

MANAGING THE DRIVERS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND SALESPERSON EFFORT: AN APPLICATION OF MEYER AND ALLEN'S THREE-COMPONENT MODEL

Frank Q. Fu, Willy Bolander, and Eli Jones

This study extends the literature by utilizing a three-component organizational commitment measure to identify ways for managers to drive salesperson effort. Using social exchange theory and survey data from industrial salespeople, an analysis reveals that perceived organizational support (POS) has a strong positive effect on affective commitment, no significant effect on normative commitment, and a negative effect on continuance commitment. Further, the findings show that only one component of organizational commitment—*affective commitment*—has a positive direct effect on sales effort, whereas normative and continuance commitment do not. However, normative commitment plays a supporting role as it positively moderates the relationship between affective commitment and effort. In addition, the study indicates that job satisfaction has positive effects on both affective and normative commitment, but no significant effect on continuance commitment.

Organizational researchers and managers pay special attention to employees' organizational commitment based on the belief that organizations with committed employees achieve superior long-term performance (Bentein et al. 2005; Jaros et al. 1993; Luchak and Gellatly 2007). Over the decades, studies involving organizational commitment have also been pervasive in sales research (Brown and Peterson 1993; Chonko 1986; Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander 2006). This research focus is understandable, as a recent meta-analysis indicated that the positive relationship between organizational commitment and job performance is stronger for salespeople than for nonsales employees (Jaramillo, Mulki, and Marshall 2005). This notion echoes Pierce and Dunham's (1987) observation that organizational commitment is more important in jobs that are complex, require adaptability, and demand initiatives, all of which are characteristics of personal selling (Sager and Johnston 1989). From a practical standpoint, the importance of organizational commitment is implicated by a report released by HR Chally that indicates that the replacement cost of an

experienced salesperson with average performance ranges from \$40,000 to \$60,000 (Stevens 2003).

More interestingly for managers, there also have been a number of studies indicating that employees' perceived organizational support (POS), a variable that management can certainly influence, has a positive effect on organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al. 1986; Maertz et al. 2007; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). These findings seem intuitive, and perhaps even obvious, until you compare them with some interesting results from Sager (1999). Sager notes:

Salespeople . . . expressed dismay at "lack of attention from upper management," "lack of caring on the part of upper management," "upper management's failure to get input from the field," and "upper management's over-concern with the 'almighty buck.'" . . . Despite this negativity . . . salespeople reflected a fairly high level of commitment to the company. (Sager 1999, p. 63)

The question then becomes, how can we explain these conflicting findings?

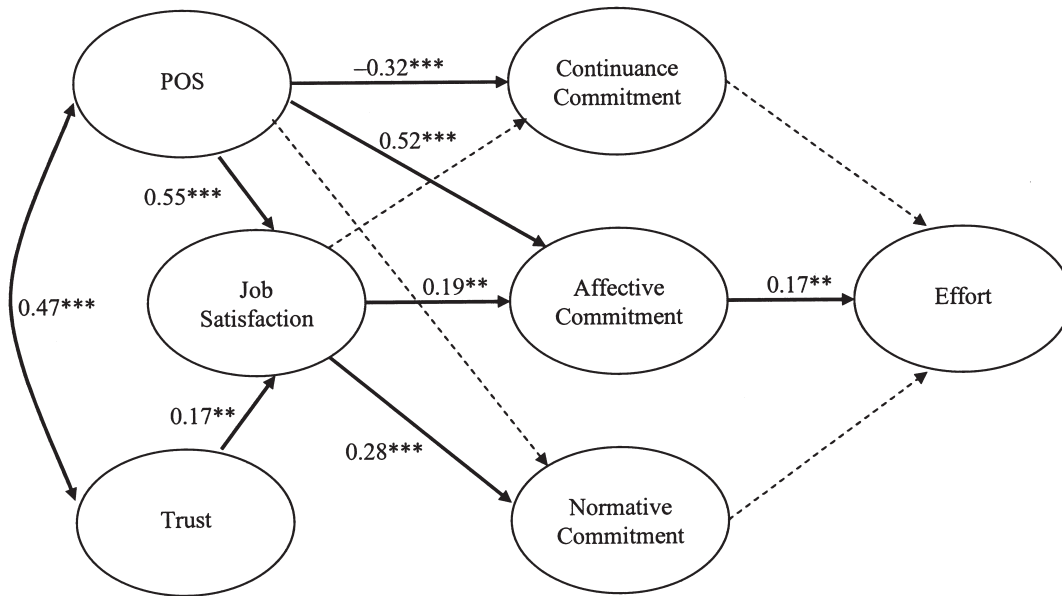
One possible explanation is that salespeople are simply different from traditional employees. They are independent, self-reliant, and typically distal from the organization. They operate as boundary spanners (Singh 1993) and enjoy a great deal of empowerment and autonomy. In many cases, it is not appropriate to assume that a relationship that has been researched regarding in-house employees will hold true for salespeople. Moreover, because salespeople spend a great deal of their time in the field, research on their

Frank Q. Fu (Ph.D., University of Houston), Assistant Professor of Marketing, College of Business Administration, University of Missouri-St. Louis, St. Louis, MO, fuf@umsl.edu.

Willy Bolander (B.B.A., Kennesaw State University), Ph.D. Candidate, C.T. Bauer College of Business, University of Houston, Houston, TX, wbolander@uh.edu.

Eli Jones (Ph.D., Texas A&M University), E.J. Ourso Distinguished Professor of Business and Dean, E.J. Ourso College of Business, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA, elijones@lsu.edu.

Figure 1
Conceptual Model and Results



Notes: All coefficients are standardized. Dotted lines represent relationships that were hypothesized but not supported. ** = 0.05; *** = 0.01.

commitment carries a certain sense of urgency and importance. The last thing a company wants is an uncommitted salesperson who is not afraid to share his or her discontent with customers.

Another possible explanation is that organizational commitment has traditionally been measured as a unidimensional construct (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982; Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979). However, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a three-component model, consisting of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. They define affective commitment as being based on one's values, with normative commitment based on obligation, and continuance commitment based on calculation of costs and benefits. They argue that these components are differentially linked to variables as antecedents and consequents (Meyer, Allen, and Smith 1993). The three-component model has received considerable interest from organizational researchers and has been tested in a variety of empirical settings (Bentein et al. 2005; Lok, Westwood, and Crawford 2005; Snape and Redman 2003). However, it has not been examined within our nomological network.

This fact is important because, according to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), the different components of organizational commitment will have differential effects on other variables, such as attitudes or behaviors. We offer three

primary contributions. First, given the importance of organizational commitment to sales force management, this study examines the value of decomposing commitment into its three components in a sales context and enriches our understanding of this important construct. Second, we investigate the nomological validity of the organizational commitment construct by examining some of its antecedents and consequences.

As shown in Figure 1, we test the impact of organizational commitment on an important behavioral consequence—salesperson's effort. In addition, we include POS, trust in supervisor, and job satisfaction as antecedents. It is common in extant research to find these variables linked in some way in sales force research, but they have not yet been examined in light of the three-component organizational commitment model (Brown and Peterson 1994; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). Based on a literature review, intuitive reasoning, and drawing insight from social exchange theory (Blau 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005), we expect the directions and relative strengths of these relationships to differ among components (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001). Third, we emphasize the managerial implications of this study to help managers create value for their companies and their employees. Of specific interest are the activities that managers can engage in to facilitate salesperson commitment, effort, or both. Given that the three components

are likely to have differential relationships with variables in our nomological network, it is important for managers to understand the differences between components in order to make appropriate decisions regarding the management of salespeople. We believe that our findings are meaningful for managers and researchers alike.

BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

A well-accepted definition of organizational commitment is the extent to which an employee identifies with the firm and its goals (Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979). In other words, employees emotionally attach to their organization as they come to believe in its values and vision (Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander 2006). As pointed out by Commeiras and Fournier (2001), however, this definition only reflects the affective dimension of organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) extended the literature by adding another dimension to the framework—that is, continuance commitment. However, even this approach was open to improvement, as was subsequently shown by Allen and Meyer (1990).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), the three-component model captures the affective attachment, perceived costs, and perceived obligation aspects of organizational commitment. As identified by Mowday, Porter, and Steers, affective commitment is

a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. (1982, p. 27)

In contrast, continuance commitment is

the outcome of an individual's decision to remain with an organization because of the personal time and resources already devoted to the company and because of the financial costs of changing jobs. (Commeiras and Fournier 2001, p. 239)

In addition, normative commitment is defined as the

totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests. (Wiener 1982, p. 421)

The three-component model suggests that an employee can experience different levels of all three forms of commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990). Further, Meyer and Allen (1991) hypothesized that there might be differences in the way other variables were associated with affective, continuance, and normative commitment. This notion has

received empirical support focused on a variety of settings (Bentein et al. 2005; Lok, Westwood, and Crawford 2005; Snape and Redman 2003). For example, in the marketing literature, Gruen, Summers, and Acito found that “the three components of commitment differed in their antecedents and consequences” (2000, p. 46). However, organizational commitment is typically measured as a single construct in the sales literature (Agarwal and Ramaswami 1993; Amyx and Alford 2005). In this study, we focus on the relationships between salespeople's job satisfaction, POS, trust in supervisor, effort, and the three forms of organizational commitment.

Salesperson Effort

Effort represents the “force, energy or activity by which work is accomplished” (Brown and Peterson 1994, p. 71) and has been recognized as one of the pivotal constructs in sales force and organizational behavior research (Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977). Bagozzi (1992) argues that sales effort is a behavioral outcome of salespeople's organizational commitment. Furthermore, the link between salesperson effort and performance is well established, as Brown and Peterson refer to it as the “mechanism by which motivation is translated into accomplished work” (1994, p. 71). Although little research has explored the impact of normative commitment or continuance commitment on effort, the positive affective commitment–effort relationship has been established in the sales literature. For example, Ingram, Lee, and Skinner (1989) proposed that salespeople's effort is positively related to their levels of affective organizational commitment. The idea was straightforward: affectively committed employees are more likely to exert effort on behalf of the organization as they see the organization's gain as their own (Jaramillo, Mulki, and Marshall 2005). In fact, one facet of the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) instrument developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter addresses individuals' “willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization” (1979, p. 226). For the benefit of the organization, committed employees are willing to spend more time and a higher intensity of effort on work. As affective commitment represents the employees' emotional attachment to and identification with the organization, the higher level of effort is consistent with their strong desire to remain part of the organization.

Although employees who have normative and continuance commitment also have a desire to maintain employment, the extent to which they are willing to exert effort would be different from those who are affectively

committed. According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), different forms of commitment are accompanied by different mind-sets, which in turn have differential behavioral implications. In particular, they argued that, “compared to normative and continuance commitment, affective commitment (a) correlates significantly with a wider range of outcome measures and (b) correlates more strongly with any given outcome measure” (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, p. 311). According to social exchange theory, normative commitment is based on the norm of reciprocity where, based on the organization’s actions, the salesperson feels that there is a particular way that he or she should behave (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). This is influenced not only by the normative culture within the company, but also by the norms of the salesperson’s culture as a whole. Although this feeling of obligation to the organization (i.e., normative commitment) should lead to higher effort levels, the positive relationship between affective commitment and sales effort is expected to be stronger than that existing between normative commitment and sales effort.

Few studies have investigated the relationship of continuance commitment to sales effort; however, we expect the relationship to be negative. Because continuance commitment is based on the calculation of cost and benefit, it is least likely to correlate positively with sales effort (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001). Among other aspects of employee behavior, service quality and intention to participate in professional activities were proposed to be negatively related to continuance commitment (Malhotra and Mukherjee 2003; Snape and Redman 2003). A high continuance commitment implies that an individual stays in an organization simply because he or she has no better option. If a better opportunity presents itself, the individual would be likely to leave the organization (McNeilly and Russ 1992). From a social exchange perspective, an individual who relates to an organization only by calculated benefits is less likely to exert effort in supporting that organization (Blau 1964). This focus on calculated benefits is also in line with Meeker’s (1971) discussion of rationality as a rule for interpersonal exchange. According to Meeker, rationality refers to an analysis of ends and means. The term *rationality*, as it is commonly used in economics, brings to mind an employee wanting to make the most efficient use of his or her effort. Likely, this will involve putting forth the minimum amount of effort required to maintain employment. Because this minimum effort level is unknown, effort should decrease as employees test for the lower bound. Finding differences in the relationships among the three types of commitment and effort would

allow sales managers to interpret varying levels of effort across their employees, and it could illustrate that not all components of commitment have similar effects. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: All three components of organizational commitment contribute uniquely to predicting effort, but the nature of their contributions is different. Specifically, of the three components, (a) affective commitment is the strongest positive predictor of effort, (b) normative commitment is a positive predictor of effort, and (c) continuance commitment is a negative predictor of effort.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke 1976, p. 1300). Johnston et al. (1990) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, meta-analytic findings based on 59 empirical studies indicated that “organizational commitment is primarily a consequence, rather than an antecedent, of job satisfaction” (Brown and Peterson 1993, p. 72). Noticeably, in all of these studies, the authors were referring to affective commitment. In contrast, the relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction has not been systematically investigated in the sales literature, although it is intuitively expected to be positive.

Among the few studies investigating the relationships between job satisfaction and continuance commitment, Barksdale et al. (2003) found that salespeople’s satisfaction with the organization is positively related to their continuance commitment. In a retailing context, Lee and Gao (2005) examined the relationships between continuance commitment and three specific aspects of job satisfaction—that is, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with team, and satisfaction with the leader. For two of the three types of job satisfaction, the relationships are significant and positive. However, none of the authors statistically compared the relative strength of the impact of affective and continuance commitment. Meanwhile, social exchange theory would imply that, based on Meeker’s (1971) rationality, continuance commitment should increase as job satisfaction increases. This is because, in the comparison of costs to benefits, if the employee leaves the firm, he or she not only sacrifice a paycheck, but also his or her job satisfaction. Social exchange theory’s reciprocity is useful for theoretically validating the expected positive relationship between job

satisfaction and normative commitment (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005).

Although job satisfaction is expected to be positively related to all three forms of organizational commitment, the relative strength of these relationships may vary. Job satisfaction has been defined as both an attitude and an affective state (Brown and Peterson 1993; Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974). According to Allen and Meyer (1990), affective commitment refers to an individual's emotional attachment to the organization. As both job satisfaction and affective commitment share an attitudinal nature, we expect the relationship between them to be positive and strong. In contrast, normative commitment refers to an individual's feelings of obligation to stay with the organization, whereas continuance commitment arises from calculating benefits and costs of staying with the organization. Job satisfaction may evoke normative commitment (due to the reciprocity norm) and continuance commitment (due to perceived benefits). However, the impact is indirect and should be weaker than that from affective commitment. An understanding of the relative strengths of these relationships will be useful for managers to better understand where to focus efforts to satisfy employees and what results can be reasonably expected if satisfaction is increased. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction is related to all three components of organizational commitment. Specifically, of the three components, (a) affective commitment has the strongest positive relationship with job satisfaction, (b) normative commitment has a positive relationship with job satisfaction, and (c) continuance commitment has a positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support is defined as employees' perception regarding the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares for their well-being (Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro 2001). A positive relationship between POS and affective commitment is predicted by both organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al. 1986) and social exchange theory (Blau 1964). As employees view favorable treatment of their organization as an indicator of the organization's benevolent orientation toward them, they tend to form an emotional attachment toward and identify with the organization—that is, develop affective commitment (Eisenberger et al. 1986). The existence of this relationship has been supported by numer-

ous studies (e.g., Allen, Shore, and Griffeth 1999; Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli 2001).

In contrast, POS may reduce continuance commitment that occurs when employees stay with an organization simply because the costs of leaving are too high (Shore and Tetrick 1991). Again, according to Meeker's (1971) rationality, the perceived benefits of working in an organization that cares about employees' contributions and well-being make cost considerations less important and feelings of entrapment less salient. Therefore, we expect POS to be negatively related to continuance commitment. In addition, POS may engender normative commitment. Due to the reciprocity norm, POS creates a felt obligation to care about the organization's well-being (Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro 2001). The obligation to exchange caring for caring thus enhances employees' normative commitment, which involves a sense of obligation to the organization (Blau 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Consequently, we expect the relationship between POS and normative commitment to be positive. However, because only affective commitment shares the attitudinal nature with POS, it should have the strongest relationship. The implication of testing for the direction and strength of these relationships is that managers will be able to understand how their support behaviors impact their salespeople's commitment levels and, indirectly, salesperson effort (H1). Therefore, we propose

Hypothesis 3: POS is related to all three components of organizational commitment. Specifically, of the three components, (a) affective commitment has the strongest positive relationship with POS, (b) normative commitment has a positive relationship with POS, and (c) continuance commitment has a negative relationship with POS.

Moreover, in the sales force management literature, Babakus et al. (1996) found POS to be an antecedent of job satisfaction. As job satisfaction represents employees' overall affect-laden attitude toward their job, POS contributes to overall job satisfaction by enhancing employees' perceived job security, increasing perceived expectancies, and signaling the availability of assistance from the organization when needed (Witt and Wilson 1991). POS may also contribute to employees' feelings of competence and worth, thus enhancing self-confidence and satisfaction with their job and potentially activating the norm of reciprocity (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). For managers, testing this relationship represents another possible method to indirectly influence salesperson effort. Therefore, we propose

Table 1
Salespeople Characteristics

| Demographic Category/Designation | Frequency | Percentage |
|----------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Female | 41 | 28.9 |
| Male | 100 | 70.4 |
| Not reported | 1 | 0.7 |
| Total | 142 | |
| Education | | |
| High school | 7 | 4.9 |
| Some college | 24 | 16.9 |
| Graduate college | 70 | 49.3 |
| Some graduate work | 15 | 10.6 |
| Graduate degree | 24 | 16.9 |
| Not reported | 2 | 1.4 |
| Total | 142 | |
| Age | | |
| 18–25 | 4 | 2.8 |
| 26–39 | 41 | 28.9 |
| 40–49 | 61 | 43.0 |
| 50–59 | 31 | 21.8 |
| > 60 | 4 | 2.8 |
| Not reported | 1 | 0.7 |
| Total | 142 | |
| Years of Sales Experience | | |
| < 1 year | 2 | 1.4 |
| 1–3 years | 11 | 7.7 |
| 4–6 years | 11 | 7.7 |
| 7–10 years | 24 | 16.9 |
| 11–14 years | 14 | 9.9 |
| 15–18 years | 27 | 19.0 |
| 19–21 years | 18 | 12.7 |
| 22–25 years | 18 | 12.7 |
| 26–29 years | 10 | 7.0 |
| > 30 years | 6 | 4.2 |
| Not reported | 1 | 0.7 |
| Total | 142 | |

Hypothesis 4: POS is a positive predictor of job satisfaction.

Trust in Supervisor

Trust in supervisor has been defined as

the degree to which the salesperson perceives the supervisor as benevolent and believes that the supervisor is genuinely interested in the salesperson's welfare and provides due care for his or her needs. (Atuahene-Gima and Li 2002, p. 63)

The positive relationship between trust in supervisor and job satisfaction has been empirically established in sales research (Flaherty and Pappas 2000; Mulki, Jaramillo, and

Locander 2006). Given the relevance of this relationship to sales managers, and with the intention to examine this relationship within a complete nomological network with all three components of organizational commitment, we propose

Hypothesis 5: Trust in supervisor is a positive predictor of job satisfaction.

METHOD

Sample and Data Collection

To test the hypotheses, we used salespeople working for a U.S.-based professional employer organization (PEO), a human resources (HR) service provider. The salespeople are responsible for selling HR services to small and medium-sized businesses throughout the nation. An online survey research firm was hired to administer the data collection. Before we posted the questionnaire, the vice president of sales sent e-mails to the sales force encouraging participation. To maximize the response rate, we highlighted confidentiality of the responses at the beginning and throughout the questionnaire. The effort resulted in a usable sample of 142 observations, which represents a 25 percent response rate.

The average age of the respondents was 43.10 years (standard deviation [SD] = 8.62), with a range from 19 years to 62 years; 28.9 percent were females and 70.4 percent were males. Their selling experience ranged from 6 months to 35 years, with a mean of 15.13 years and a standard deviation of 8.36 years. The number of years worked for the company ranged from 1 month to more than 28 years, with a mean of 5.38 years and a standard deviation of 6.69 years. Nearly 80 percent of the respondents have a college degree or above. The demographic variables of the 142 salespeople are reported in Table 1.

Measures

Organizational Commitment

We included three dimensions of organizational commitment in this study—*affective*, *continuance*, and *normative*. The items used were adapted from measures developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). Researchers often modify original scales to fit into their contexts (e.g., Bansal, Irving, and Taylor 2004; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich 2001). In the original organizational commitment scale, Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed eight items for each of the three dimensions. As an effort to increase our response rate, we reduced the number of items. Instead of eight items, we

selected four items each for the three organizational commitment dimensions. (One of the items of the continuance commitment scale was later removed due to low loading.) The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for each of the seven scales (including three types of organizational commitment) are provided in Table 2.

Salesperson Effort

Salesperson effort was measured by a three-item scale taken from Brown and Peterson (1994), which assesses salesperson's overall effort in the sales task, number of hours worked, and number of calls made. We asked salespeople to rate how they compared with others in the company on bipolar scales ranging from 1 "among the least in the company" to 7 "among the most in the company."

Job Satisfaction

We used the scale items developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) to measure job satisfaction. This measure was composed of three items scored on a 1–7 scale, with larger values associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each statement "as it relates to your feelings about your work."

Perceived Organizational Support

We used five items selected from the survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al. 1986). The items were selected to reflect two aspects of the construct—that is, the organization's valuation of the employee's contribution and care about employee's well-being (Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe 2003). Respondents rated their level of agreement with these statements as they related to their perceived support from the company.

Trust in Supervisor

We used the three-item scale taken from MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001), which is a modified version of a scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). According to MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich, the scale captures salespeople's perception of the "fairness and trustworthiness of their managers" (2001, p. 123). We asked the respondents to evaluate the extent to which they agreed with the statements relating to their feelings toward their sales managers. The items, loadings, and coefficient alphas are reported in Table 3.

Control Variables

To control for the potential effects of demographic variables, we included age, gender, sales experience, and education in the correlation table. As demonstrated in Table 2, most of the correlation coefficients are insignificant. Because none of the demographic variables are correlated with job satisfaction, work effort, or the three dimensions of commitment, we decided not to include them into the path model to focus on our main research questions.

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Assessment of Measurement Model

The model was analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM) with Amos 7.0 (Byrne 2001). As the first step, we investigated the dimensionality of organizational commitment (Snape and Redman 2003). We estimated and compared four models—that is, an independence model, a single-factor model, a two-factor model (with the affective and normative on one factor and the continuance items on another), and a three-factor model (Snape and Redman 2003). Following the literature, we allowed the factors to be correlated in the two- and three-factor models (Meyer, Allen, and Smith 1993). The results were similar to those of Snape and Redman (2003), as we found the three-factor model was superior to both the one- and two-factor models, based on fit indices. In addition, the change in χ^2 value from the two-factor model to the three-factor model was significant. The comparison of the four models is reported in Table 4.

We then specified and tested the seven-factor measurement model (confirmatory factor analysis [CFA]). All items had high loadings on their prespecified factors, indicating sufficient convergent validity (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). There were no significant cross-loadings and correlated errors. Next, we conducted χ^2 difference tests on the correlations between constructs. As all correlations differed significantly from 1.0, we found evidence of discriminant validity. In addition, the average variance extracted for each construct was greater than the recommended cutoff value of 0.5, suggesting that the variance captured by the construct is larger than the variance due to measurement error (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Based on these results, we concluded that the measurement exhibited adequate convergent and discriminant validity.

The measurement model had a good overall fit. The χ^2 statistic for the whole model was 321.65, with 254 degrees of freedom (df). The relative chi-square (χ^2/df) was less

Table 2
Intercorrelations, Reliabilities, and Descriptive Statistics

| | Mean | Standard Deviation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|------------------------------------|-------|--------------------|--------|---------|---------|---------|-------|-------|------|--------|-------|-------|
| 1 Trust in Supervisor | 5.54 | 1.71 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Perceived Organizational Support | 5.23 | 1.14 | 0.47** | 1.00 | | | | | | | | |
| 3 Job Satisfaction | 5.37 | 0.77 | 0.43** | 0.63** | 1.00 | | | | | | | |
| 4 Affective Commitment | 5.07 | 1.20 | 0.23** | 0.64** | 0.52** | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 5 Normative Commitment | 3.80 | 1.08 | 0.07 | 0.22** | 0.28** | 0.25** | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 6 Continuance Commitment | 2.57 | 1.22 | -0.13 | -0.32** | -0.25** | -0.24** | -0.06 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 7 Effort | 4.86 | 0.71 | -0.08 | 0.09 | 0.21** | 0.17** | 0.13 | -0.11 | 1.00 | | | |
| 8 Sales Experience | 15.13 | 8.37 | -0.03 | -0.17* | -0.04 | -0.16 | -0.05 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 1.00 | | |
| 9 Age | 43.10 | 8.62 | -0.03 | -0.16 | -0.05 | -0.09 | 0.06 | 0.08 | 0.02 | 0.55** | 1.00 | |
| 10 Gender | 1.71 | 0.46 | -0.18* | -0.02 | -0.12 | -0.07 | -0.10 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.22* | 0.17* | 1.00 |
| 11 Education | 3.18 | 1.07 | -0.03 | -0.04 | -0.12 | -0.058 | -0.13 | 0.05 | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.17* |

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Table 3
Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results (Measurement Model)

| | Loadings |
|---|----------|
| Trust in Supervisor ($\alpha = 0.94$) | |
| 1 I feel quite confident that my manager will always try to treat me fairly. | 0.93 |
| 2 My manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving his or her salespeople. | 0.88 |
| 3 I feel a strong faith in the integrity of my manager. | 0.95 |
| Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = 0.92$) | |
| 1 Company XYZ strongly considers my goals and values. | 0.84 |
| 2 Help is available from Company XYZ when I have a problem. | 0.78 |
| 3 Company XYZ cares about my well-being. | 0.91 |
| 4 Company XYZ is willing to help me when I need a special favor. | 0.71 |
| 5 Company XYZ cares about my general satisfaction at work. | 0.90 |
| Job Satisfaction ($\alpha = 0.76$) | |
| 1 Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job. | 0.82 |
| 2 I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job. | 0.62 |
| 3 In general, I like working at Company XYZ. | 0.76 |
| Affective Commitment ($\alpha = 0.86$) | |
| 1 I do not feel like "part of the family" at Company XYZ. (R) | 0.84 |
| 2 I do not feel "emotionally attached" to Company XYZ. (R) | 0.81 |
| 3 Company XYZ has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 0.70 |
| 4 I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to Company XYZ. (R) | 0.78 |
| Normative Commitment ($\alpha = 0.73$) | |
| 1 Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (R) | 0.61 |
| 2 One of the major reasons I continue to work for Company XYZ is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. | 0.61 |
| 3 If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave Company XYZ. | 0.67 |
| 4 I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization. | 0.66 |
| Continuance Commitment ($\alpha = 0.78$) | |
| 1 Right now, staying with Company XYZ is a matter of necessity as much as desire. | 0.54 |
| 2 I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving Company XYZ. | 0.97 |
| 3 One of the few serious consequences of leaving Company XYZ would be the scarcity of available alternatives. | 0.80 |
| Effort ($\alpha = 0.73$) | |
| 1 My overall effort in the sales task. | 0.80 |
| 2 My total number of hours worked. | 0.80 |
| 3 My total number of calls made. | 0.51 |
| Fit Indices | |
| Chi-square statistic | 321.65 |
| Degrees of freedom | 254 |
| RMSEA | 0.043 |
| CFI | 0.97 |
| NFI | 0.86 |
| IFI | 0.97 |
| TLI | 0.96 |

Notes: R = reverse coded. All factor loadings are standardized and significant at $p < 0.01$.

than 2, thus indicating an adequate fit (Byrne 2001). The comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) was 0.97 and 0.96, respectively. The root mean square of approximation (RMSEA) was 0.043. Although the goodness-of-fit index (NFI) of 0.86 was slightly below the critical value of 0.90, based on the satisfactory results of the indices, we concluded that the overall fit of the measurement model was acceptable. The summary of the CFA results is reported in Table 3.

We followed the approach suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to control for common method bias. First, before surveying the salespeople, we pretested the scales and deleted ambiguous and potentially confusing items based on their feedback. Second, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on all items and found seven factors that have eigenvalues greater than one. In addition, the Harmon one-factor test failed to identify any general factor that accounted for the majority of covariance among all

Table 4
Confirmatory Factor Analysis: The Dimensionality of Organizational Commitment

| Model | χ^2 | df | χ^2/df | $\Delta\chi^2$ | CFI | NFI | IFI | TLI | RMSEA |
|---------------|----------|-----|-------------|----------------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| Independence | 2,226.98 | 300 | 7.42 | | | | | | |
| One factor | 574.69 | 265 | 2.169 | 1,652.69*** | 0.84 | 0.74 | 0.84 | 0.82 | 0.091 |
| Two factors | 431.39 | 261 | 1.653 | 143.30*** | 0.91 | 0.81 | 0.91 | 0.89 | 0.068 |
| Three factors | 321.65 | 254 | 1.266 | 109.74*** | 0.97 | 0.86 | 0.97 | 0.96 | 0.043 |

*** $p < 0.01$.

measures (Podsakoff et al. 2003), although the first factor explained 30.6 percent of the variation. Therefore, a common method bias is less likely to be a significant threat to our research.

Hypotheses Testing

In the hypothesized model, POS and trust in supervisor were modeled as exogenous variables, whereas the three organizational commitment constructs, job satisfaction, and effort were modeled as endogenous variables. Considering the number of measures involved relative to sample size, we used summated indicators of each construct in the structural analyses (SEM). This is a common practice for handling a large number of variables (relative to sample size) and presents results in a parsimonious way (Babin and Boles 1998; Barksdale et al. 2003; Brown and Peterson 1994). Following the recommendation by Kenny (1979), we constrained each measurement coefficient to the square root of its scale's reliability before setting the corresponding error term at one minus scale reliability (Hayduk 1987; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne 1998).

An SEM approach was used to test the hypothesized model. The χ^2 statistic was 13.15, with 9 degrees of freedom. This indicated an acceptable fit, as the relative chi-square (χ^2/df) = 1.46 was below the cutoff value of 2.0. The CFI was 0.98, the TLI was 0.96, and the NFI was 0.95, respectively. All of these indices were above the 0.90 cutoff value. In addition, the RMSEA of 0.057 was satisfactory because a value below 0.08 is expected for an adequate fit. The results of the estimated coefficients and fit indices are reported in Table 5.

Although the fit was adequate, we explored a more accurate and parsimonious representation of the data by deleting some of the nonsignificant paths (Brown and Peterson 1994; McCallum 1986). Estimation of the revised model resulted in a very good fit. As reported in Table 5, the χ^2 statistic was 16.26, with 13 degrees of freedom. The CFI was 0.99, the TLI was 0.98, the NFI was 0.93, and the

RMSEA was 0.042. Graphical representation of the revised structural model and path coefficients is provided in Figure 1 (the solid lines).

H1 posited that the three forms of organizational commitment have differential effects on sales effort. Specifically, affective commitment has the strongest positive effect, whereas normative and continuance commitment have a positive and a negative effect, respectively. As indicated in Figure 1, affective commitment had a significant effect on effort ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$), but both normative commitment and continuance commitment had no significant effect. Further, the difference in the effects of affective and continuance commitment was significant ($\chi^2 = 4.73$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.05$), although the difference between affective and normative commitment was not significant ($\chi^2 = 0.12$, $df = 1$, n.s.). Thus, H1 was partially supported.

Figure 1 also demonstrates that job satisfaction positively influences salespeople's affective commitment ($\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, both H2a and H2b were supported. The relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment was negative, but not significant. Therefore, we did not find support for H2c. Further testing revealed that the difference between affective and normative commitment was not significant ($\chi^2 = 0.25$, $df = 1$, n.s.).

As for H3, the relationship between POS and affective commitment was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.01$), whereas that between POS and continuance commitment was negative and significant ($\beta = -0.27$, $p < 0.01$). These results supported H3a and H3c. However, the relationship between POS and normative commitment was not significant. Thus, we did not find support for H3b. The incremental χ^2 test revealed that the difference in the effects of affective and continuance commitment was significant ($\chi^2 = 50.04$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$), and that between affective and normative commitment was also significant ($\chi^2 = 13.31$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$). These results partially supported H3. H4 posited that POS positively influences job satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = 0.55$, $p < 0.01$). H5 was also supported, as the

Table 5
Standardized Estimates and Goodness-of-Fit Statistics ($n = 142$)

| Relationships | Hypothesized Model | | Revised Model | | Revised Model with Acquiescence Response Style | |
|--|--------------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|--|----------------|
| | Estimate | Critical Ratio | Estimate | Critical Ratio | Estimate | Critical Ratio |
| POS on Satisfaction | 0.55 | (7.50)*** | 0.55 | (7.50)*** | 0.54 | (7.52)*** |
| Trust on Satisfaction | 0.17 | (2.36)** | 0.17 | (2.36)** | 0.17 | (2.41)** |
| POS on Affective Commitment | 0.52 | (6.44)*** | 0.52 | (6.44)*** | 0.53 | (6.47)*** |
| POS on Continuance Commitment | -0.27 | (-2.63)*** | -0.32 | (-4.02)*** | -0.32 | (-4.02)*** |
| Satisfaction on Affective Commitment | 0.19 | (2.38)*** | 0.19 | (2.38)** | 0.19 | (2.29)** |
| Satisfaction on Normative Commitment | 0.23 | (2.26)*** | 0.28 | (3.48)*** | 0.27 | (3.37)*** |
| Satisfaction on Continuance Commitment | -0.08 | (-0.82) | | | | |
| Affective Commitment on Effort | 0.13 | 1.53 | 0.17 | (2.08)** | 0.17 | (2.08)** |
| Normative Commitment on Effort | 0.09 | 1.08 | | | | |
| Continuance Commitment on Effort | -0.08 | -0.9 | | | | |
| Chi-square | 13.15 | | 16.26 | | 16.26 | |
| Degrees of Freedom | 9 | | 13 | | 13 | |
| p -value | 0.16 | | 0.24 | | 0.24 | |
| CFI | 0.98 | | 0.99 | | 0.99 | |
| IFI | 0.98 | | 0.99 | | 0.99 | |
| NFI | 0.95 | | 0.93 | | 0.93 | |
| TLI | 0.96 | | 0.98 | | 0.97 | |
| RMSEA | 0.057 | | 0.042 | | 0.042 | |

Notes: To simplify the table, we did not report the direct effects of ARS, the control variable that reflects the acquiescent bias. ** Significant at $p < 0.05$; *** significant at $p < 0.01$.

coefficient between trust in supervisor and job satisfaction was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.17, p < 0.05$).

To estimate the impact of potential acquiescence bias, we selected two items in the affective commitment measure and two items in the normative commitment measure as the matched set of positively and negatively worded items (Baumgartner and Steenkamp 2001). Salespeople's responses to the negatively worded item were compared to their responses to the positively worded items. Following the literature (Agustin and Singh 2005; Grayson, Johnson, and Chen 2008), we computed acquiescence response style (ARS), an acquiescence latent factor, and included it in the revised model as a control variable (Baumgartner and Steenkamp 2001). As demonstrated in Table 5, this control does not change any substantive conclusions. In fact, most estimates and significance remain the same.

Additional Analyses

We conducted several additional analyses. First, to further explore the relationship between trust in supervisor and organizational commitment, we tested the mediating role of job satisfaction. Following the approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), we assessed four conditions. First, as shown in Table 2, trust in supervisor was significantly related to affective commitment ($r = 0.23, p < 0.01$). Second, we found that trust in supervisor was significantly related to job satisfaction. Third, job satisfaction was significantly related to affective commitment. Last, the relationship between trust in supervisor and affective commitment became insignificant after controlling for job satisfaction. Therefore, we conclude that the effect of trust in manager on affective commitment is completely mediated by job satisfaction (Baron and Kenny 1986).

Second, we tested whether continuance and normative commitment interact with affective commitment. After mean-centering the three types of commitment, we created two product terms and tested for potential interaction effects with hierarchical regression. The analyses revealed a positive interaction effect between affective and normative commitment. Specifically, the relationship between affective commitment and work effort becomes stronger when normative commitment is high than when it is low. The interaction effect was established as both the coefficient ($\beta = 0.20, p < 0.05$) and the incremental F -value ($\Delta F = 5.55; p < 0.01$) were significant. In contrast, we did not find such an effect for continuance commitment. Next, we discuss our findings in the context of management-controllable drivers of organizational commitment and salesperson effort.

DISCUSSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Our study delineated the relationships of the three forms of organizational commitment with important theoretically linked variables in a sales context. The findings suggest that affective commitment has a positive effect on sales effort, whereas normative and continuance commitment do not. However, these results do not negate the importance of normative and continuance commitment. For example, as indicated by our supplementary analyses, normative commitment may enhance effort indirectly through its interacting effect with affective commitment. Further, the study shows that several important antecedents have a differential influence on the three forms of organizational commitment. POS has a strong positive effect on affective commitment, no significant effect on normative commitment, and a negative effect on continuance commitment. In addition, we found that job satisfaction has a positive effect on both affective and normative commitment, but no significant effect on continuance commitment.

These findings echo the notion that the different forms of organizational commitment have different relationships with other variables (Meyer and Allen 1991; Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe 2004). Past research shows that affective commitment, out of Meyer and Allen's three components of organizational commitment, has the strongest positive effect on intention to participate in professional activities, performance, and service quality, followed by normative commitment (to a lesser extent), whereas continuance commitment is typically unrelated, or negatively related to these outcomes (Malhotra and Mukherjee 2003; Preston and Brown 2004; Snape and Redman 2003). Therefore, our finding that various organizational and managerial factors contribute differently to the three forms of organizational commitment is consistent with the literature (Meyer and Allen 1991).

From a theoretical perspective, these findings extend our understanding of organizational commitment as it applies to sales personnel. Although correlated, affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment are distinct components. The reliabilities, discriminant validity, and convergent validity of the measurement model are all satisfactory. The differential relationships with other variables also confirm the model's nomological validity. The overall favorable results support a three-dimensional framework.

Documenting the differential impact of these variables in a sales context benefits sales executives in their en-

deavors to enhance company performance and employee loyalty. Because affective commitment has the strongest impact of the three components on salespeople's performance-related behavior, such as effort, sales managers need to understand how they can influence their sales forces' affective commitment. Our findings suggest that the most critical predictor of affective commitment in our nomological network is POS. Due to the frequent interactions between salespeople and their sales manager, many salespeople view their managers as the primary representative of the organization. The leadership and management style of managers therefore determines the extent to which salespeople perceive the organization values their contributions and cares for their well-being (i.e., POS).

Along those same lines, our results call attention to how and when the different types of commitment can be influenced. For example, in Figure 1, POS is shown to have a direct effect on both continuance commitment and affective commitment. Although normative commitment is linked to job satisfaction, there is no direct link leading to it from POS. It would appear, at least based on the variables included in our model, that continuance and affective commitment can be motivated by extrinsic factors, whereas normative commitment is more intrinsic and stable. As reflected in our measurement scale, normative commitment reflects a value judgment on the part of the employee. Items used to measure normative commitment support this view (e.g., "I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization"). To individuals with high amounts of normative commitment, being loyal to their employer is simply the right thing to do. The fact that an absence of POS does not take away from normative commitment suggests that normative commitment is not contingent upon the actions of the company and that the employee is committed to his or her moral stance regardless of the circumstance. This implies that managers can influence continuance and affective commitment on an ongoing basis throughout the salesperson's employment by communicating their level of support, but normative commitment is best accounted for at hiring.

Some interesting results concerning normative commitment are that (1) it has no direct effect on salesperson effort, and (2) it indirectly enhances effort through a moderating effect with affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) have shown that normative commitment is a necessary component of organizational commitment, and our research suggests that normative commitment alone is not sufficient to motivate the salesperson to exert additional effort on behalf of the company. It is interest-

ing that the values that underlie normative commitment are strong enough to induce a feeling of obligation to the company, but not strong enough to push the salesperson to work harder. However, normative commitment plays a supporting role during the process of sales force motivation as it strengthens the influence of affective commitment on salesperson effort. The positive moderating effect indicates that it is beneficial for a salesperson to be both affectively and normatively committed.

Furthermore, because affective commitment is emotionally based, normative commitment is likely to be important for retaining employees during hard times or lapses in POS. Whereas affective commitment provides the excitement required to motivate salesperson effort, normative commitment provides a rational basis for a salesperson to remain with his or her organization. According to our results, salespeople who are committed both emotionally and rationally are likely to work hard for their company. Further, normative commitment serves as an important consideration as it has been linked to participation in professional activities and reduced withdrawal intentions (Snape and Redman 2003).

As demonstrated in our mediation test, although affective commitment and trust in manager are positively correlated, trust in manager does not have a direct effect on affective commitment. In fact, the influence of trust in manager on affective commitment is fully mediated by job satisfaction. The reason could be that trust in supervisor is a construct embedded in the sales manager—an individual. The emotional attachment toward and identification with the sales manager enhance salespeople's job satisfaction, which includes satisfaction with supervisor. On the other hand, organizational commitment is an attitudinal intention toward the *organization*. Because the organization and its individual sales managers are, in a sense, "separate" identities at different levels, there is no direct effect from trust in manager to organizational commitment.

Sales managers also should give serious consideration to the reduction of continuance commitment. Past research shows that continuance commitment links negatively to service quality and intention to participate in professional activities (Malhotra and Mukherjee 2003; Snape and Redman 2003). Researchers have also found that continuance commitment leads to a high propensity to quit. Therefore, continuance commitment is detrimental to company performance and employee loyalty. For sales managers, once again, the best predictor of continuance commitment is POS. In fact, POS has a strong negative effect on continuance commitment. Sales managers play

a critical role in defining the work environment of their sales force. A salesperson who perceives the work environment to be benevolent and supporting puts less weight on calculating the costs and benefits of being part of the organization.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Our study employed a cross-sectional design using a sample from one organization, a typical limitation of sales research. The advantage of using one organization is that it controls for extraneous variation such as differences in compensation programs, and so forth, among companies. However, we caution readers regarding the external validity of the findings. Future research with a longitudinal design and data collected from multiple companies would allow a better scrutiny of the relationships among the different forms of organizational commitment and their antecedents and consequences. However, as similar results have been obtained in nonsales studies, external validity is less likely to be a serious concern.

Another limitation is that we did not include propensity to quit and actual turnover in the model. Based on empirical findings from nonsales studies, we expect propensity to quit to be negatively related to affective commitment and positively related to continuance commitment. Future research could build on this study to explore the influence of these constructs. In addition, we failed to include an MV marker, a construct that is theoretically unrelated to our study, in our survey. Therefore, it is infeasible for us to apply the method recommended by Lindell and Whitney (2001) to further test the common method bias. Finally, other antecedents may have a differential impact on the three forms of organizational commitment. For example, Allen and Meyer (1990) found that salespeople's role clarity, goal clarity, and self-efficacy have the strongest positive effect on affective commitment, but no such effects on normative and continuance commitment. It would be interesting to explore these variables in a sales context (e.g., Sager and Johnston 1989). Last, all salespeople in our study are from the United States, which is considered an individualistic culture. As salespeople who live in collectivistic communities may form organizational commitment differently, managers and scholars would benefit from a cross-cultural design.

REFERENCES

Agarwal, Sanjeev, and Sridhar N. Ramaswami (1993), "Affective Organizational Commitment of Salespeople: An Expanded

- Model," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 13, 2 (Spring), 49-70.
- Agustin, Clara, and Jagdip Singh (2005), "Curvilinear Effects of Consumer Loyalty Determinants in Relational Exchanges," *Journal of Marketing*, 42 (1), 96-108.
- Allen, David G., Lynn M. Shore, and Rodger W. Griffeth (1999), "The Role of Perceived Organizational Support and Supportive Human Resource Practices in the Turnover Process," *Journal of Management*, 29 (1), 99-118.
- Allen, Natalie J., and John P. Meyer (1990), "The Measurement and Antecedents of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organization," *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63 (1), 1-18.
- Amyx, Douglas, and Bruce L. Alford (2005), "The Effects of Salesperson Need for Achievement and Sales Manager Leader Reward Behavior," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 24, 4 (Fall), 345-359.
- Anderson, James C., and David W. Gerbing (1988), "Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach," *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (3), 411-423.
- Atuahene-Gima, Kwaku, and Haiyang Li (2002), "When Does Trust Matter? Antecedents and Contingent Effects of Supervisee Trust on Performance in Selling New Products in China and the United States," *Journal of Marketing*, 66 (3), 61-81.
- Babakus, Emin, David W. Cravens, Mark Johnston, and William C. Moncrief (1996), "Examining the Role of Organizational Variables in the Salesperson Job Satisfaction Model," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 16, 3 (Summer), 33-46.
- Babin, Barry J., and James S. Boles (1998), "Employee Behavior in a Service Environment: A Model and Test of Potential Differences Between Men and Women," *Journal of Marketing*, 62 (2), 77-91.
- Bagozzi, Robert P. (1992), "The Self-Regulation of Attitudes, Intentions, and Behavior," *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 55 (2), 178-204.
- Bansal, Harvir S., P. Gregory Irving, and Shirley F. Taylor (2004), "A Three-Component Model of Customer Commitment to Service Providers," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32 (3), 234-250.
- Barksdale, Hiram C., Jr., Danny N. Bellenger, James S. Boles, and Thomas G. Brashear (2003), "The Impact of Realistic Job Previews and Perceptions of Training on Sales Force Performance and Continuance Commitment: A Longitudinal Test," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 23, 2 (Spring), 125-138.
- Baron, Reuben M., and David A. Kenny (1986), "The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51 (6), 1173-1182.
- Baumgartner, Hans, and Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp (2001), "Response Styles in Marketing Research: A Cross-National Investigation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38 (2), 143-156.
- Bentein, Kathleen, Robert Vandenberg, Christian Vandenberghe, and Florence Stinglhamber (2005), "The Role of Change in the Relationship Between Commitment and Turnover: A Latent Growth Modeling Approach," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90 (3), 468-482.
- Blau, Peter M. (1964), *Exchange and Power in Social Life*, New York: Wiley.

- Brown, Steven P., and Robert A. Peterson (1993), "Antecedents and Consequences of Salesperson Job Satisfaction: Meta-Analysis and Assessment of Causal Effects," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30 (1), 63-77.
- , and ——— (1994), "The Effect of Effort on Sales Performance and Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Marketing*, 58 (2), 70-80.
- Byrne, Barbara M. (2001), *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS, Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Chonko, Lawrence B. (1986), "Organizational Commitment in the Sales Force," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 6, 3 (November), 19-27.
- Churchill, Gilbert A., Jr., Neil M. Ford, and Orville C. Walker, Jr. (1974), "Measuring the Job Satisfaction of Industrial Salesmen," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 11 (3), 254-260.
- Commeiras, Nathalie, and Christophe Fournier (2001), "Critical Evaluation of Porter et al.'s Organizational Commitment Questionnaire: Implications for Researchers," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 21, 3 (Summer), 239-245.
- Cropanzano, Russell, and Marie S. Mitchell (2005), "Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review," *Journal of Management*, 31 (6), 874-900.
- Eisenberger, Robert, Peter Fasolo, and Valerie Davis-LaMastro (2001), "Perceived Organizational Support and Employee Diligence, Commitment, and Innovation," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75 (1), 51-59.
- , Robin Huntington, Steven Hutchison, and Debora Sowa (1986), "Perceived Organizational Support," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71 (3), 500-507.
- Flaherty, Karen K., and James M. Pappas (2000), "The Role of Trust in Salesperson-Sales Manager Relationships," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 20, 4 (Fall), 271-278.
- Fornell, Claes, and David F. Larcker (1981), "Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error: Algebra and Statistics," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (3), 382-388.
- Grayson, Kent, Devon Johnson, and Der-Fa Robert Chen (2008), "Is Firm Trust Essential in a Trusted Environment? How Trust in the Business Context Influences Customers," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45 (2), 241-256.
- Gruen, Thomas W., John O Summers, and Frank Acito (2000), "Relationship Marketing Activities, Commitment, and Membership Behaviors in Professional Associations," *Journal of Marketing*, 64 (3), 34-49.
- Hackman, Richard J., and Greg R. Oldham (1975), "Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60 (2), 159-170.
- Hayduk, Leslie A. (1987), *Structural Equation Modeling with LISREL: Essentials and Advances*, Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Ingram, Thomas N., Keun S. Lee, and Steven J. Skinner (1989), "An Empirical Assessment of Salesperson Motivation, Commitment, and Job Outcomes," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 9, 3 (Fall), 25-33.
- Jaramillo, Fernando, Jay Prakash Mulki, and Greg W. Marshall (2005), "A Meta-Analysis of the Relationship Between Organizational Commitment and Salespeople Job Performance: 25 Years of Research," *Journal of Business Research*, 58 (6), 705-714.
- Jaros, Stephen J., John M. Jermier, Jerry W. Koehler, and Terry Sincich (1993), "Effects of Continuance, Affective, and Moral Commitment on the Withdrawal Process: An Evaluation of Eight Structural Equation Models," *Academy of Management Journal*, 36 (5), 951-995.
- Johnston, Mark W., A. Parasuraman, Charles M. Futrell, and William C. Black (1990), "A Longitudinal Assessment of the Impact of Selected Organizational Influences on Salespeople's Organizational Commitment During Early Employment," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27 (3), 333-344.
- Kenny, David A. (1979), *Correlation and Causation*, New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lee, Keun S., and Tao Gao (2005), "Studying Organizational Commitment with the OCQ in the Korean Retail Context: Its Dimensionality and Relationships with Satisfaction and Work Outcomes," *International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 15 (4), 375-399.
- Lindell, Michael K., and David J. Whitney (2001), "Accounting for Common Method Variance in Cross-Sectional Research Designs," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (1), 114-121.
- Locke, Edwin A. (1976), "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction," in *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Marvin Dunnette, ed., Chicago: Rand McNally, 1297-1350.
- Lok, Peter, Robert Westwood, and John Crawford (2005), "Perceptions of Organisational Subculture and Their Significance for Organisational Commitment," *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 54 (4), 490-514.
- Luchak, Andrew A., and Ian R. Gellatly (2007), "A Comparison of Linear and Nonlinear Relations Between Organizational Commitment and Work Outcomes," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92 (3), 786-793.
- MacKenzie, Scott B., Philip M. Podsakoff, and Michael Ahearne (1998), "Some Possible Antecedents and Consequences of In-Role and Extra-Role Salesperson Performance," *Journal of Marketing*, 62 (3), 87-98.
- , ———, and Gregory A. Rich (2001), "Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Salesperson Performance," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29 (2), 115-134.
- Maertz, Carl P., Jr., Rodger W. Griffeth, Nathanael S. Campbell, and David G. Allen (2007), "The Effects of Perceived Organizational Support and Perceived Supervisor Support on Employee Turnover," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28 (8), 1059-1075.
- Malhotra, Neeru, and Avinandan Mukherjee (2003), "Analysing the Commitment-Service Quality Relationship: A Comparative Study of Retail Banking Call Centres and Branches," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 19 (9), 941-971.
- McCallum, Robert C. (1986), "Specification Searches in Covariance Structure Modeling," *Psychological Bulletin*, 100 (1), 107-120.
- McNeilly, Kevin M., and Frederick A. Russ (1992), "The Moderating Effect of Sales Force Performance on Relationship Involving Antecedents of Turnover," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 12, 1 (Winter), 9-20.
- Meeker, B.F. (1971), "Decisions and Exchange," *American Sociological Review*, 36 (3), 485-495.
- Meyer, John P., and Natalie J. Allen (1984), "Testing the 'Side-Bet Theory' of Organizational Commitment: Some Methodological Considerations," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63 (3), 372-378.

- , and ——— (1991), "A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment," *Human Resource Management*, 1 (1), 61-98.
- , and Lynne Herscovitch (2001), "Commitment in the Workplace: Toward a General Model," *Human Resource Management Review*, 11 (3), 299-326.
- , Natalie J. Allen, and Catherine A. Smith (1993), "Commitment to Organizations and Occupations: Extension and Test of a Three-Component Conceptualization," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78 (4), 538-551.
- , Thomas E. Becker, and Christian Vandenberghe (2004), "Employee Commitment and Motivation: A Conceptual Analysis and Integrative Model," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 6 (December), 991-1007.
- Mowday, Richard T., Lyman W. Porter, and Richard M. Steers (1982), *Employee Organizations: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism and Turnover*, New York: Academic Press.
- , Richard M. Steers, and Lyman W. Porter (1979), "The Measure of Organizational Commitment," *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14 (2), 224-247.
- Mulki, Jay Prakash, Fernando Jaramillo, and William B. Locander (2006), "Effects of Ethical Climate and Supervisory Trust on Salesperson's Job Attitudes and Intention to Quit," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 26, 1 (Winter), 19-26.
- Pierce, Jon L., and Randall B. Dunham (1987), "Organizational Commitment: Pre-Employment Propensity and Initial Work Experience," *Journal of Management*, 13 (1), 163-178.
- Podsakoff, Philip M., Scott B. MacKenzie, Jeong-Yeon Lee, and Nathan P. Podsakoff (2003), "Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88 (5), 879-903.
- , ———, Robert H. Moorman, and Richard Fetter (1990), "Transformational Leader Behaviors and Their Effects on Followers' Trust in Leader, Satisfaction, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors," *Leadership Quarterly*, 1 (2), 107-142.
- Preston, Jennifer Bright, and William A. Brown (2004), "Commitment and Performance of Nonprofit Board Members," *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 15 (2), 221-238.
- Rhoades, Linda, and Robert Eisenberger (2002), "Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 698-714.
- , ———, and Stephen Armeli (2001), "Affective Commitment to the Organization: The Contribution of Perceived Organizational Support," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (5), 825-836.
- Sager, Jeffrey K. (1999), "Point: Salespeople and Senior Management: Not a Match Made in Heaven," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 19, 1 (Winter), 63-66.
- , and Mark W. Johnston (1989), "Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment: A Study of Salespeople," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 9, 1 (Spring), 30-41.
- Shore, Lynn McFarlane, and Lois E. Tetrick (1991), "A Construct Validity Study of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76 (5), 637-643.
- Singh, Jagdip (1993), "Boundary Role Ambiguity: Facets, Determinants, and Impacts," *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (2), 11-31.
- Snape, Ed, and Tom Redman (2003), "An Evaluation of a Three-Component Model of Occupational Commitment: Dimensionality and Consequences Among United Kingdom Human Resource Management Specialists," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88 (1), 152-159.
- Stevens, Howard P. (2003), "Principles of Sales Compensation," White Paper, HR Chally Group, Dayton, OH (available at www.chally.com/prinsales.htm).
- Stinglhamber, Florence, and Christian Vandenberghe (2003), "Organizations and Supervisors as Sources of Support and Targets of Commitment: A Longitudinal Study," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24 (3), 251-270.
- Walker, Orville C., Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., and Neil M. Ford (1977), "Motivation and Performance in Industrial Selling: Present Knowledge and Needed Research," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14 (2), 156-168.
- Wiener, Yoash (1982), "Commitment in Organizations: A Normative View," *Academy of Management Review*, 7 (3), 418-428.
- Witt, Alan L., and John W. Wilson (1991), "Moderating Effect of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship Between Equity and Extra-Role Behaviors," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 131 (2), 247-252.

Copyright of *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice* is the property of M.E. Sharpe Inc. and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.