

COMMITMENT AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

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Abstract

This article evaluated the natures of professional and organizational commitment in a sample of both elementary and secondary teachers. Also examined was the relationship of both commitment and perceived organizational support to a variety of self-reported attitudes and behavior possibilities. The author deals with the topic in a comprehensive manner.

The body of literature in industrial/organizational psychology represents a potentially fruitful domain of theory and research that may be applied to understanding the relationship between teachers and the schools in which they are employed. Work within this perspective includes the constructs of organizational commitment and perceived organizational support, both of which focus on the connection between an individual employee and the organization or profession with which he or she is associated. Although numerous studies testify to the potentially positive organizational benefits of these variables, questions about the influence of commitment and perceived organizational support within a professional population remain. The present study evaluated the nature of professional and organizational commitment in a sample of both elementary and secondary school teachers, and examined the relationship of both commitment and perceived organizational support to a variety of self-reported attitudes and behavioral possibilities.

Organizational Commitment

Possibly the most thoroughly investigated approach to organizational commitment is the perspective advanced by Mowday and his colleagues, which emphasizes the employee's affective bond with the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). This viewpoint asserts that organizational commitment is characterized by (a) "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 27). Research within this perspective has tended to focus on individual

differences as antecedents of commitment, revealing that factors such as age and organizational tenure are positively correlated with commitment, whereas level of education is negatively related (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977). Research utilizing this affective approach to commitment has also frequently revealed an inverse relationship between commitment and turnover intention (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974) as well as a positive relationship between commitment and regular employee attendance (Steers, 1977). Unfortunately, commitment has historically been found to exert little direct influence on actual work performance, although lessened turnover intention and consistent attendance are themselves critically important pro-organizational attitudes and actions (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Organizational antecedents of commitment have also been the focus of considerable attention, with various facets of the organizational culture seen as capable of enhancing or detracting from the employee's bond with the organization. One study from this domain assessed organizational value orientation and its relationship with organizational commitment among teachers (Reyes & Pounder, 1993). According to Gross and Etzioni (1985), three different classifications of organizational value orientation are possible. Coercive organizations use physical threats to control employee behavior, whereas utilitarian organizations use material rewards (e.g., salary increases) to influence employees. Normative organizations manipulate symbolic rewards (e.g., employee recognition, access to special opportunities) to guide employees, and also allow for the largest degree of employee involvement (Gross & Etzioni, 1985). Reyes and Pounder (1993) found greater teacher commitment, as well as greater job satisfaction, among teachers who worked in schools maintaining a normative as opposed to a utilitarian value approach.

Finally, some research on commitment has focused upon the influence of other salient work experiences, such as the leadership style to which an employee is exposed (Morris & Sherman, 1981). Positive correlations exist between commitment and both leader initiating structure and leader consideration. This relationship is evident in school settings as well, with supportive principal behaviors such as feedback, acknowledgement, and collaborative problem solving correlated with higher levels of organizational commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Rosenholtz, 1989).

An effort to expand the concept of commitment has resulted in the increasing popularity of a tricomponent model developed by Meyer and Allen (1988). In addition to an affective component similar to that advanced by Mowday and his colleagues (1982), the tricomponent approach maintains that continuance and normative commitment are also part of an overall attitudinal commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1988), continuance commitment is predicated upon the employee's pragmatic assessment of the costs and benefits of remaining with a given organization, and normative commitment is based upon feelings of moral obligation or responsibility *vis-a-vis* the employing organization. As Allen and Meyer (1990) have stated, "Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 3).

Much of the work within the tricomponent approach to date has centered upon the development of reliable measurement instruments and upon the structure and antecedents of the three aspects of commitment, with relatively little research focusing upon the behavioral outcomes associated with the different commitments. Some research, however, has demonstrated that affective commitment may correlate positively and continuance commitment may correlate negatively with job performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989).

The tricomponent approach may also provide a way of understanding the structure and nature of professional commitment, given that the bond between an individual and his or her identified profession may develop in a similar fashion to the bond between that person and his or her employing organization. Working with a sample of nurses and nursing students, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) revealed factor analytic evidence suggesting that all three aspects of the tricomponent model yielded distinct factors for professional as well as organizational commitment. More recently, Irving, Coleman, and Cooper (1997) reported similar results for

the generalizability of the tricomponent model across a variety of occupational categories, including executive, technical, and clerical employees. In a similar vein, research with a group of students in the rehabilitation field (Speechley, Noh, & Beggs, 1993) and with certified public accountants (Gross & Fullager, 1996) has yielded results consistent with the extension of the tricomponent approach into the professional domain.

Perceived Organizational Support

Supportive leader behaviors and a generally facilitative organizational climate may be subsumed under a variable entitled "Perceived Organizational Support." Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) demonstrated that individuals tend to "form global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (p. 504). Specifically, individuals evaluate the behavior of organizational agents towards them and infer the general motive underlying that treatment, with the categories that are considered important varying considerably between organizations and between persons. Some individuals might base their sense of perceived organizational support (POS) upon such factors as the organization members' willingness to provide them with special assistance or special equipment in order to complete a project. Others might develop a strong sense of POS based upon the organization members' willingness to provide them with additional opportunities for training in an area that was of particular interest to them. Furthermore, employees are frequently sensitive to relevant environmental and organizational constraints that might limit the ability to provide them with desired rewards (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997). For example, a teacher who is aware that district cut-backs preclude the opportunity to attend a professional seminar would be unlikely to suffer a loss of POS as a result.

Employees who experience a strong level of POS theoretically feel the need to reciprocate favorable organizational treatment with attitudes and behaviors that in turn benefit the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In support of this social exchange perspective, research has revealed that POS is positively related to job attendance and measures of job performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), the tendency to help coworkers (Shore & Wayne, 1993), the tendency to offer constructive suggestions for organizational improvement, and affective organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Overall, it appears that employees with higher levels of POS are likely to be more committed and possibly more willing to engage in extra role or "organizational citizenship" behaviors (Organ, 1988) than are employees who feel that the organization does not value them as highly. Additionally, some work also suggests that POS may be beneficial to the individual as well as to the organization. In a study of nurses caring for AIDS patients, George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, and Fielding (1993) found that both POS and social support moderated the relationship between extent of exposure to AIDS patients and negative mood, such that those with the lowest levels of POS evidenced the strongest relationship between mood and exposure.

Commitment in a Professional Population

Overall, the evidence continues to accrue for the validity of the tricomponent approach in conceptualizing both organizational and professional commitment. An important caveat, however, concerns the fact that the participant samples in the studies to date have not consisted of individuals involved in strongly professionalized occupations. Although the empirical work so far would suggest that employees view commitment to the organization and their commitment to the profession as distinct entities, there could plausibly be differences in the way in which professional persons, including teachers, perceive the construct. Furthermore,

although the preponderance of evidence in the organizational literature would suggest that organizational commitment and professional commitment are not inherently incompatible (Wallace, 1993), there are still unique aspects of the teaching profession that would make such simple generalizations as to the nature of the relationship between the commitments unwise.

Relevant to the present discussion is the seminal work of sociologist Richard Hall (1968), which represents one of the most complete theoretical treatments of professionalism, and of the distinction between professional and non-professional personnel. The “professional model” described by Hall classifies the attributes of professionalism into both structural and attitudinal categories. In the structural category are such factors as the educational qualifications one must attain in order to join the occupation (i.e., college degree, teaching certificate) as well as the existence of a professional organization that individuals may elect to join. Attitudinal characteristics are somewhat more difficult to operationalize, but include the “sense of calling” that an individual experiences relative to his or her occupation.

Implicit in Hall’s (1968) model is the notion that professionals should be free to exercise autonomous judgment and decision making in their work, attitudes which by definition would be incompatible with a hierarchical, bureaucratic organizational structure. Hall found that educators generally perceived their organizations as highly bureaucratic, while his research also revealed that teachers were one of the most “strongly professionalized” occupational groups. It is precisely this combination of attributes that could potentially result in a conflict between professional and organizational interests, making the nature of commitment among educators an important topic for empirical investigation.

The present work therefore examines the nature of professional and organizational commitment in a sample of primary and secondary school educators, and unlike previous work in the area, extends the increasingly popular tricomponent model of organizational commitment into a highly professionalized occupational domain. Specifically, the research seeks to determine if any conflict exists between simultaneous commitment to the profession and to the employing organization or if the two types of commitment are in this case compatible. In addition, the research further examines the influence of perceived organizational support within this population, seeking to determine the relationship of perceived organizational support to commitment, self-reported interest in professional behaviors, and positive or negative daily mood at work.

Method

Sample

The participants in this study were a group of full time educators in grades kindergarten through 12, employed in five public school districts in New Jersey (N = 251). In order to recruit participants, letters of introduction describing the project were mailed to superintendents in all public school districts containing at least one elementary, one middle, and one high school, and that were located in the counties of Atlantic, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Gloucester, Monmouth, Ocean, and Salem. The districts were selected in order to maximize the possibility of obtaining an adequately large sample, and also because of their geographical location relative to the principal investigator. The relevant names and addresses were generated by consulting the list published by the New Jersey Department of Education in Trenton, New Jersey. Letters to superintendents were followed up by personal phone calls, and meetings with administrators and union personnel were scheduled when requested. The process ultimately resulted in the participation of faculty from five districts.

Procedure

The principal investigator received permission from the five cooperating districts to present a brief talk about the project to faculty members at regularly scheduled faculty meetings. After the presentation, questionnaires and consent forms ensuring confidentiality were distributed to all faculty members who voluntarily agreed to participate. A total of 700 questionnaires were distributed among schools in the five cooperating districts. So as not to violate agreements of confidentiality, separate envelopes were provided for the return of the questionnaire and the consent form. Due to lack of time, district leaders did not allow participating faculty members to complete the questionnaire at the faculty meeting. A collection box for the questionnaires was therefore placed in the school office, and questionnaires were picked up weekly throughout the following month by the principal investigator. Reminder mailings were sent to participating schools for distribution to faculty three weeks after the initial questionnaire was handed out. Ultimately, a total of 250 one viable questionnaires were returned, representing an overall return rate of 36%.

Measures

Except as noted below, all scales utilized a 7-point Likert-type format (0 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree). The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) was used to assess levels of perceived organizational support. Factor analytic evidence from previous studies suggested that this survey forms a single factor and possesses adequate internal reliability (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990). The 12 items with the highest factor coefficients were employed in the present study. These items are presented in Figure 1.

Perceived Organizational Support Scale

1. (Name of school) strongly considers my goals and values.
2. (Name of school) really cares about my well-being.
3. (Name of school) disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me. (R)
4. (Name of school) takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
5. Even if I did the best job possible, (name of school) would fail to notice. (R)
6. If given the opportunity, (name of school) would take unfair advantage of me. (R)
7. (Name of school) is willing to help me if I need a special favor.
8. (Name of school) would ignore any complaint from me. (R)
9. (Name of school) values my contributions to its well-being.
10. If (name of school) could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so. (R)
11. (Name of school) would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.
12. (Name of school) shows little concern for me. (R)

Figure 1: The 12 Items With the Highest Factor Coefficients

Following Eisenberger et al. (1990), affective commitment to the organization was measured using seven items from Meyer and Allen's (1984) affective commitment scale and two items from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Porter et al., 1974). These items were selected because they seem most clearly to approximate the feelings of liking for, pride in, and valuation of organizational membership assumed to underlie the affective form of organizational commitment. The organizational forms of continuance commitment and normative commitment were measured using the continuance and normative commitment scales developed by Meyer and Allen (1988, 1990). The reader

is referred to Allen and Meyer (1990) for a full discussion of the development and factor analysis of the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales. Items from each of the scales may be found in Figure 2.

NOTE: The words “profession” or “chosen profession” were substituted for the name of the school when assessing affective, continuance, and normative professional commitment. In some cases, a slight change in sentence structure was also necessary.

Affective Organizational Commitment

1. I do not feel like part of a family at (name of school). (R)
2. I feel emotionally attached to (name of school).
3. Working at (name of school) has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
4. I feel a strong sense of belonging to (name of school).
5. (Name of school) does not deserve my loyalty. (R)
6. I am proud to tell others that I work at (name of school).
7. I would be happy to work at (name of school) until I retire.
8. I really feel that any problems faced by (name of school) are also my problems.
9. I enjoy discussing (name of school) with people outside of it.

Continuance Organizational Commitment

1. I am not concerned about what might happen if I left (name of school) without having another position lined up.
2. It would be very hard for me to leave (name of school) right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave (name of school) now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave (name of school) now.
5. Right now, staying with (name of school) is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (R)
6. One of the few, serious consequences of leaving (name of school) would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
7. One of the reasons I continue to work for (name of school) is that leaving would require considerable sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Normative Organizational Commitment

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with (name of school). (R)
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave (name of school) now.
3. I would feel guilty if I left (name of school) now.
4. (Name of school) deserves my loyalty.
5. It would be wrong to leave (name of school) right now because of my obligation to the people in it.
6. I owe a great deal to (name of school).

Figure 2: Items from the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales

For purposes of examining the extension of the tricomponent model of commitment, the above noted affective, continuance, and normative commitment scales were reworded so as to pertain to professional rather than organizational membership. (For some questions, this necessitated a change in the sentence structure in addition to the substitution of the word “profession” for the word “commitment”).

Positive and negative daily mood at work was measured by the Job Affect Scale (Brief, Burke, George, Robinson, & Webster, 1988). Six items on this scale measure positive mood on a typical day at work, (e.g., active, enthusiastic, elated), whereas four items reflect negative mood on a typical day at work (e.g., tense, worried, upset).

The district leaders involved in the study were unable to provide the principal investigator with performance data on participants. Therefore, participants were asked about their willingness to engage in a variety of professional activities that could be construed as “organizational citizenship” behaviors by requiring individuals to go beyond the activities required by

their job descriptions (Organ, 1988). These activities included willingness to engage in collaborative teaching, collaborative planning, curriculum writing, and bringing educational innovations into the classroom.

Results

Principal components analysis was utilized in order to examine the nature of commitment within the sample population. A form of factor analysis, principal components analysis mathematically seeks commonalities between responses to questionnaire items, allowing the researcher to group psychologically similar items together. In the current context, performing a principal components analysis of commitment items allows conclusions to be made concerning the distinctiveness or similarity of the items (herein called factors). As noted previously, recent research with individuals in other occupational categories has revealed the existence of clearly delineated and separate factors for both the organizational and professional forms of affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 1993). If similar results were to pertain with the present sample, it could be concluded that teachers also make a distinction between commitment to the organization and commitment to their profession from both an affective, continuance, and normative perspective.

However, principal components analysis of the present data revealed three composite factors for affective, normative, and continuance commitment as opposed to the separate and distinct factors for professional and organizational commitment that have previously been noted. Teachers in the current sample did not distinguish between the profession and the organization when thinking about various aspects of commitment. Within the present sample, it can therefore be concluded that organizational commitment and professional commitment are quite compatible; in fact, they are empirically indistinguishable. All other analyses therefore utilized these “composite” constructs of commitment.

The relationship between perceived organizational support and the various forms of commitment was next examined. Consistent with previous literature, POS evidenced a strong positive correlation with affective commitment ($r = .597, p = .001$). Individuals who felt valued and supported by their organizations were in this case more emotionally attached to the organization and to the profession as well. Also consistent with previous literature, a negative correlation was noted between POS and continuance commitment ($r = -.146, p = .024$), such that individuals with strong levels of POS were less likely to feel that they “had to” remain with the organization or with the teaching profession because of the lack of attractive alternatives or due to the disruption in their life that leaving would involve. Finally, a positive correlation between POS and normative commitment was found ($r = .362, p = .000$), suggesting that individuals who feel supported by their organization also feel morally obligated to remain with that organization and with the teaching profession.

Analysis of the relationship between POS and daily mood at work revealed a negative correlation between POS and negative daily mood ($r = -.251, p = .001$), such that teachers who felt more strongly valued by their organization experienced a lessened tendency to feel anxious, stressed or tense in their daily work life. As expected, a positive correlation between POS and positive daily mood was also observed ($r = .344, p = .001$), indicating that teachers who feel more valued also feel greater levels of enthusiasm and excitement in their daily life at work.

Finally, the relationship between POS, affective commitment, and self-reported interest in a variety of professional activities was examined (affective commitment was included in the analyses due to its strong positive correlation with POS). Recall that objective behavioral data were not available from the districts sampled, so professional behaviors that could be construed as akin to organizational citizenship behaviors were employed as dependent measures. A series of simultaneous multiple regression analyses were performed, in which affective commitment and POS were regressed on the various self-report measures. Individual regression analyses were also conducted using affective commitment and POS by themselves, due to the significant correlation between the variables. Overall, results indicated that it was affective commitment, and not perceived organizational support, that typically exerted a main effect on the measures. The results supported the previously observed effects of affective commitment, such that higher commitment people exhibited a greater desire to become involved in these professional behaviors. (Please note that except for the analyses concerning an individual’s willingness to offer suggestions for organizational improvement, a negative beta indicates a greater level of interest in the behavior due to the way in which the questions were constructed; an alpha level of .05 was used as the level of significance in all regression analyses.)

Considering the level of interest in the writing of a curriculum, simultaneous regression analysis revealed a main effect of affective commitment ($\beta = -.199$), whereas the effect of POS was not significant ($\beta = -.147, ns$). Individual regression analyses revealed a similar effect, wherein only affective commitment had a significant relationship to expressed interest in writing a curriculum ($\beta = -.147$). Concerning interest in collaborative planning, simultaneous regression analysis revealed that once again affective commitment exerted a main effect ($\beta = -.334$), while POS did not ($\beta = .139, ns$). Individual regression analyses revealed an effect of affective commitment only ($\beta = -.251$), such that individuals with relatively higher levels of affective commitment expressed a greater interest in collaborative planning.

A positive influence of affective commitment was also noted with respect to interest in collaborative teaching ($\beta = -.294$), whereas no main effect of POS was revealed. Individual regression analyses revealed that both affective commitment and POS were significantly related to interest in collaborative teaching ($\beta = -.279$; $\beta = -.150$, respectively). In this case, both individuals with relatively higher levels of POS and those with relatively higher levels of affective commitment were more likely to express an interest in collaborative teaching. Affective commitment also exerted a positive influence on expressed interest in incorporating educational innovations into one's teaching ($\beta = -.214$), whereas POS was not significant. Individual regression analyses echoed these results, with only affective commitment significantly related to interest in incorporating educational innovations in the classroom ($\beta = -.150$).

Overall, the results are consistent with the generally beneficial influence of affective commitment on pro-organizational behaviors, although the results obtained with perceived organizational support are inconsistent compared with previous findings.

Discussion

Taken together, the results of the present study suggested that elementary and secondary school teachers maintain an integrated view of commitment, considering both their employing organization and their profession as a whole when contemplating their relationship to their work. Unlike previous research populations evidencing a clear distinction between commitment to the profession and commitment to the organization, the teachers herein make no such delineation. Possibly, teachers view their commitment to their organization and to their profession as essentially the same due to the fact that their employing organizations require them to daily perform the professional duties for which they were trained. Unlike individuals in a variety of other occupations who may not have the opportunity to use the professional skills they have acquired on a regular basis, teachers first and foremost are actively engaged in the very behaviors that define their professional role. Thus, it is likely that they view the activity and profession of teaching as intimately intertwined with the setting in which they perform that activity.

The integrated constructs of commitment found in the present study suggested that no discernable conflict exists between professional and organizational commitment within the current sample population. Although Hall (1968) did not perform an empirical study of this potential conflict with teachers, he did suggest that they might experience such a problem due to the simultaneous demands placed upon them by both professional dedication and administrative bureaucracy. The current results suggest that this may not necessarily be the case, perhaps due to changes in the teaching profession and within the schools themselves over the past several decades. It is possible that what was true at the time of Hall's writing is no longer the case, with teachers today experiencing a greater opportunity for flexibility and policy input than was available to them 30 years ago.

Another possibility, and one that raises an empirical question, is the notion that teachers may form a commitment to their profession relatively early in their training, given that most are required to undergo several professional socialization experiences, such as practicum or student teaching. An individual who is already committed to a professional identity and who knows what he or she is seeking in an organization might therefore be more likely to accept employment only with a district in which they know that their professional orientation will be appreciated and encouraged. Thus, it may be that the overlap of professional and organizational commitment seen here is the result of a self-selection process, with teachers who have some pre-existing level of professional commitment seeking a "good fit" with a school or district that will meet their needs for professional expression and to which they then develop a similar degree of organizational commitment.

Regarding the influence of perceived organizational support, the results of the present research revealed that perceived organizational support was associated with a greater tendency to experience a positive daily mood at work, as well as a lessened tendency to experience negative feelings such as tension or stress on a daily basis. These results suggested that teachers who feel valued by their organization, and who feel that they can depend upon the organization for support are more excited and enthusiastic on a daily basis than those who do not experience such support. Although as stated previously, the organizational actions and resources that lead to a strong level of POS vary between individuals, it would appear that schools providing adequate support to their teachers are rewarded in kind with teachers who enter the classroom with a more positive daily mood. This is particularly important given the emotional and intellectual demands of teaching, and given the social or disciplinary challenges frequently encountered. It seems plausible that a strong level of POS could help to "buffer" a teacher from these challenges on a daily basis and help him or her to cope more effectively with them.

Finally, the results concerning self-reported interest in professional activities were somewhat curious in that they indicate a dominant effect of affective commitment over perceived organizational support on a variety of dimensions. Conversely, some previous research (albeit with a largely non-professional sample) has suggested that POS explains a greater

proportion of the variance in such organizational citizenship behaviors than does affective commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993). In the present study, the only professional activity significantly related to both affective commitment and perceived organizational support was expressed interest in collaborative teaching; all other interest variables were significantly related to affective commitment alone. A possible explanation for this result could be that participants viewed collaborative teaching as a professional activity requiring more organizational resources for implementation when compared with the other behavioral possibilities presented (e.g., writing curriculum, collaborative planning, and incorporating educational innovations into one's teaching). Thus, teachers with strong levels of perceived organizational support might view their administration as more likely to provide the resources necessary for effective collaborative teaching than would teachers who do not feel as supported by their districts.

A shortcoming of the present study was the fact that objective behavioral measures were unavailable for examination as dependent variables. Although information about teacher performance and attendance is understandably sensitive, future research would benefit from the opportunity to access such data in order to examine further the beneficial influence of commitment and perceived organizational support on teacher attitudes and behavior. Also, it is possible that the generalizability of results from this study was hindered by the fact that a random sample was ultimately not employed. However, even if the absolute values of perceived organizational support and commitment should vary between individuals or between schools, the relationships between the variables should remain unaffected, thus allowing conclusions to be drawn.

The results of the present study suggested that administrators should take the time to discover the organizational resources that individual teachers value and take measures to provide such resources where possible. Relevant constraints on the distribution of rewards and resources should be communicated to teachers, so that they are aware of those that are under the discretionary control of the organization and those that are not. Such actions on the part of administration would contribute to a strong sense of perceived organizational support among teachers, with its attendant benefits. Overall, this research suggested that administrators who take steps to support their employees and to effectively communicate that support should reap the benefits of teachers who are strongly committed both to the organization and to their profession, and who are willing to "go the extra mile" for their students and their schools.

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