invariably means that certain feelings and behaviors will arise as a result of that commitment. Understanding what commitment is, what leads to a sense of commitment, and what those committed feelings can predict has been of great interest over the last several decades. Both researchers and individuals, schools, captains, and employers are interested in the psychological aspects of commitment and in the behavioral outcomes affecting their relationships or businesses.

Understanding the causes and outcomes of commitment in the workplace can offer a great deal, not only to researchers interested in the psychological component of commitment, but also to employers. Recognizing the ways in which employers can foster a sense of commitment between their employees and the organization, and knowing what the behavioral results of that commitment will be, can create a more efficient and productive workplace.

A Definition of Commitment and Its Measures

Worker commitment has been defined and measured in over 25 ways (Morrow & McElroy, 1986). Some researchers, such as Blau (1989), have looked at career commitment, measuring an employee’s commitment to the specific occupation, with items that look like, “this is the ideal profession for a life’s work.” Becker, Billings,

Eveleth and Gilbert (1996) created a scale measuring an employee's commitment to his/her supervisor within the organization. Gregersen and Black (1992) compared one's commitment to a parent company to one's commitment to a local operation. Other types of work commitment that have been measured include job attachment, career salience, organizational commitment, work ethics, as well as numerous others. With such an abundance of constructs, Morrow (1983) suggested that there was much redundancy among the many models. Rather, she proposed five predominant types of work commitment – the intrinsic *value* of one's work, commitment to one's *career* or profession, commitment to one's particular daily *job*, an employee's commitment to his/her *organization*, and commitment to one's *union*.

Among these models one in particular, organizational commitment, has received significant attention. Unlike scales measuring, for example, an employee's commitment to a particular supervisor, which is relatively narrow in focus, organizational commitment is a broad construct. Additionally, unlike several of the other forms of commitment that have been measured, such as career commitment, which focuses more on individual differences, organizational commitment is centered on behavioral outcomes. For these reasons, commitment to one's organization has been a popular subject of research over the past several decades. It offers insight into the psychological bases of commitment, while also providing valuable knowledge about worker behavior to employers.

Organizational commitment as a construct has been defined and redefined numerous times. Previous research has shown a general disagreement over what this construct is and how to measure it. Some researchers, for example, have conceptualized organizational commitment in terms of a psychological attachment (O'Reilly & Chatman,

1986), while others have examined aspects such as the rewards and costs one associates with employment at their current organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Additionally, conceptualizations of organizational commitment have taken the form of both single, global measures of commitment, as well as multi-dimensional measures.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) summarize some of the many definitions that have arisen in the literature. They cite examples of organizational commitment definitions such as, “an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization” (Sheldon, 1971, p. 143), “the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems” (Kanter, 1968, p.499), and “the nature of the relationship of the member to the system as a whole,” (Grusky, 1966, p.489). To rectify and make sense of these varying definitions of the same construct, both Staw (1977) and Salancik (1977) distinguished between organizational commitment that is attitudinal in nature and organizational commitment that is behavioral in nature. Researchers interested in the attitudinal aspect of organizational commitment focused their definitions on how and why employees come to identify with their organization’s values and to feel a sense of membership in their organization. Alternatively, behavioral commitment describes an employee’s commitment to a course of action rather than to an institution; previous experiences form a sense of commitment to an action, and a behavioral attitude results that links the employee to his/her organization. Though some researchers focus primarily on either attitudinal *or* behavioral commitment to the organization, others have viewed the relationship between the two as one of reciprocity and have integrated the two concepts. In this integrated approach,

feelings of commitment affect behaviors, but those behaviors influence feelings of commitment in turn.

Organizational commitment has been the focus of much research for a multitude of reasons. Highly important is its ability to predict specific outcomes – employee turnover, job performance, and extra-role (or pro-social) behaviors, for example – in the workplace, which is of practical importance and interest to both researchers and employers. Within this concept researchers have developed and employed numerous methods for measuring organizational commitment. Both global and multi-dimensional models have been used to obtain measures of organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment as a global measure. In its earliest stages organizational commitment was conceptualized as a global model. These models function under the methodology that organizational commitment is unidimensional in nature, rather than the later models that approached commitment multi-dimensionally. The most widely used global measure is Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). This 15-item self-report survey asks participants the degree to which they agree or disagree with statements that measure their commitment to their organization. Looking back to Staw (1977) and Salanick's (1977) work, the OCQ is considered a measure of attitudinal commitment, which is comparable to what Meyer and Allen (1991) describe as affective commitment (see *Organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional measure*).

Researchers have developed and used many different scales that describe an overall commitment to the organization, such as Cook and Wall's (1980) nine-item

questionnaire. Prior to the Mowday et al. OCQ, an earlier version, also consisting of 15 items, was developed by Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974).

Organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional measure. Many researchers have conceptualized organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional model. Rather than classifying an employee's commitment as a single entity, multi-factored approaches have defined commitment as being comprised of several dimensions.

Examining the multitude of models previously used to define organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) noticed similarities among the many measures. Seeking to find common themes, they determined that these numerous definitions fell into one of three categories – an emotional attachment to the organization, beliefs about the costs and rewards of remaining with or leaving the organization, and a feeling of moral obligation towards that organization. Consequently, Meyer and Allen developed a three-component model of organizational commitment. Their model describes three types of commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. Affective commitment describes the extent to which an employee *wants* to be a part of an organization. An example of an item measuring affective commitment on Meyer and Allen's scale is, "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization." Normative commitment explains the degree to which an employee feels that he/she *ought* to remain at his/her current job. Items in this section include statements such as, "I would feel guilty if I left my organization now." Continuance commitment describes the extent to which an employee feels he/she *needs* to remain at the organization. Items measuring continuance commitment include statements like, "Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now."

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed a measure of commitment related, but not identical, to Meyer and Allen's (1991) model. Like Meyer and Allen, O'Reilly and Chatman conceptualized organizational commitment as a psychological attachment. However, while Meyer and Allen believed attachment to one's organization was one of three components of organizational commitment – measured by the affective commitment scale – O'Reilly and Chatman developed a model in which all of the components were related to psychological attachment. They described three dimensions of organizational commitment: internalization, identification, and compliance. Internalization measures the extent to which the employee feels they share the same mission and values as the organization. Identification describes the employee's desire to affiliate with their organization without accepting the organization's values as his/her own. Compliance describes an employee who accepts the organization's values for his/her own personal gain, but does not internalize or hold any of those same values.

The Investment Model

The Investment Model (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981) provides an interesting and useful hybrid between both global and multi-factored models of commitment. Though the model includes a global scale of commitment, it also incorporates three components – satisfaction, investments, and alternatives – to commitment. The Investment Model provides the simplicity of a global measure with the more holistic view of a multi-dimensional model.

In addition to a model of employee attitudes towards work or the organization, the Investment Model originated as a model of involvement in romantic relationships. It sought to establish the determinants for one's commitment towards a romantic partner.

Prior to this model, researchers had already identified satisfaction as a factor of commitment, but Rusbult (1980) suggested that other factors were involved as well (Rusbult, Drigotas & Verette, 1994). While satisfaction describes the emotional component of a relationship, Rusbult argued that there were other factors that compelled people to remain committed to their relationships. These other factors relate to feelings of dependence, an idea originally put forth by the Interdependence Theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In addition to the positive or negative emotions one feels as a function of satisfaction, alternative relationships, such as a more attractive potential partner, could also influence one's level of commitment. Similarly, one's perceived investments in the relationship could affect commitment. An individual may feel that he/she has invested a great amount of time, emotional effort, or financial resources in their partner and giving those up may or may not be attractive. One may not feel particularly satisfied with his/her partner, but few perceived alternatives and a strong emotional or financial investment & for example, could be sufficient cause to remain committed. Rusbult's (1980) model includes four constructs – commitment to one's partner and three bases of dependence: satisfaction with the relationship, perceived alternatives to that relationship, and investments in the relationship.

A great number of studies, both correlational and experimental, have been utilized to test the Investment Model. Satisfaction and investments have consistently been found to significantly and positively correlate with commitment while alternatives significantly and negatively correlates with commitment. The more positive feelings of satisfaction and the more invested one feels in his/her romantic relationship, the more committed he/she will be. Conversely, the more alternatives to one's current relationship one

perceives having, the less committed he/she will be (Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Le & Agnew, 2003; Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult 1983; Rusbult, Johnson & Morrow, 1986; Van Lange, Drigotas, Rusbult, Arriaga & Witcher, 1997).

The Investment Model seeks to examine not only the determinants of commitment, but also what happens as a result of being committed. In a highly committed relationship, what behavioral outcomes are likely to occur? The most obvious outcome is the decision of a partner to leave or maintain a current romantic relationship. The Investment Model has consistently shown that commitment predicts the likelihood that one will persist with his/her current romantic relationship. In a meta-analysis of 52 Investment Model studies, Le and Agnew (2003) found commitment to be a significant predictor of relationship persistence or dissolution. Bui, Peplau, and Hill (1996) conducted a 15-year longitudinal study of heterosexual couples and found that the Investment Model was a successful and accurate predictor of relationship breakup. The model also proposes that commitment mediates the effects of satisfaction, investments and alternatives in the choice to maintain or breakup a relationship, which has been supported by past research (Rusbult, Martz & Agnew, 1998).

In addition to relationship breakup, the Investment Model of commitment has also been shown to predict other relationship behaviors such as a willingness to sacrifice (Etcheverry & Le, 2005; Van Lange, Agnew, Harinck & Steemers, 1997). In the relationship literature, a willingness to sacrifice refers to an individual's propensity to abandon his/her own interests for the sake of the relationship or the partner. Van Lange and colleagues (1997) conducted a series of studies – cross-sectional, longitudinal, and experimental in nature – in which commitment significantly predicted willingness to

sacrifice. Etcheverry and Le (2005) also found that commitment predicts accommodation in romantic relationships. Accommodation refers to the manner in which an individual responds to a negative or destructive behavior on the part of his/her partner. Partners that are more highly committed show greater accommodation in their relationships.

Since Rusbult's initial study of romantic relationships and the development of the Investment Model, researchers have continued to employ this model in other settings. Rusbult (1980) tested the generalizability of her model by conducting a study of undergraduate friend dyads. As with the Investment Model and romantic relationships, friendship satisfaction and investments correlated positively with commitment, while perceived alternatives correlated negatively. Others have also applied the Investment Model to friendships such as those of adolescents and those involving cross-sex friends and consistently find the same results (Branje, Frijns, Finkenauer, Engels & Meeus, 2007; Lin & Rusbult, 1995). The Investment Model has also proven generalizable to college situations, with satisfaction, alternatives, and investments relating to commitment to the institution (Hatcher, Kryter, Prus & Fitzgerald, 1992). Hatcher and colleagues also found commitment to be a significant predictor of enrollment behavior, a finding that mirrors the romantic relationship research concerning partner breakups.

The Investment Model and organizational commitment. Farrell and Rusbult (1981) examined the ability of the Investment Model to generalize to employee experiences in organizations, hypothesizing that, as with romantic relationships, satisfaction, investments and alternatives would predict commitment. Using both experimental and correlational designs, this initial study found results consistent with previous work of the Investment Model in romantic relationships. In the workplace,

employee satisfaction and investments correlated positively with commitment, while alternatives correlated negatively. Turnover rate, comparative to a breakup in a romantic relationship, was also studied. Similar to prior Investment Model research, both satisfaction and commitment related significantly to turnover, but commitment proved to be the strongest predictor of employee turnover rate.

Rusbult and Farrell (1983) followed their initial research with a longitudinal study of the Investment Model's application to organizational commitment in a sample of newly hired employees of two professional service organizations – nurses from a hospital and accountants from an auditing firm. Analysis of results showed that higher investment and fewer alternatives encouraged greater commitment to the organization. Consistent with the prior research, commitment was again found to be the strongest and most direct predictor of turnover.

Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

One of the most important aspects of organizational commitment (and one employers are often greatly interested in) is its association with behavioral outcomes in the workplace. What, in effect, does being committed to one's job predict about behaviors in the organization? The outcomes of organizational commitment can be divided into two broad categories; organizational citizenship behaviors – the pro-social and voluntary acts an employee may exhibit – and the generally mandatory and in-role behaviors such as attendance and job maintenance (i.e., remaining versus quitting one's job).

The in-role behavioral outcomes of organizational commitment are described first. As discussed earlier, numerous methods have been developed to measure

organizational commitment. Broadly characterizing these methods, there have emerged two distinct methods of defining commitment – as a single, global model or as a multi-factored model. The research concerning in-role workplace outcomes has utilized both the global and dimensional approaches.

Predicting in-role outcomes using a global measure of organizational commitment. There has been much research supporting the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981; Koch & Steers, 1978; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977). In studies in which this association was found, turnover was inversely related to one's commitment, such that those exhibiting greater organizational commitment were less likely to leave their current job. Several studies focusing on employee turnover have compared the predictive powers of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the conclusion among many being that organizational commitment generally provides a better prediction of turnover rate than does job satisfaction (Koch & Steers, 1978; Porter et al., 1974). These findings are consistent with those of the Investment Model, which proposes that although satisfaction predicts turnover and relationship maintenance behavior, commitment acts as the best predictor. Understanding the antecedents of turnover provides useful information for employers who generally wish to limit employee turnover as much as possible to reduce the work of finding and training new employees. Less turnover aids to increase the consistency and continuity within the organization.

Related to turnover are the measures of intent and desire to remain. Research has shown a relationship between organizational commitment and both employees' desire

and intent to remain at their current job. Steers (1977) found intent and desire to remain to both be significant outcomes of organizational commitment for hospital employees and research scientist/engineers. Similar results were shown for bus drivers of a transit organization (Angle & Perry, 1981).

Research on the power of organizational commitment to predict absenteeism and tardiness has been less consistent. While several studies have found a significant relationship between commitment and absenteeism (Mowday & McDade, 1979; Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990; Steers, 1977), others have failed to replicate these findings (Angle & Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977). For example, Steers' (1977) study found a significant relationship between organizational commitment and attendance within the scientist/engineer population, but not so within the hospital employee population. Though failing to find a significant relationship between commitment and absenteeism, Angle and Perry (1981) did find a correlation between commitment and tardiness in their study of transit workers.

An interesting relationship that has been explored is that between organizational commitment and job performance. Results of this research have been inconsistent, and methods for defining and measuring job performance have varied greatly. Randall and colleagues (1990) found a significant relationship between a global measure of organizational commitment and an employee's concern for the quality of their work. In their study, items measuring quality of work were established by having employees, prior to the actual study, generate a list of behaviors they deemed representative of commitment. These items were then broken down into types of committed behaviors that were relatively independent of the others, one of which was quality of work, arguably a

measure of job performance. Steers (1977) used a global rating of job performance administered to supervisors to determine employee performance in a sample of hospital employees and a sample of research scientists/engineers. Although failing to find a significant relationship between organizational commitment and a global measure of performance for either sample, additional measures of performance (quantity of work and promotion readiness), asked only of the supervisors of hospital employees, were marginally related to organizational commitment.

A study done by Angle and Perry (1981) provides another example of the difficulty of measuring job performance. Employees were asked to rate themselves and, additionally, managers were asked to rate those same employees. Although employee ratings of perceived adaptability were highly correlated with organizational commitment, manager ratings did not show any significance. The results of this study and those of Steers' (1977) work suggest that particular components of job performance are related to organizational commitment, but measuring job performance may be difficult and may require new techniques of measurement.

Predicting in-role outcomes of organizational commitment using multi-dimensional models. In the discussion of job commitment outcomes thus far, organizational commitment in the described studies has been of the global definition. Many of the studies (e.g., Steers, 1977; Angle & Perry, 1981; Porter et al., 1974; Porter et al., 1976; Randall et al., 1990) previously discussed employed global measures of organizational commitment, such as those developed by Porter and colleagues (1974) and Mowday and colleagues (1979). In this section follows a description of research using multi-dimensional models. The most commonly used of these is Meyer and Allen's

(1997) three-factored model of organizational commitment, although O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) model is also discussed.

As expected, both turnover rate and intent to leave the organization correlate significantly with all three factors of Meyer and Allen's (1997) model – affective, normative, and continuance commitment – although the strongest correlations are found for affective commitment; those employees that *want* to remain at the organization are thus the least likely to intend or actually leave their current job (Allen & Meyer, 1996). When looking at organizational commitment as a function of psychological attachment, intent to remain with the organization is significantly correlated with all three dimensions of commitment – internalization, identification, and compliance (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Randall et al. (1990) found a significant relationship between presence behaviors (absenteeism and tardiness) and organizational commitment when using the global measure, but failed to find significant correlations between presence behaviors and any of Meyer and Allen's (1997) three factors. An important distinction that has been made in the research concerning absenteeism is that of voluntary versus involuntary absences. While there is very little support for a significant relationship between involuntary absences and organizational commitment, there is much support for a relationship when the number of days absent refers only to those that are voluntary. Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994) found a significant relationship between culpable absences – those that are voluntary – and affective commitment in bus operators, but no such relationship between nonculpable absences – those that are involuntary and unavoidable - and any of the three commitment conceptualizations. Similarly, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)

found significant relationships between both affective and normative commitment with voluntary absenteeism, but none between the three factors and overall absenteeism. The consensus is that organizational commitment is related to voluntary absenteeism only. Employees who are committed will not voluntarily miss work, but commitment has no influence on involuntary absences such as sickness.

Though the disparities between studies in methods of measuring job performance remain, research using Meyer and Allen's (1991) model of organizational commitment has seen more success than those using a global measure of commitment. Randall et al. (1990) found a significant correlation between an employee's concern for the quality of their work and both normative and affective commitment, though not with continuance commitment. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) had district managers rate their unit managers on overall performance and promotability. Both overall performance and promotability related significantly to employee ratings of affective and continuance commitment (researchers did not include a measure of normative commitment).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

In addition to the in-role behavioral outcomes of organizational commitment described in the previous section – turnover, desire and intent to remain, absenteeism and tardiness, and job performance – other research has focused on extra-role behaviors as outcomes of commitment. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) are those activities that an employee chooses to do that go beyond the prescribed roles of the organization. An OCB is “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the

effective functioning of the organization,” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). These behaviors – such as offering assistance to new employees, volunteering to do work that is not required, and attending company functions, for example – are of importance to researchers and employers for their practical implications in the workplace. Organizational citizenship behaviors in the workplace encourage efficiency and effectiveness of employees and increase job performance (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Smith, Organ and Near (1983) were the first to define such a category of workplace behaviors. They described OCBs as the actions of an employee that convey a sense of goodwill, helpfulness, and cooperation and are not required within the formal roles of the job. In this initial study of OCBs in the workplace, Smith and colleagues created a 16-item questionnaire and from the results two independent dimensions of OCBs emerged: altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism described extra-role behaviors in which an employee aimed to directly help another employee in a face-to-face situation, such as helping a new member of the organization become oriented. Generalized compliance referred to employee behaviors that were not aimed specifically at another individual, but aided the organization and those involved in it in a more indirect fashion, such as abstaining from undeserved breaks.

Later, Organ (1988) went on to expand the previous model of organizational citizenship behaviors, moving from a two-factor conceptualization to a five-dimensional model. The five factors of OCBs included altruism, or helping fellow employees without any direct benefit to the self; conscientiousness, or being mindful of company time and rules; sportsmanship, or keeping a positive morale and attitude; courtesy, or maintaining

a courteous relationship with coworkers; and civic virtue, or staying involved in matters that affect the organization. In a meta-analysis, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) found that the five dimensions of Organ's 1988 model of OCBs are highly related to one another. In addition, the authors found that there were no significant differences among the five factors in terms of their predictors – satisfaction, commitment, fairness, leader support, and conscientiousness.

Since Organ's five-factor conceptualization, numerous other models of organizational citizenship behaviors have been developed. One that is frequently utilized is Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's (1990) model, which builds from Organ's (1988) model. Relying on Organ's five factors, Podsakoff and colleagues further divided the five dimensions into subscales. Williams and Anderson (1991) returned to a two-factor model of OCBs that was based on Organ's five factors (1988). This two-dimensional measure consisted of OCB-O behaviors – those that benefit and are directed towards the organization – and OCB-I behaviors – those that are directed towards an individual employee.

Antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors. As an important and influential component of the workplace, researchers have studied many aspects of OCBs. Crucial to understanding why employees exhibit extra-role behaviors is answering the question, what leads to organizational citizenship behaviors in the workplace?

In understanding the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors, many researchers have looked at the relationships between OCBs and the components of the Investment Model: satisfaction, investments, alternatives, and commitment. There is much support for a significant relationship between an employee's satisfaction and

his/her organizational citizenship behaviors in the workplace. Bateman and Organ (1983), in a sample of non-academic employees of a large Midwestern college, found a significant correlation between OCBs and job satisfaction. In this study job satisfaction was measured with Smith, Kendall and Hulin's (1969) Job Descriptive Index, which contains five measures; satisfaction with work, pay, promotions, coworkers, and supervision. In addition, an overall measure of job satisfaction was calculated. Measures were acquired twice, five to seven weeks apart. Satisfaction with work and pay was significantly correlated with OCBs at time two, while satisfaction with co-workers was significantly related to OCBs at time one. Satisfaction with work, supervision, promotions, and the overall measure of job satisfaction correlated significantly with OCBs at both times of measurement.

Chiu and Chen (2005), in a study of employees from 24 electronics companies, found that overall job satisfaction related significantly to OCBs. They also found a significant correlation between OCBs and both intrinsic satisfaction (the satisfaction the employee feels from the job itself, such as feelings of accomplishment and responsibility, their work's service to society, and job stability) and extrinsic satisfaction (the satisfaction an employee garners that is not directly tied to the job itself, such as praise and work condition). A meta-analysis of 55 studies by Organ and Ryan (1995) showed job satisfaction to be a strong predictor of OCBs. The study also concluded that among the participants in their sample, employees of nonprofessional and nonmanagerial organizations, job satisfaction more strongly related to OCBs than it did to in-role behaviors.

Alternatives have also been studied as a possibly antecedent of OCBs. Hui, Law and Chen (1999) found that perceived mobility (how likely employees felt they could find a job with another organization) correlated negatively with OCBs in a sample of employees from a large battery manufacturer in China. Consistent with Investment Model hypotheses, the more alternative job opportunities the employees felt they had, the fewer organizational citizenship behaviors they exhibited. This study also found that there was no correlation between perceived mobility and in-role behaviors. Thau, Bennett, Stahlberg, and Werner (2004) expanded on the work of Hui and colleagues by dividing perceived mobility into two components: attractiveness of alternatives and perceived ease of changing organizations. Thau and colleagues found that when employees reported high ease in changing jobs, there was a negative relationship between the attractiveness of alternatives and OCBs. Conversely, there was a positive relationship between attractiveness of alternatives and OCBs when employees reported low ease in mobility.

Previous research has examined the relationship between OCBs and investments, primarily by looking at tenure as an expression of an investment. Schappe (1998) conducted a study among employees of a mid-Atlantic insurance company and found a significant negative correlation between organizational tenure and OCBs. Employees with tenure – presumably with greater investment in their current organization – exhibited fewer OCBs in the workplace. Others have replicated these findings, with tenure correlating negatively with OCBs (Thau et al., 2004). These results seem to run counter to the Investment Model research, which consistently finds that higher investments leads to *more* behaviors that are comparable to OCBs, such as a willingness to sacrifice in a romantic relationship. This may potentially be explained by examining

what tenure may represent to an employee. Although conceptually it may seem comparable to an investment, organizational tenure may also be understood by employees as a form of employment protection, with less concern about job termination or repercussions.

Much research has focused on the relationship between OCBs and commitment. Shappe (1998) found organizational commitment to be the only predictor variable that correlated significantly with OCBs. The other variables – interpersonal procedural justice (how an employee is treated during enactment of procedures), structural procedural justice (the characteristics of the formal procedures of an organization) and job satisfaction – did not show significant relationships with organizational citizenship behaviors. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) applied their model of psychological attachment to an organization to studies of extra-role behavior. Identifying three basis of commitment – internalization, identification, and compliance – their initial study looked at a sample of university employees. They found that both internalization and identification correlated significantly with the extra-role and pro-social behaviors such as, “I help new people even though it is not required.” In their second study they sampled a group of graduate business students. Again, both internalization and identification bases of commitment correlated significantly with the extra-role and pro-social behaviors, in this case behaviors such as, “I attend school functions that do not help me directly, but help the school’s image.”

Moorman, Niehoff and Organ (1993) used Meyer and Allen’s (1997) conceptualization of organizational commitment, measuring affective and continuance factors (although leaving out the normative commitment factor). Affective commitment

correlated significantly with all five dimensions of Organ's 1988 model – altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue – while continuance commitment correlated with some – courtesy, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness – but not all five dimensions.

Research has also looked for relationships between organizational citizenship behaviors and employee turnover. Because commitment is a consistent predictor of both turnover rate and organizational citizenship behavior, a relationship between turnover and OCBs is not surprising. Chen, Hui and Segó (1998) found a significant negative correlation between an employee's intention of turnover and their OCBs in a sample of employees from 11 Chinese companies. Thus, the more likely one is to leave their current job, the fewer organizational citizenship behaviors they will exhibit. George and Bettenhausen (1990) reported a significant negative correlation between pro-social behaviors and voluntary turnover among a sample of sales associates in 33 retail stores.

In sum, organizational commitment has consistently been found to predict workplace outcomes. An employee's commitment to his/her organization affects both in-role behaviors – job maintenance, attendance, punctuality, job performance - and extra-role behaviors, often described as organizational citizenship behaviors.

Goals of the Current Study

Using an Investment Model approach, our current study seeks to examine the outcomes of organizational commitment. Previous research has looked at the relationship between the Investment Model and organizational commitment and the relationship between commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. However, to date there has been no study in which the Investment Model, organizational commitment, and

OCBs have been examined simultaneously. We look to combine these two existing literatures to determine whether a mediated model, in which commitment mediates the relationship between the components of the Investment Model and OCBs, can explain the relationship between these three constructs.

As supported by the research of others, we suggest that the components of the model – satisfaction, alternatives, and investment – will predict organizational commitment (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). As evidenced by previous research, we also predict that the components of the Investment Model and organizational commitment will predict OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Chiu & Chen, 2005; Hui, Law & Chen, 1999; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Shappe, 1998; Thau, Bennett, Stahlberg & Werner, 2004) and other workplace behaviors such as desire and intent to remain (Angle & Perry, 1981; Koch & Steers, 1978; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977; Mowday & McDade, 1979).

More specifically, we plan to test the hypothesis that the components of the Investment Model will be mediated by commitment when predicting workplace behaviors (Figure 1). We suggest that the direct effects of satisfaction, alternatives, and investments will weaken in predicting workplace behaviors when commitment is added into the model.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: the components of the Investment Model - satisfaction, investments, and alternatives – will each predict organizational commitment. Consistent with the findings of previous research, we hypothesize that satisfaction and investments

will correlate positively with organizational commitment, while alternatives will correlate negatively.

Hypothesis 2: organizational commitment will predict OCBs.

Hypothesis 3: organizational commitment will predict other workplace behaviors – intent to remain, desire to remain, and social outcomes.

Hypothesis 4: the components of the Investment Model will predict OCBs

Hypothesis 5: the components of the Investment Model will predict other workplace behaviors – intent to remain, desire to remain, social outcomes.

Hypothesis 6: the direct effects of satisfaction, alternatives, and investments of the Investment Model on OCBs and other workplace behaviors are mediated by organizational commitment, and thus their effects will be reduced when commitment is added to the model.

Hypothesis 7: the components of the Investment Model will predict OCBs above the Meyer and Allen model of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 8: the effects seen in the results of each hypothesis will hold when the personality trait of conscientiousness is controlled for.

Methods

Participants

Participants were 267 currently employed persons of various professions. Of the subjects, 74 (27.8%) were male and 192 (72.2%) were female, one participant choosing not to respond. Due to our recruiting strategy of targeting teachers/faculty members of schools and colleges and student workers on college campuses, these two groups emerged as the largest subgroups in type of profession, with 28.3% and 35.6% of

respondents respectively. The remaining participants consisted of staff members at schools and colleges (13.8%), employees of small and large businesses (6.5%), and employees of non-profit organizations (7.3%), with 8.4% employed in “other” various professions.

Measures

We measured organizational commitment with two scales, Meyer and Allen’s 3-factor model measuring affective, normative, and continuance commitment (1997) and Rusbult and Farrell’s Investment Model (1983). Participants used the seven-level Likert rating to respond to a total of 23 questions on the Meyer and Allen scale (see Appendix A). The eight items measuring affective commitment include questions such as, “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization” ($\alpha = .85$). Six items measure normative commitment including, “this organization deserves my loyalty” ($\alpha = .88$). The nine items measuring continuance commitment include questions such as, “it would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to” ($\alpha = .85$).

Additionally, we measured commitment and its bases using the Investment Model (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). Items of the questionnaire use nine-level Likert scales, except where other responses were necessary (see Appendix B). Six items measure job satisfaction and ask questions such as, “in general, how much do you like your job?” and “how does this job compare to your ideal job?” ($\alpha = .90$) Investments is measured with 20 concrete items, including questions of length of service and friendship involvement ($\alpha = .87$). Three global items are also included and ask questions such as, “all things considered, to what extent are there activities/events/persons/objects associated with your

job that you would lose if you were to leave?” Alternatives is measured with seven items ($\alpha = .82$). Four of the items are concrete questions and ask information such as perceived ease of finding a similar job. The remaining three questions are global items and include questions such as, “in general, how do your alternatives compare to your current job?” Lastly, five global items measure commitment, including, “how likely is it that you will quit your job in the near future?” ($\alpha = .88$).

In addition, we included a scale of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Twenty-four items relying on a seven-level Likert scale measure the five dimensions of OCBs: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (see Appendix C). The five items measuring altruism include questions such as, “I help orient new people even though it is not required” ($\alpha = .83$). The five items measuring conscientiousness include, “I believe in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay” ($\alpha = .83$). The five sportsmanship items include, “I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”” ($\alpha = .82$). Five items measure courtesy, such as, “I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people’s jobs” ($\alpha = .90$). The four items measuring civic virtue include questions such as, “I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image” ($\alpha = .88$).

The Big Five Inventory’s questions pertaining to conscientiousness were included as well ($\alpha = .85$). The scale was added to test the hypothesis that our results would remain consistent when controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness (see Appendix D).

A series of questions written by the current research group pertaining to additional organizational commitment outcomes were asked as well (see Appendix E). These related

to several potential outcomes including desire to remain ($\alpha = .87$) and intent to remain ($\alpha = .88$). We also presented questions pertaining to one's involvement with coworkers on a social level, such as "I value the relationships I have with my coworkers" ($\alpha = .90$).

Procedure

Complete questionnaires consisting of all measures were formatted as an online survey, taking roughly 30 minutes to complete. Demographic information was obtained, with questions regarding type of profession, years at current job, sex, and age. The scales were administered in the following order: demographic information, Investment Model, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, Meyer and Allen's Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, Conscientiousness, additional workplace behaviors.

Emails containing the link to the online survey, either directly from us or from a supervisor of the particular organization, were sent to all participating employees. Upon completion of the questionnaire, results were sent directly to us for analysis. Consent forms completed prior to beginning the survey notified participants that, should they provide an email address at the end of the questionnaire, they would be entered into a lottery to win one of two \$50.00 prizes.

Results

Hypothesis 1

As hypothesized, the components of the Investment Model – satisfaction, alternatives, and investments – significantly predicted organizational commitment in our overall sample of participants. In a multiple regression, satisfaction, alternatives, and investments were entered into the model as predictors, with commitment as the dependent variable. All three components of the Investment Model were significant

predictors of organizational commitment (see Table 2), and together accounted for 47% of the variance in commitment. When conscientiousness was added to the model, satisfaction, alternatives, and investments continued to be the significant predictors of commitment; conscientiousness did not contribute significantly (see Table 3). All together, satisfaction, alternatives, investments, and conscientiousness accounted for 46.4% of the variance in commitment.

Hypothesis 2

Our second hypothesis stated that organizational commitment would predict organizational citizenship behaviors. A multiple regression showed a significant ability of commitment to predict OCBs ($R^2 = .178$, $\beta = .421$, $p < .001$), supporting this hypothesis. When conscientiousness was added to the model, both conscientiousness ($\beta = .558$, $p < .001$) and commitment ($\beta = .106$, $p < .001$) significantly predicted organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, when controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness, commitment continues to be a significant predictor of OCBs.

Hypothesis 3

As hypothesized, organizational commitment predicted other workplace outcomes in addition to the extra-role organizational citizenship behaviors. Regression analyses were performed on each of the three additional behaviors in question – intent to remain, desire to remain, and social outcomes – with conscientiousness added to the model to control for this personality trait. Commitment was a significant predictor of intent to remain ($\beta = .669$, $p < .001$) and a marginally significant predictor of desire to remain ($\beta = .035$, $p < .074$), conscientiousness exhibiting no significant influence in either analysis. The regression of social outcomes revealed both commitment ($\beta = .221$, $p < .001$) and

conscientiousness ($\beta = .341, p < .009$) to be significant predictors of social workplace behaviors.

Hypothesis 4

Our fourth hypothesis, that the components of the Investment Model – satisfaction, alternatives, and investments – would predict organizational citizenship behaviors, was partially supported. Both satisfaction and investments emerged as significant predictors of OCBs, however, alternatives did not show a significant level of predictive ability (see table 4), and together, the three components accounted for 31% of the variance in OCBs. Once again, to control for conscientiousness, this personality trait was added to the model for additional analysis. Again, satisfaction and investments significantly predicted OCBs, as did conscientiousness; alternatives showed an even smaller predictive power once conscientiousness was included in the model (see Table 5). Together, the components of the Investment Model and conscientiousness accounted for 50.4% of the variance in OCBs.

Hypothesis 5

Additionally, only some of our hypotheses concerning the Investment Model components' ability to predict in-role workplace outcomes were supported. Satisfaction significantly predicted intent to remain, while alternatives and investments were marginally significant; conscientiousness was not significant (see Table 6). Neither satisfaction, alternatives, investments, nor conscientiousness significantly predicted desire to remain (see Table 7). Only satisfaction and investments were significant predictors of social outcomes (see Table 8).

Hypothesis 6

Our fifth hypothesis predicted that organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between the components of the Investment Model and workplace behaviors. We were only able, however, to proceed in testing this hypothesis with two of the three components of the Investment Model – satisfaction and investments. In order to show a mediated relationship, several conditions must initially be met (see figure 2). First (step 1), the components of the Investment Model must significantly predict OCBs. This condition was met for satisfaction and investments, but not alternatives (see results of Hypothesis 4), and thus we were not able to proceed in testing the hypothesis that commitment mediates the relationship between alternatives and OCBs. Second (step 2), the components of the Investment Model must significantly predict organizational commitment, a condition that was successfully met for the two remaining components in question, satisfaction and investments (see results of Hypothesis 1). Thirdly, commitment must be a significant predictor of OCBs when it is included in the multiple regression in which the Investment Model components predict OCBs. This condition is met (see Table 9). The fourth condition states that the association between the components of the Investment Model and OCBs (step 1) must be less than this relationship when commitment is included in the model. Both satisfaction and investments meet this condition; their effects were reduced in predicting OCBs when commitment is added to the model (see Table 9; compare to Table 4).

Having met the conditions for satisfaction and investments, we proceeded to test for significant mediation. Sobel tests for both satisfaction ($z = 2.230, p < .03$) and investments ($z = 2.139, p < .032$) were significant. With satisfaction, we can consider this

full mediation, since satisfaction is a significant predictor of OCBs only when commitment is excluded from the model (see Tables 4 and 9). Investments can be described as partially mediated by commitment, since it is a significant predictor of OCBs both when commitment is excluded and included in the model. Thus, investments both directly and indirectly – through commitment – predict OCBs.

Hypothesis 7

Our sixth hypothesis posited that the components of the Investment Model would predict OCBs above Meyer and Allen's model of commitment. A multiple regression analysis was performed with satisfaction, alternatives, investments, conscientiousness, Meyer and Allen's three components of commitment – affective, normative, and continuance – and commitment as measured by the Investment Model as the predictive variables, and OCBs as the dependent variable. Of the independent variables, only investments and conscientiousness were significant predictors of OCBs. Alternatives was marginally significant. (See Table 10)

Exploratory Analyses

Upon noting that our sample comprised of a large number of teachers/faculty members and student workers, we decided to revisit several of our hypotheses, examining the differences between these two particular groups. Performing an independent samples t-test, several significant differences were noted in the mean scores for our variables of interest between the two subgroups (see Table 11). With the exception of alternatives, teachers/faculty members and student workers varied significantly in their mean scores for all of the variables; satisfaction ($t(182) = 5.409, p < .001$), investments ($t(181) =$

15.289, $p < .001$), commitment ($t(182) = 7.900$, $p < .001$), OCBs ($t(182) = 6.653$, $p < .001$), and conscientiousness ($t(174) = 3.332$, $p < .002$).

Hypothesis 1 revisited. We performed two multiple regressions, one on teachers/faculty members and one on student workers, to test the hypothesis that the components of the Investment Model – satisfaction, alternatives, and investments – would predict organizational commitment. For the teachers/faculty members, both satisfaction and investments were significant predictors of commitment, while alternatives was only marginally significant (see Table 12). In the group of student workers, satisfaction was the only significant predictor of commitment, alternatives and investments not showing even a marginal significance (see Table 12).

Hypothesis 7 revisited. We reexamined Hypothesis 7 – that the components of the Investment Model would predict OCBs above Meyer and Allen’s model of commitment – by performing a multiple regression on the teachers/faculty members and on the student workers. Among the group of teachers/faculty members, only conscientiousness and Meyer and Allen’s normative commitment were significant predictors of OCBs (see Table 13). In the group of student workers, conscientiousness was the only highly significant predictor of OCBs, with investments showing a marginal significance (see Table 14).

Discussion

We found good support for several, but not all, of our initial hypotheses. Our first hypothesis concerning the ability of the Investment Model components – satisfaction, alternatives, and investments – to predict organizational commitment was supported in the full sample of participants, as well as in the subgroup of teachers/faculty members,

although alternatives was only marginally significant for this group, a finding that is likely explained by the relatively small sample size ($n = 81$).

In the subgroup of student workers, however, only satisfaction was a significant predictor of commitment. This is a fitting finding. As student workers they are likely unconcerned with alternatives, since their job is a temporary one. Although the degree to which student workers and teachers/faculty members perceived having alternative job options was virtually identical ($M = 4.05$ for teachers, $M = 4.19$ for students), alternatives are probably more relevant, and thus, more tied to level of organizational commitment, for the teachers/faculty members than for the student workers. Investments were both significantly smaller ($M = 7.70$ for teachers/faculty and $M = 4.52$ for student workers) and less predictive of organizational commitment for the group of students. Not only did the student workers feel less invested in their jobs, attributable to the temporary and part-time nature of their work, but investments also failed to significantly predict commitment.

Both our second and third hypotheses were supported. Organizational commitment significantly predicted both the extra-role behaviors, OBCs, and the additional measures of workplace behaviors, intent and desire to remain and social outcomes.

Hypothesis 4 was only partially supported. While satisfaction and investments were both significant predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors, alternatives, contrary to prior research (Hui, Law & Chen, 1999; Thau, Bennett, Stahlberg & Werner, 2004) did not contribute significantly. It is possible that our particular sample of employees can explain this finding. A large portion of our respondents were teachers, and

while they may perceive themselves as having alternative job options, loyalty to a particular school or district may diminish the importance of alternatives in predicting OCBs. Also, the large group of student workers may have affected this divergence from previous research. Although these students may feel like many alternative job options exist, these alternatives may have less importance since their current work is only temporary in nature. Thus, perceiving many or few job alternatives may not be a significant indicator of organizational citizenship behaviors in a sample that consists of a large group of student workers.

Our fifth hypothesis – that satisfaction, alternatives, and investments would predict other workplace behaviors – was only partially supported. Although satisfaction, alternatives, and investments were all significant or marginally significant predictors of intent to remain, none of the Investment Model components predicted desire to remain. This is an interesting finding, since intuitively one would make the assumption that satisfaction, perceived alternatives, and investments would predict an employee's desire to remain, perhaps even more so than intent to remain, which is more contingent upon actual action. Satisfaction and investments, but not alternatives, were significant predictors of social outcomes.

In our sixth and main hypothesis we found good support for a mediated model in which organizational commitment mediates the relationship between the components of the Investment Model and organizational citizenship behaviors. As discussed in the results, conditions were met to proceed in testing such a relationship for both satisfaction and investments, but not alternatives. With the exception of alternatives, the current study supports past research, which applied this mediated model to romantic relationships

(Rusbult, Martz & Agnew, 1998). Our results suggest that the processes at the heart of the Investment Model's application to romantic relationships, in which satisfaction, alternatives, and investments are mediated by commitment in predicting relationship behaviors and outcomes, are generalizable to the organization, with the exclusion of alternatives.

We were not able to proceed in testing a mediated model for alternatives, because the first condition – that alternatives must significantly predict OCBs – was not met. Again, as posited in the discussion of Hypothesis 4, this may be explained by our sample of participants that included a large proportion of teachers/faculty members and student workers, whose particular jobs may affect the ways in which alternative job options relate to their experiences in the workplace. Perhaps employees of other professions may have shown a more significant association between alternatives and OCBs. For example, one could suggest that there would be a stronger association between alternatives and workplace behaviors in a sample of employees that work for an hourly rate, rather than a yearly salary. Regardless of how many alternatives these employees perceive having, jobs that pay by the hour are likely to be more susceptible to a faster rate of turnover than many other jobs. Having or not having alternative job options may therefore have a significant impact on the ways these employees behave in the workplace, perhaps more so than employees of jobs in which individuals are less dispensable, such as school teachers.

When examining the seventh hypothesis – that the Investment Model would predict organizational citizenship behaviors above Meyer and Allen's model – only investments and conscientiousness were significant predictors of OCBs, with alternatives

marginally significant, in the full sample of participants. While this finding does partially support the hypothesis, it also illustrates the largely influential role that investments play in predicting OCBs. Investments, not organizational commitment, exhibits stronger effects in predicting OCBs. These results are similar to those seen in the analysis of Hypothesis 6. Although we did find support for a mediated model in which commitment mediates the relationship between investments and OCBs, investments continues to be the most significant predictor of OCBs when commitment is added into the regression, a finding that should be further addressed in future research.

When reexamined using the two subgroups, the student workers showed a similar pattern of results to the full sample, with conscientiousness a significant predictor of OCBs, and investments marginally significant. Interestingly, in the group of teachers/faculty members, however, conscientiousness and Meyer and Allen's normative commitment were the two variables that significantly predicted OCBs. Perhaps the greater link between normative commitment – a sense of commitment based on feelings of personal responsibility towards the job – and OCBs within this subgroup can be explained by the nature of employment. As teachers providing education to young persons, it is possible that greater feelings of moral responsibility are highly related to manifestations of those feelings in the form of organizational citizenship behaviors.

The different findings that emerged as a result of separately examining our two largest subgroups of employees – teachers/faculty members and student workers – suggest that significant distinctions exist in the ways employees of differing professions experience work. The teachers and students differed significantly in their means scores for all but one of our six variables of interest. The teachers/faculty members responded

with significantly higher scores on satisfaction, investments, commitment, OCBs, and conscientiousness. Because the differences between these two groups was so pronounced, it seems likely that employees of other types of jobs would also have different experiences and behave differently in the workplace.

Our particular set of participants, in which teachers/faculty members and student workers made up almost two-thirds of our sample, may prove a limitation of our study. Because such pronounced differences between these two subgroups was observed, it suggests that our sample was perhaps not representative of employees in general, but may have rather been more characteristic of the experiences and beliefs of these two unique types of employees. For example, as previously discussed, alternatives significantly predicted organizational commitment in the full sample of participants, but failed to significantly predict commitment in either of the two subgroups. This suggests that teachers/faculty members and student workers are somewhat unique in the lack of importance that alternative job options play in determining level of commitment. Perhaps our particular sample differed from the full population of employees and was thus not a representative analysis of work attitudes in general. The notable group differences suggest that future research in the area of organizational commitment should take into account the varying attitudes of employees of different professions. Studies should look to both further examine specific employee differences across a range of job types, as well as examining a large and fully representative sample of employees.

Although our findings were likely affected by our specific sample of employees, the current research presents several interesting and noteworthy findings. In addition to replicating many past findings concerning the Investment Model, commitment, and

organizational citizenship behaviors, the current study successfully integrated two distinct literatures concerning organizational behaviors. The previous research upon which this study was built relied on one of two relationships – the relationship between the components of the Investment Model and organizational commitment and the relationship between organizational commitment and OCBs. From prior research concerning romantic relationships, in which commitment to a partner mediated the relationship between the components of the Investment Model and behavioral outcomes such as relationship maintenance, willingness to sacrifice, and accommodation, the current study looked to examine a mediated relationship such as this in organizational commitment. It was suggested that, as in romantic relationships, commitment to an organization would mediate the relationship between the components of the Investment Model – in this case, job satisfaction, perceived alternatives, and investments – and workplace behaviors. Specifically, the current research looked to organizational citizenship behaviors as a comparable substitute to behavioral outcomes found in romantic involvements.

Our current study provides more support for the Investment Model as a successful model to understand the origins of commitment. It further supports the past research that suggests that this model can effectively be applied to a variety of relationships beyond its initial use, romantic relationships. The current research adds further credence to the Investment Model as a reliable and robust measure of commitment.

On a more practical level, our current study can offer important implications for employers. Understanding the ways in which employees come to feel a sense of commitment and how that commitment translates into workplace behaviors can offer a

great deal to employers. Past research has shown important links between organizational commitment and employee turnover, intent and desire to remain, tardiness, job performance, and the extra-role behaviors described as organizational citizenship behaviors. The current study found additional support for a predictive relationship between employee commitment and intent to remain, desire to remain, social outcomes, as well as OCBs. Each of these employee behaviors can contribute significantly to an effective workplace. Intent and desire to remain cannot only be considered representative of employee attitudes, but may also relate to turnover rate. Employers who instill in their employees a greater sense of commitment to the organization can expect fewer employees who desire or intend to leave their current jobs, thus limiting turnover and producing a more efficient workplace.

Similarly, both the social behavioral outcomes measured in this current study, as well as organizational citizenship behaviors can influence the workplace in important ways. These pro-social and extra-role behaviors can enhance workplace morale and positively influence the workplace environment. An office or other place of work in which employees engage in constructive and mutually beneficial, but not required, acts can help foster work environments that are more positive and amicable, which can in turn add to a sense of organizational loyalty.

As our mediated model suggests, commitment to the organization is the main variable predicting workplace outcomes. As employers, developing a work environment that fosters greater employer commitment can ultimately create a workforce of employees that exhibit greater in-role and pro-social behaviors, which can in turn encourage a more loyal group of employees and a more efficient workplace.

Both theoretically and practically, the current research offers a new understanding into the study of organizational commitment. This study offers further evidence to support the Investment Model as a powerful and generalizable model of commitment. Additionally, the current study has successfully merged two distinct literatures concerning organizational commitment, offering new insight into the ways in which employee attitudes about work, a sense of commitment, and behavioral outcomes relate to one another. On a practical level, the implications of the study's findings offer a new understanding of employee behavior. Employers can gain much from learning the behavioral manifestations of commitment to an organization. The relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of commitment can do much to benefit both a psychological understanding of employee behavior on a theoretical basis, as well as insight into work environments that can aid employers on a practical level.

References

- Angel, H. L. & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26(1), 1-14.
- Bateman, T. S. & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 587-595.
- Blau, G. (1989). Testing the generalizability of a career commitment measure and its impact on employee turnover. *Journal of Vocational Behaviors*, 35(1), 88-103.
- Branje, S. J. T., Frijns, T., Finkenauer, C., Engels, R. & Meeus, W. (2007). You are my best friend: Commitment and stability in adolescents' same-sex friendships. *Personal Relationships*, 14(4), 587-603.
- Bui, K. T., Peplau, L. A. & Hill, C. T. (1996). Testing the Rusbult model of relationship commitment and stability in a 15-year study of heterosexual couples. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22(12), 1244-1257.
- Chen, X. P., Hui, C. & Sego, D. J. (1998). The role of organizational citizenship behavior in turnover: Conceptualization and preliminary tests of key hypotheses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(6), 922-931.
- Chiu, S. F. & Chen, H. L. (2005). Relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediational role of job satisfaction. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 33(6), 523-540.
- Cook, J. & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational

- commitment and personal need non-fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 53, 39-52.
- Duffy, S. M. & Rusbult, C. E. (1986). Satisfaction and commitment in homosexual and heterosexual relationships. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 12(2), 1-23.
- Etcheverry, P. E. & Le, B. (2005). Thinking about commitment: Accessibility of commitment and prediction of relationship persistence, accommodation, and willingness to sacrifice. *Personal Relationships*, 12(1), 103-123.
- Farrell, D. & Rusbult, C. E. (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.
- George, J. M. & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, (6), 698-709.
- Grusky, O. (1966). Career mobility and organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 10(4), 488-503.
- Hackett, R. D., Bycio, P. & Hausdorf, P. A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(1), 15-23.
- Hatcher, L., Kryter, K., Prus, J. S. & Fitzgerald, V. (1992). Predicting college student satisfaction, commitment, and attrition from investment model constructs. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22(16), 1273-1296.
- Hui, C., Law, K. S. & Chen, Z. C. (1999). A structural equation model of the effects of negative affectivity, leader-member exchange, and perceived job mobility on in-

- role and extra-role performance: A Chinese case. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 77(1), 3-21.
- Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American Sociological Review*, 33(4), 499-517.
- Koch, J. L. & Steers, R. M. (1978). Job attachment, satisfaction, and turnover among public sector employees. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 12, 119-128.
- Le, B. & Agnew, C. R. (2003). Commitment and its theorized determinants: A meta analysis of the investment model. *Personal Relationships*, 10(1), 37-57.
- Lin, Y. W. & Rusbult, C. E. (1995). Commitment to dating relationships and cross-sex friendships in America and China. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 12(7), 9-26.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538-551.
- Meyer, J. P., Paunonen, S. V., Gellatly, I. R., Goffin, R. D. & Jackson, D. N. (1989). Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of the commitment that counts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(1), 152-156.
- Moorman, R. H., Niehoff, B. P. & Organ, D. W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities*

- and Rights Journal*, 6(3), 209-225.
- Morrow, P. C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case work of commitment, *The Academy of Management Review*, 8(3), 486-500.
- Morrow, P. C. & McElroy, J. C. (1986). On assessing measures of work commitment. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 7(2), 139-145.
- Mowday, R. and McDade, T. (1979), "Linking behavioral and attitudinal commitment: a longitudinal analysis of job choice and job attitude", Academy of Management Proceedings, Atlanta, GA, pp. 84-89.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M. & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measure of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), 224-247.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W. & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York: Academic Press.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Organ, D. W. & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 775-802.
- O'Reilly, C. & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: the effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 492-499.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M. & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship

- behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(2), 262-270.
- Porter, L. W., Crampon, W. J. & Smith, F. J. (1976). Organizational commitment and managerial turnover: A longitudinal study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 15, 87-98.
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T. & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(5), 603-609.
- Randall, D. M., Fedor, D. B. & Longenecker, C. O. (1990). The behavioral expression of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 36, 210-224.
- Rusbult, C. E. (1980). Commitment and satisfaction in romantic associations: A test of the investment model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 16, 172-186.
- Rusbult, C. E. (1983). A longitudinal test of the investment model: The development (and deterioration) of satisfaction and commitment in heterosexual involvements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45(1), 101-117.
- Rusbult, C. E., Drigotas, S. M., & Verette, J. (1994). The investment model: An interdependence analysis of commitment processes and relationship maintenance phenomena. In D. J. Canary & L. Stafford (Eds.) *Communication and relational maintenance* (pp. 115-139). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Rusbult, C. E., & Farrell, D. (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.
- Rusbult, C. E., Johnson, D. J. & Morrow, G. D. (1986). Determinants and consequences

- of exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: Responses to dissatisfaction in adult romantic involvements. *Human Relations*, 39(1), 45-63.
- Rusbult, C. E., Martz, J. M. & Agnew, C. R. (1998). The Investment Model Scale: Measuring commitment level, satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Personal Relationships*, 54(4), 357-391.
- Salanick, G. R. (1977). Commitment and control of organizational behavior. In G. Salanick (Ed.), *New Directions in Organizational Behavior*. Chicago: Sr. Clair Press.
- Shappe, S. P. (1998). The influence of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and fairness perceptions on organizational citizenship behavior. *The Journal of Psychology*, 132(3), 277-290.
- Sheldon, M. E. (1971). Investments and involvements as mechanisms producing commitment to the organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16(2), 143-150.
- Smith, C. A., Kendall, L. M. & Hulin, C. L. (1969). *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement: A strategy for the study of attitudes*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W. & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 655-663.
- Staw, B. M. (1981). The escalation of commitment to a course of action. *The Academy of Management Review*, 6(4), 577-587.
- Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 46-56.

Thau, S., Bennett, R. J., Stahlberg, D. & Werner, J. M. (2004). Why should I be generous when I have valued and accessible alternatives? Alternative exchange partners and OCB. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(5), 607-626.

Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. New York: Wiley.

Van Lange, P. A. M., Rusbult, C. E., Drigotas, S. M., Arriaga, X. B. & Witcher, B. S. (1997). Willingness to sacrifice in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(6), 1373-1395.

Van Lange, P. A. M., Agnew, C. R., Harinck, F. & Steemers, G. E. M. (1997). From game theory to real life: How social value orientation affects willingness to sacrifice in ongoing close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(6), 1330-1344.

Williams, L. J. & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behavior. *Journal of Management*, 17, 601-617.

Appendix A

Affective, Normative, and Continuance Commitment: Meyer and Allen (1997)

1=strongly disagree

7=strongly agree

Affective Commitment Scale Items

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2. I really feel as if this 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 this organization.
5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Continuance Commitment Scale Items

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
2. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
3. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
4. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
5. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
6. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
7. If I had not already put so much of myself into the organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

Normative Commitment Scale Items (Revised)

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 my organization.

Appendix C

Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, XXXX (need reference)**Altruism items:**

1. I help others who have heavy workloads

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

2. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

3. I help others who have been absent

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

4. I willingly help others who have work-related problems

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

5. I help orient new people even though it is not required

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

Conscientiousness items:

1. I feel that I am one of the most conscientious employees

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

2. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

3. My attendance at work is above the norm

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

4. I do not take extra breaks

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

5. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

Sportsmanship items:

1. I am the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

2. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

3. I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

4. I always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side I

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

5. I always find fault with what the organization is doing

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

Courtesy items:

1. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

2. I considers the impact of my actions on co-workers

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

disagree

agree

3. I do not abuse the rights of others

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

4. I takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

5. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

Civic virtue items:

1. I keep abreast changes in the organization

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

2. I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

3. I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

4. I reads and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
= strongly disagree						= strongly agree

Appendix D

The “Big Five” Inventory (Conscientiousness): John & Srivastava, 1999; John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who *likes to spend time with others*? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

- 1 = Disagree Strongly
- 2 = Disagree a Little
- 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 = Agree a Little
- 5 = Agree Strongly

I See Myself as Someone Who . . .

- _____ 3. Does a thorough job
- _____ 8. Can be somewhat careless
- _____ 13. Is a reliable worker
- _____ 18. Tends to be disorganized
- _____ 23. Tends to be lazy
- _____ 28. Perseveres until the task is finished
- _____ 33. Does things efficiently
- _____ 38. Makes plans and follows through with them
- _____ 43. Is easily distracted

Appendix E

Other workplace outcomes of Organizational Commitment

Since the beginning of the current school year (approximately the start of September), roughly how many days have you been absent from your job other than for reasons of illness? _____days

Since the beginning of the current school year (approximately the start of September), roughly how many days have you been late/tardy for work? _____days

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

I want to remain at my current job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I don't want to leave my current job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I do not have plans to leave my current job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I do not intend to find a new job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

I share a friendship with one or more of my coworkers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I make it a point to get to know my coworkers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I spend time outside of work with my coworkers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I consider one or more of my coworkers to be friends.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

I value the relationships I have with my coworkers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree

Table 1

Intercorrelations among our variables of interest, means and standard deviations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Satisfaction	–					
2. Alternatives	-.188**	–				
3. Investments	.436**	-.012	–			
4. Commitment	.629**	-.199**	.506**	–		
5. OCBs	.379**	.025	.528**	.421**	–	
6. Conscientiousness	.115	.053	.327**	.182**	.581**	–
Mean	7.143	4.180	6.302	6.752	5.390	4.118
SD	1.492	1.536	1.979	2.101	.700	.648

Table 2

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting organizational commitment

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.471	77.64	3, 265	.001
Satisfaction	.479	9.400	.001				
Alternatives	-.104	-2.268	.025				
Investments	.296	5.902	.001				

Table 3

*Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting organizational commitment,
controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness*

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.464	54.43	4, 256	.001
Satisfaction	.476	9.071	.001				
Alternatives	-.110	-2.330	.022				
Investments	.270	4.972	.001				
Conscientiousness	.105	.932	.352				

Table 4

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting OCBs

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.310	39.18	3, 265	.001
Satisfaction	.196	3.371	.002				
Alternatives	.070	1.336	.190				
Investments	.443	7.744	.001				

Table 5

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting OCBs, controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.504	63.98	4, 256	.001
Satisfaction	.192	3.782	.001				
Alternatives	.049	1.075	.290				
Investments	.301	5.760	.001				
Conscientiousness	.461	9.790	.001				

Table 6

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting intent to remain, controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.159	11.80	4, 253	.001
Satisfaction	.284	4.268	.001				
Alternatives	-.112	-1.878	.063				
Investments	.130	1.906	.059				
Conscientiousness	.019	.307	.760				

Table 7

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting desire to remain, controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.016	.98	4, 253	.419
Satisfaction	.100	1.390	.166				
Alternatives	.012	.190	.850				
Investments	.046	.618	.538				
Conscientiousness	-.045	-.678	.500				

Table 8

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting social outcomes, controlling for the personality trait of conscientiousness

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.215	16.82	4, 250	.001
Satisfaction	.198	3.056	.003				
Alternatives	-.001	-.025	.990				
Investments	.298	4.478	.001				
Conscientiousness	.101	1.692	.093				

Table 9

*Satisfaction, alternatives, investments and organizational commitment predicting OCBs;
examining a mediated model*

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.323	31.18	4, 265	.001
Satisfaction	.119	1.786	.076				
Alternatives	.087	1.653	.101				
Investments	.396	6.548	.001				
Commitment	.161	2.295	.024				

Table 10

Satisfaction, alternatives, investments, conscientiousness, Meyer and Allen's model of commitment – affective, normative, continuance – and Investment Model commitment predicting OCBs

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.520	33.03	8, 252	.001
Satisfaction	.093	1.333	.185				
Alternatives	.083	1.748	.083				
Investments	.225	3.483	.002				
Conscientiousness	.433	8.927	.001				
M&A Affective	.058	.758	.450				
M&A Normative	.087	1.649	.101				
M&A Continuance	.045	.859	.392				
I.M. Commitment	.100	1.602	.111				

Table 11

Comparing means and standard deviations of variables of interest in teachers/faculty members and student workers

	Job Type	Mean	Standard Deviation
Satisfaction	Teachers/faculty	7.748	1.175
	Student workers	6.723	1.380
Alternatives	Teachers/faculty	4.049	1.647
	Student Workers	4.186	1.458
Investments	Teachers/faculty	7.701	.970
	Student workers	4.516	1.717
Commitment	Teachers/faculty	7.830	1.393
	Student workers	5.713	2.136
OCBs	Teachers/faculty	5.615	.515
	Student workers	4.997	.721
Conscientiousness	Teachers/faculty	4.211	.570
	Student workers	3.878	.737

Table 12

Comparing teachers/faculty members and student workers for satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicting organizational commitment

Model for teachers/faculty members							
	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.319	13.16	3, 87	.001
Satisfaction	.415	4.294	.001				
Alternatives	-.163	-1.706	.093				
Investments	.215	2.360	.022				
Model for student workers							
	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.351	16.42	3, 94	.001
Satisfaction	.541	5.836	.001				
Alternatives	.023	.268	.790				
Investments	.120	1.317	.192				

Table 13

Satisfaction, alternatives, investments, conscientiousness, Meyer and Allen's model of commitment – affective, normative, continuance – and Investment Model commitment predicting OCBs in a group of teachers/faculty members

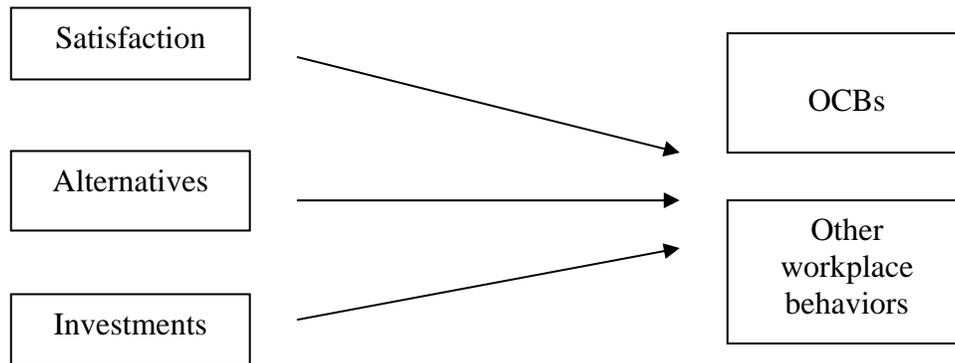
Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.385	5.71	8, 81	.001
Satisfaction	.058	.460	.648				
Alternatives	.108	1.021	.311				
Investments	.058	.543	.590				
Conscientiousness	.463	4.649	.001				
M&A Affective	-.069	-.493	.624				
M&A Normative	.318	2.757	.008				
M&A Continuance	-.057	-.554	.582				
I.M. Commitment	.086	.719	.476				

Table 14

Satisfaction, alternatives, investments, conscientiousness, Meyer and Allen's model of commitment – affective, normative, continuance – and Investment Model commitment predicting OCBs in a group of student workers

Model	β	t	$p <$	R^2	F	df	$p <$
				.469	9.036	8, 90	.001
Satisfaction	-.029	-.238	.814				
Alternatives	-.018	-.206	.838				
Investments	.189	1.889	.063				
Conscientiousness	.510	5.312	.001				
M&A Affective	-.090	-.738	.464				
M&A Normative	.168	1.412	.163				
M&A Continuance	-.040	-.408	.686				
I.M. Commitment	.142	1.380	.172				

Direct Model



Mediated Model

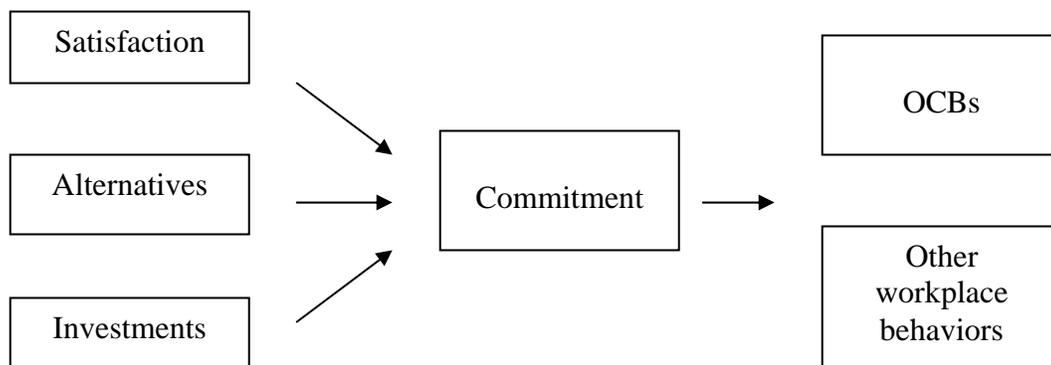


Figure 1. Two models to illustrate mediation. The top figure represents a direct model in which the components of the Investment Model predict OCBs and other workplace behaviors. The bottom figure represents a mediated model, in which commitment mediates this relationship.

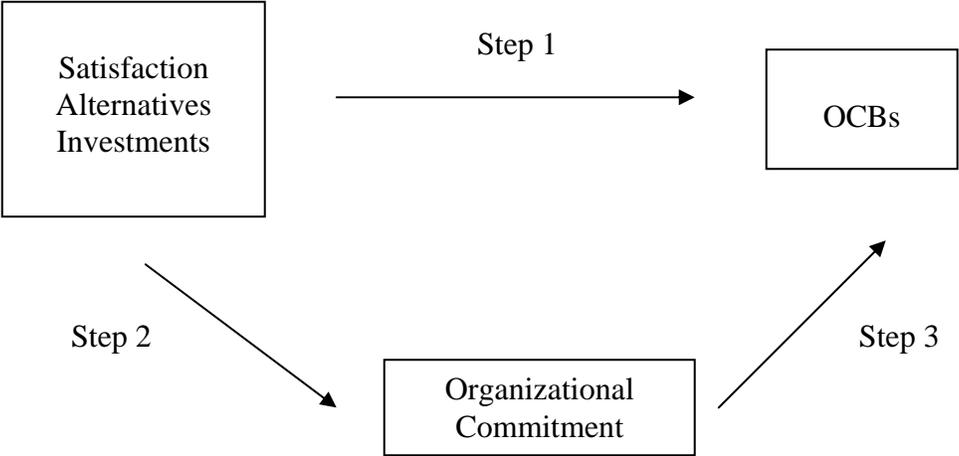


Figure 2. A visual representation of the conditions necessary to proceed with Hypothesis 5 and test a mediational model.