COMMITMENT

A Psychological Tie and Moral Value

by

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Biography

Lieutenant Colonel Shelly L. Mendieta entered the Air Force in 1999 as a graduate of the University of Texas at Austin ROTC program. She is a previously qualified Flight Examiner, Instructor Weapon Systems Officer and Formal Training Unit Instructor Weapon Systems Officer with multiple deployments in support of Operations IRAQI FREEDOM, ENDURING FREEDOM, and FREEDOM’S SENTINEL and the RESOLUTE SUPPORT mission.

Lieutenant Colonel Mendieta is a Senior Navigator with more than 2,400 total flying hours, including 526 combat hours in the F-15E. She has held multiple positions at the squadron and wing level and attended intermediate developmental education at Air Command and Staff College at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama. She served as the Director of Operations for the 389th Fighter Squadron at Mountain Home Air Force Base, Idaho. She then commanded the 455th Expeditionary Operations Support Squadron at Bagram Airfield, Afghanistan where she directed the diverse operations of 122 personnel, across 2 bases, providing airfield operations, wing intelligence, airfield weather, wing weapons and tactics, air traffic control and landing systems, mission planning, and aircrew flight equipment support for 7 squadrons and 340,000 missions at the Department of Defense’s busiest combat logistics hub. Lieutenant Colonel Mendieta is currently a student at the Air War College at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama.
Abstract

Commitment in the military is most often thought of as moral obligation, but there are also psychological and behavioral aspects to commitment. The Meyers and Allen three-component model of organizational commitment delineates these aspects as affective, continuance, and normative commitment. In other words, individuals stay in organization because they want to, need to, or because they ought to. This means that an understanding of commitment requires an evaluation of both the logic and will of accepting commitment. Eight readings are offered as a foundation of the psychological, philosophical, and ethical literature as well as distinguish the concept of commitment in the military from the greater concept of organizational commitment. To influence and build commitment, leaders must first develop a sound understanding of commitment.
I. Introduction

“I am only one, but still I am one. I cannot do everything, but still I can do something; and because I cannot do everything, I will not refuse to do something that I can do.”

– Edward Everett Hale

Commitment in the military is a promise. It is a promise to do something and to be loyal. Commitment is dedication. It is dedication to an organization or cause. Commitment is a feeling, a value, and an action. It is essential to the military; with the commitment of service members, most things are possible, without it, an organization will flounder.

Commitment for all Airmen begins with the oath of office or the oath of enlistment. It is a promise to support and defend the Constitution of the United States. The level of commitment that Airmen build affects attrition, morale, and performance. United States Air Force Climate Assessment Surveys identify commitment as an “outcome of support by the organization and trust in leadership.” In turn, unit performance, unit commitment, unit flexibility, and satisfaction drive an individual’s intent to remain in the service. Commitment increases morale by fostering camaraderie, trust, and caring. Lastly, commitment enhances performance because people who are committed are more effective at influencing others, they do not give up, and they set the example for others who may still need to build confidence and experience. In essence, commitment helps explain why Airmen remain in the service, what they feel about that service, and how they perform.

To influence and build commitment, you must first develop a sound understanding of commitment. This paper examines eight readings essential to that understanding. It provides the scope of the readings and research, a summary of the readings followed by an analysis, and the last section offers key take-aways and recommendations.
II. Research

When I think of commitment, it is a feeling and an action with a strong moral component. However, as I began researching commitment it became obvious that there are also psychological and behavioral aspects to commitment. The Meyers and Allen three-component model of organizational commitment delineates these aspects as affective, continuance, and normative commitment. In other words, individuals stay in organization because they want to, need to, or because they ought to. This means that an understanding of commitment requires an evaluation of both the logic and will of accepting commitment. The following selected readings provide a foundation of the psychological, philosophical, and ethical literature as well as distinguish the concept of commitment in the military from the greater concept of organizational commitment.

Keithley’s “Dimensions of Professional Ethics for the Modern United States Military,” presents how the military views commitment and discusses key military values and how they apply to the armed forces. He distinguishes commitment in the military as both central to military ethics and distinct from commitment in normal civilian life. This traditional view correlates to a commitment to the profession of arms.

In contrast, Becker’s “Notes on the Concept of Commitment” and Meyer and Allen’s Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application present a psychological understanding of commitment. Not only do they define commitment, the authors also develop a system of antecedents, processes, and consequences. In an effort to integrate the psychological and ethical aspects of commitment, González and Guillén advocate the use Aristotle’s philosophical framework to distinguish feelings from rational judgements in “Organizational Commitment: A Proposal for Wider Ethical Conceptualization of ‘Normative Commitment.’”
Expanding both the ethical discussion and Meyer and Allen’s analysis on the effect of perceptions on commitment, Watson ties the level of commitment to the perception of a leader’s ethical values in “Leader Ethics and Organizational Commitment.”

Finally, the consequences of commitment in the military are discussed in Gade, Tiggle, and Schumm’s “The Measurement and Consequence of Military Organizational Commitment in Soldiers and Spouses,” Allen’s “Organizational Commitment in the Military: A Discussion of Theory and Practice,” and O’Shea et al.’s “The Many Faces of Commitment: Facet-Level Links to Performance.” These eight books and articles build a foundation of what commitment in the armed forces means and why it is central to the profession.

III. Readings

Each Services’ core values serve as the foundation of military ethics and professionalism. While commitment is a pillar of the U.S. Marine Corps and U.S. Navy core values of “Honor, Courage, and Commitment,” it is not a specific component of U.S. Air Force or U.S. Army core values. However, the Air Force Core Values of “Integrity First, Service Before Self, and Excellence in All We Do” and The Seven Core Army Values of “Loyalty, Duty, Respect, Selfless Service, Honor, Integrity, and Personal Courage” incorporate aspects that are common to the naval services value of commitment and they employ commitment to explain and develop their values (Table 1). Moreover, commitment is integral to the strength and success of the American military services.

The values of each military branch contain a sense of a moral compass, professionalism, duty, loyalty, and commitment. Each value is often defined by one of the other values, indicating that they are interdependent to each other. However, this also leads to ambiguity
when you try to understand what commitment means and why it is valuable. The following readings seek to clarify this ambiguity.

| U.S. Air Force | **Integrity First:** Integrity is a character trait. It is the willingness to do what is right even when no one is looking. It is the “moral compass”—the inner voice; the voice of self-control; the basis for the trust imperative in today’s military. But integrity also covers several other moral traits indispensable to national service: courage, honesty, responsibility, accountability, justice, openness, self-respect, and humility.  
**Service Before Self:** Service before self tells us that professional duties take precedence over personal desires. At the very least it includes the following behaviors: rule following, respect for others, discipline and self-control, and faith in the systems.  
**Excellence in All We Do:** Excellence in all we do directs us to develop a sustained passion for the continuous improvement and innovation that will propel the Air Force into a long-term, upward spiral of accomplishment and performance. Including: product/service, personal, community, resource, and operations excellence. |  |
| **Loyalty:** Bear true faith and allegiance to the U.S. Constitution, the Army, your unit and other Soldiers. Bearing true faith and allegiance is a matter of believing in and devoting yourself to something or someone.  
**Duty:** Fulfill your obligations. Doing your duty means more than carrying out your assigned tasks.  
**Respect:** Treat people as they should be treated  
**Selfless Service:** Put the welfare of the nation, the Army and your subordinates before your own. Selfless service is larger than just one person. In serving your country, you are doing your duty loyally without thought of recognition or gain. The basic building block of selfless service is the commitment of each team member to go a little further, endure a little longer, and look a little closer to see how he or she can add to the effort. |  |
| **Commitment:** The spirit of determination and dedication within members of a force of arms that leads to professionalism and mastery of the art of war. It leads to the highest order of discipline for unit and self; it is the ingredient that enables 24-hour-a-day dedication to Corps and Country; pride; concern for others; and an unrelenting determination to achieve a standard of excellence in every endeavor. Commitment is the value that establishes the Marine as the warrior and citizen others strive to emulate. |  |
| **Commitment:** The day-to-day duty of every man and woman in the Department of the Navy is to join together as a team to improve the quality of our work, our people and ourselves. I will:  
• Foster respect up and down the chain of command.  
• Care for the professional, personal and spiritual well-being of my people.  
• Show respect toward all people without regard to race, religion or gender.  
• Always strive for positive change and personal improvement.  
• Exhibit the highest degree of moral character, professional excellence, quality and competence in all that I do. |  |

Table 1: Service Core Value Comparison

1. **Keithley: “Dimensions of Professional Ethics for the Modern United States Military”**

   In “Dimensions of Professional Ethics for the Modern United States Military,” Keithley provides a detailed discussion on the development of military professionalism in the U.S., military ethic, the development of collective military virtues, military leadership as an ethical
virtue, and essential virtues. This summary concentrates on those sections that pertain to ethical leadership, duty, and commitment.

With respect to the nature of military ethics, the behaviors that society expects are moral obligations. Therefore, how a person acts defines their character and ethics is how a person should act.\textsuperscript{14} However, ethics are more than actions; they also encompass a person’s “character, virtues they live up to, and traits they possess.”\textsuperscript{15} It is not enough to follow the rules of society or the military profession; individuals must also make moral decisions. Professionalism and military ethics provide the foundation for these decisions.

In turn, the virtues of ethical leadership, selfless service and sacrifice, honor, loyalty and integrity are the core of the Professional Military Ethic.\textsuperscript{16} Not only do military officers set the professional standards, they volunteer for the ethical responsibility of defending the United States and they carry the moral obligation to lead the men and women into combat to kill and be killed. Thus, military leadership is more than a talent, it is an ethical imperative due to its importance to mission success and its importance to the lives of the soldiers engaged in that mission. Further, officers are ethically responsible for the lives and actions of those they command.\textsuperscript{17}

While all servicemembers volunteer to serve the nation, and are willing to make the ultimate sacrifice, this is different from duty. Duty is the obligation to serve.\textsuperscript{18} Duty presumes a commitment to carry out the mission regardless of personal sacrifices. “The professional commitment is one of ultimate liability”\textsuperscript{19} and therefore may require the “sacrifice of one’s own life and the lives of others.”\textsuperscript{20} Duty also means fulfilling professional obligations with moral sensitivity. Duty does not mean total obedience; it is the “obligation to obey orders that are not
Training, character, professionalism, leadership, and military ethics enable the soldier to make the moral decision.

In addition to duty, Sarkesian and Hartle consider commitment a military virtue. Once a person volunteers to serve, they have committed to the purpose, rules, values, and obligations of that organization. Further, when an officer takes the oath of office, they make a commitment to defend the Constitution of the United States. Their obligation is to the values and principles laid out in the Constitution, not to a person. This commitment extends to a serviceman’s duty, responsibility, and brothers-at-arms. A true commitment requires that a professional continually train and learn about combat, that they remain responsible to the defense of the nation, and care for his or her fellow servicemen.

In this sense, military commitment is the acceptance of the ultimate liability, moral obligations, purpose, rules, and values of the military profession. However, a full-understanding of commitment requires understanding why an individual accepts such a heavy responsibility.

2. Becker: “Notes on the Concept of Commitment”

Becker explains one mechanism that drives the acceptance of commitment. Before his “Notes of the Concept of Commitment,” sociologists used commitment in the analyses of individual and organizational behavior as both a descriptive concept and as an independent variable that accounts for actions, but commitment itself received little formal analysis. Thus, the spectrum of meaning resulted in ambiguity.

Sociologists often evoke the concept of commitment when they try to account for “consistent lines of activity.” The concept of commitment implies consistent behavior but the understanding of commitment itself is regarded as intuitive. If a person acts in a certain way, then they “made a commitment” or if they remain in such a state, then they are “being
committed” and therefore, they will follow a consistent course. The behavior and commitment become synonymous. To avoid this tautological explanation, the characteristics of “being committed” must be independent of behavior. One mechanism of doing this is through the analysis of bargaining and side bets.

Becker uses Schelling’s example of bargaining to buy a house to explain side bets. In this scenario, you offer $16,000, but the seller counters with $20,000. Now, if you offer the seller proof that you bet a third party $5,000 that you will not pay more than $16,000 for the house your antagonist must admit defeat because you would lose money by raising your offer. You committed to paying no more than originally offered; the side bet of $5,000 drives your commitment. This side bet demonstrates three major elements of commitment. First, the decision about a particular action has consequences for other interests that are not necessarily related to the action. Second, the individual has placed himself in that position by his prior actions and third, the committed individual must be aware that a side bet is in place and that his decision in this action will have ramifications beyond it. This economic example provides a basis for examining more complicated social actions and side bets.

In fact, a person’s involvement in social organizations may force side-bets in several ways. First, his actions may be constrained because “the existence of generalized cultural expectations provide penalties” for violations. For example, people feel that a man should not change his job too frequently because it demonstrates untrustworthiness. Therefore, if a man receives a better job offer two months after starting a new position, he cannot accept the position without significant damage to his reputation. Second, “the operation of impersonal bureaucratic arrangements” develop side-bets through organization policies. For instance, an individual who wants to leave their current job may find that they cannot leave without losing a significant
amount of money due to pension rules. Any decision to accept a new position involves a financial side bet due to the pension restrictions. Third, side bets also exist through the “process of individual adjustment to social positions.” In this case, a person may change his patterns of activity in the process of conforming to a social position in such a way that he is now unfit for other positions; it becomes easier to remain in his current position than make the changes necessary to move. Lastly, side bets are made through “face-to-face interactions.” For example, a person presents himself in an image that he may or may not be able to live up to but once he has made the claim, he finds it necessary to act as much as possible in the expected way. A person may find his actions constrained by the front that he earlier presented. Those social mechanisms demonstrate some of the ways side-bets constrain activity.

The side bet theory does have disadvantages. It does not explain how people resolve conflicts of competing commitments. Nor does its narrow nature encompass all categories of commitment. However, side bet theory does evaluate the elements of commitment separately from the lines of behavior that they account for. It provides a partial understanding to why individuals commit to a behavior or organization and correlates to the continuance commitment component developed by Meyer and Allen.

3. Meyer and Allen: *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application*

In contrast to the narrow scope of side-bet theory, Meyer and Allen develop a multi-dimensional model to explain the meaning, consequences, and development of commitment as well as how organizational practices and policies affect employee commitment. While there has been little consensus on what commitment means, definitions fall into three categories based on the psychological state that characterizes the relationship between the employee and the
Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

In the commitment research field, this multi-dimensional model has undergone the most extensive evaluation and is mostly widely accepted.

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<tr>
<th>Affective Orientation:</th>
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<tr>
<td>The attachment of an individual’s fund of affectivity and emotion to the group (Kanter, 1968, 507).</td>
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<tr>
<td>An attitude or an orientation towards the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization (Sheldon, 1971, 143).</td>
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<td>The process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent (Hall, Schneider, &amp; Nygren, 1970, 176-177).</td>
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<td>A partisan, affective, attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one’s role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth. (Buchanan, 1974, 553).</td>
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<tr>
<td>The relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a organization (Mowday, Porter, &amp; Steers, 1982, 27).</td>
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<th>Cost-Based:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Profit associated with continued participation and “cost” associated with leaving (Kanter, 1968, 504).</td>
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<td>Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side-bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity (Becker, 1960, 32).</td>
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<td>A structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual organizational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time (Hrebiniak &amp; Alutto, 1971, 556).</td>
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<th>Obligation or Moral Responsibility:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Commitment behaviors are socially accepted behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment (Wiener &amp; Gechman, 1977, 48).</td>
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<td>The totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982, 421).</td>
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<td>The committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him/her over the years (Marsh &amp; Mannari, 1977, 59).</td>
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Commitment is valuable because of its consequences. There is an expectation that all three components relate to retention, but they may result in very different consequences for other work behaviors. For example, strongly affective employees will have a greater desire to
contribute meaningfully and therefore will be absent less. By contrast, employees that have high continuance commitment stay because the costs of leaving are too high, therefore they are less likely to feel the desire to contribute to the organization and may in fact feel resentful or frustrated. Lastly, because high normative employees feel an obligation to the organization, they will also do what is right for the organization. Overall, employees with strong affective commitment are more valuable to the organization than employees with low affective commitment. To a lesser extent, the same is true for normative commitment. In contrast, while high continuance employees are not likely to leave the organization, they are also not likely to contribute positively to the organization.\footnote{40}

Because commitment impacts work behaviors, it is important to understand how each component develops. Affective commitment develops when employees find that the organization “satisfies their needs, meets their expectations, and allows them to achieve their goals.”\footnote{41} This emotional attachment may develop unconsciously through classical conditioning or through the conscious evaluation of experiences. Either way, experiences that are satisfying increase affective commitment and those that are not satisfying either have no effect or lessen affective commitment. Further, affective commitment may be greater when an employee perceives the organization actions and policies as motivated by concern for the employees.\footnote{42} Within the body of research, a psychological theme emerges: when work experiences are fair, well communicated, supportive, and value employee contributions then affective commitment is strongest.

In contrast to affective commitment, the development of continuance commitment is straight-forward. It develops because of any action or event that the employee recognizes as increasing the cost of leaving the organization. Here the antecedent variables are investment and
alternatives. Investments mean that if an employee left the organization they would lose their side-bets, time, money, or effort that they invested. A higher investment correlates to stronger continuance commitment. Conversely, employees that perceive viable employment alternatives will exhibit lower continuance commitment.\textsuperscript{43}

Employees with high normative commitment stay with an organization because they view it as the “right and moral” thing to do.\textsuperscript{44} It develops through early socialization. This occurs through conditioning, modeling, learned cultural and personal values, and learned expectations. This socialization is an internalization of organizational loyalty.\textsuperscript{45}

Overall, perceptions play a significant role in the development of commitment. When individuals believe that their organizations are supportive, they gain affective commitment. When they recognize the cost that they would incur if they left the organization, continuance commitment develops. If individuals see loyalty as an expectation, normative commitment follows. Therefore, to build commitment, organizations must manage perceptions. Human resource management (HRM) influences perception through recruitment and selections, socialization and training, assessment and promotion, and compensation and benefits practices.\textsuperscript{46}

Just as the nature of commitment is multi-dimensional, the focus of commitment is complex. A focus or entity refers to the “people, collectives, or activities to which one can become psychologically committed.”\textsuperscript{47} Entities that exist within the organization, such as management, teams, coworkers, and supervisors, are constituencies. Domains refer to the larger entities like the organization, union, or profession. As such, individuals could have multiple commitments to these foci and in-turn each component of commitment relates differently to each focus. Further, commitments can also be dependent and inter-related. For example, membership in the team is nested and dependent on membership in the organization. It is reasonable to
assume that these dependencies create an individual’s commitment profile. It is also reasonable to infer that these dependencies will influence work behaviors. These relationships may also account for variances in overall organizational commitment. However, commitment conflicts and dependencies require more research.\textsuperscript{48}

Commitment is a multidimensional construct with multiple foci within and outside the organization. Figure 1 provides a summary of the key variables of commitment. Making all the distinctions found in Figure 1 defines the boundaries of the construct and therefore makes it easier to evaluate. Some of the links in the model are understood and some of the relationships are merely speculation. Meyer and Allen believe that commitment research needs to continue to develop not only the nature of commitment but also the entire process.

Figure 1: Meyer and Allen Multidimensional Model of Organizational Commitment, Antecedents, & Consequences\textsuperscript{49}
González and Guillén integrate the psychological model developed by Meyer and Allen with an ethical construct for commitment using Aristotle’s philosophical framework. In their literature review, they answer five key questions on the nature of commitment. First, commitment is defined as “a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more aims,” a “psychological state,” and a “psychological attachment.” Second, commitment involves both behavioral and attitudinal aspects because people commit to both entities, such as organizations or occupations (attitudinal commitment), and courses of action (behavioral commitment). Third, organizational, personal, and environmental variables comprise the three antecedent groups of commitment. When examining organizational commitment, these antecedents are found in “psychological contracts.” These contracts are of either transactional or relational nature and are the antecedents of continuance commitment and normative commitment respectively. Additionally, work exchange relationships capture the level of fulfillment in performing the job. Fourth, commitment is observed through its outcomes such as turnover rates, absenteeism, job performance, the level of change acceptance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Figure 2). Finally, González and Guillén accept Meyer and Allen’s definitions of affective, continuance, and normative commitment as the nature of commitment.

While the three-dimensional model exhibits explanatory power, there are also significant critiques to the model. Primarily, there is a lack of discriminating validity between affective and normative dimensions. As a result, most authors consider normative commitment as an extension of affective commitment because there is an indistinguishable mix of feelings and
rational will. Further, normative research tends to focus on loyalty without evaluating any moral component. Therefore, research needs to distinguish between the emotional and rational scopes while recognizing that they are not completely separable. If incorporated into a multidimensional commitment model, moral commitment will improve the predictive and explanatory capability of the model.\textsuperscript{57}

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Figure 2: González and Guillén Organizational Commitment: Antecedents, Targets, and Outcomes\textsuperscript{58}

González and Guillén propose the Aristotelian distinction of human goods (human relationships and friendship) as the basis of a moral commitment dimension. Aristotle describes three types of friendship: friendship for utility, friendship for pleasure, and friendship of good people. While there are many human goods we pursue, Aristotle hierarchically orders these goods. Goods pursued for the sake of something else are useful goods, goods pursued for their own sake are pleasant goods, and goods pursued for their own sake as human excellence or virtues are moral goods.\textsuperscript{59}
These philosophical distinctions parallel Allen and Meyer’s psychological dimensions. The cost-benefit analysis of continuance commitment is a human action focused on the objective of external or useful goods. The emotional attachment that leads an individual’s desire to stay in an organization (affective commitment) correlates to pleasant goods where people find enjoyment in each other. Finally, the perceived moral obligation or duty of normative commitment parallels Aristotle’s moral goods with some important distinctions. Normative commitment involves a rational evaluation of right or wrong and just or unjust. Further, a sense of duty and accountability that is found in this dimension characterizes the moral virtue of responsibility. However, Aristotle’s definition of moral goods is more expansive. It includes every good that contributes to personal fulfillment, fulfillment of others, and all human virtues. These virtues include, but are not limited to, loyalty, honesty, integrity, fairness, responsibility, and courage.60

The three-dimensional model and Aristotle’s distinction of human goods describe the reasons to follow a specific course of action. So, commitment can be based on the need for useful goods, the desire for pleasant goods, or the obligation to find the moral good.61 Therefore, González and Guillén make five theoretical propositions.

First, commitment as a mind-set to continue a course of action includes desire (affective), perceived cost-benefit (economical/continuance), and perceived obligation (moral) dimensions. Aristotle’s human goods (pleasant, useful, and moral) parallel this three-dimensional model and can be described as the objective of each psychological mind-sets.62

Second, affective commitment relates to emotional tendencies while moral commitment refers to rational moral judgement and moral practices or virtues. Both are present in every action and while they are distinguishable, they cannot be separated. As such, they should be
distinguished but not separated when developing empirical tools. For example, feelings do not always align with moral judgements. It may be possible to feel like not staying committed because doing so is unpleasant but at the same time, there may be a compelling reason to stay because of a moral judgement or virtue.  

Third, because affective commitment pertains to feelings, it should only include voluntary attachments that relate to emotions, or in other words those tendencies that correspond to Aristotle’s pleasant goods. Therefore, current updated measurement scales are required to distinguish between affective and moral dimensions. This will help explain the overlap between the two and allow a wider development of the moral dimension.

Fourth, moral commitment encompasses the rationality of both moral judgements and moral practices. Therefore, the definition could be expanded from the current normative dimension to include not only moral norms but also moral judgement about what is good and how it is put into practice through moral virtues. This approach will explicitly account for free-will in the strength of attachment. In fact, if an individual is bound to a course of action by a force outside their will, that commitment will disappear as soon as the force is removed.

Lastly, “organizational commitment can be defined as a psychological attachment or bound, that is the result of a personal voluntary decision, based on calculated rationality, affective tendencies and moral judgement, which conducts to a higher or lower degree of identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization, and that is observable throughout free effort extended in accomplishing organizational goals.”

5. Watson: “Leader Ethics and Organizational Commitment”

If perception of both the psychological state (Meyer and Allen) and rational moral evaluations (González and Gullén) affect commitment, then it is reasonable that the perceptions
of a leader’s values impacts organizational commitment. Watson’s study evaluates whether an employee’s perception of a leader’s values impacts organizational commitment. She reviews literature on values as representative of ethics, the relationship to employee behavior, how a leader’s values impact commitment, and how an employee’s ethical viewpoint may moderate that impact. Based on this discussion, Watson proposes two hypotheses and tests them with a three-part survey. The data confirms that an individual’s perception of a leader’s values affect both normative and affective commitment.

First, values are representative of ethics. Ethical leader behaviors may increase employee commitment, satisfaction, and productivity because leader behaviors directly affect employee outcomes. To apply ethics to decision making, you must first understand the values that drive moral obligations. Although their definition of values differ, both Rockeach and Nystrom associate values with beliefs about appropriate standards of conduct. Further, values are relevant at both the individual and organizational level because there is a tendency toward beneficial outcomes, such as increased commitment, when employees perceive that the organization endorses values such as courtesy, consideration, fairness, integrity, and equality.

Second, empirical studies have shown a link between values and employee behavior. Ethical leadership, as defined by Brown, Trevino, and Harrison, is “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making.” Meglino demonstrated that an employee’s accurate understanding of values and requirements led to better job adjustment, satisfaction, and organizational commitment. If individuals feel that they are treated ethically, they feel an obligation to reciprocate. Further, studies indicate a positive relationship between leader fairness and citizenship behaviors.
Third, leader ethical values impact organizational commitment. This study focuses on Meyer and Allen’s multidimensional commitment model. Because affective and normative commitment involve the perception of values and obligations, they are potentially related to ethical values and may be impacted by the perception of leader’s values. In fact, several studies have linked organizational ethical values, benevolent leadership, perceived leader integrity, and organizational fairness to increased affective and organizational commitment.\textsuperscript{72}

Fourth, the impact of an individual’s perception of a leader’s values on their commitment is moderated by their own ethical position. White and Lean found that perceived leader integrity has the most impact on team member intentions when an ethical situation impacts the team and the organization. Either leaders can foster an ethical environment or an environment based on selfish, unethical actions.\textsuperscript{73}

Based on this discussion, Watson evaluated two hypotheses. First, “the employee’s perception of a leader’s values will impact their view of the organization such that the employee’s level of commitment to the organization will be positively correlated with a leader’s values that are considered ethical.”\textsuperscript{74} Second, “the impact of an employee’s perceptions of a leader’s values on the employee’s level of commitment to the organization will be moderated by the employee’s ethics position such that when an employee’s ethics position is idealistic, the impact of the employee’s perception of the leader’s values will be higher.”\textsuperscript{75}

Watson’s fifty-seven-question survey consists of three sections that measure a respondent’s ethical views (universalism or relativism) using Forsyth’s Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ), the perceived ethical values of supervisors (courtesy, consideration, fairness, moral integrity, and social equality identified by McDonald and Ganz), and Meyer and Allen Organizational Commitment Scale. The results confirm that an individual’s perception of
a leader’s values affect both normative and affective commitment. However, the data does not support a relationship between the subordinate’s ethics position and organizational commitment.76


With an understanding of what commitment is and how it is affected, it is important to understand why commitment is important. Based on the work of Meyer and Allen, Gade et al. developed, tested, and employed abbreviated scales to measure affective and continuance commitment. Results of their study suggest a causal link between commitment and job performance in the military. Further, five different studies showed that affective commitment predicted reenlistment intentions and behaviors correlated to job satisfaction, unit cohesion, retention intentions, perceived combat readiness, psychological well-being, and negatively related to job-family conflict.78

The authors sought to 1) assess the factor structure and reliability of the adapted affective commitment (AC) and continuance commitment (CC) scales, 2) ensure that researchers could easily measure commitment using military questionnaires and 3) demonstrate the utility of the measures for prediction. The research concentrated on AC and CC because they are differentiable. Normative commitment was excluded because of its significant overlap with AC.79

The team conducted multiple surveys throughout the research: a pre-deployment affective and continuance organizational commitment survey of Multinational Force and Observers (MFO 94), a deployment survey that included 57 multiple-choice general soldiering job knowledge questions and mission 42 specific job knowledge questions, and a post-deployment survey that
included shortened commitment scales based on the MFO 94 results. The job performance tests were recorded as percentage correct and a full description on the test can be found in Reynolds and Campbell (1996). Finally, the Army Personnel Survey Office included the shortened AC and CC questionnaire in their Sample Survey of Military Personnel (SSMP97). Based on the MFO 94 commitment scores, the soldiers were divided into high and low commitment groups to assess the impact of commitment on job performance. The groups included High AC/High CC, High AC/Low CC, Low AC/High CC, and Low AC/Low CC. Researchers then conducted a two-factor analysis on the groups and the job knowledge tests. The Meyer and Allen’s construct predicted that AC should positively influence performance and CC should have no effect or negatively affect performance. Therefore, the High AC/Low CC group should perform the best and the Low AC/High CC should perform the worst. The statistical analysis confirmed this prediction and linked organizational commitment to performance.

The SSMP 97 was analyzed to determine the relationship between AC and CC and measures of retention, readiness, and well-being. Based on Meyer and Allen’s work, retention AC and CC should positively affect retention. Analysis found that the High AC/High CC were more likely to say they would remain in the Army and Low AC/Low CC soldiers were most likely to say they planned to leave. Further analysis demonstrated that Low CC had a more significant negative affect than Low AC. With respect to self-reported readiness, High AC/Low CC soldiers were significantly more likely to say they were prepared for deployment than Low AC/High CC soldiers. These finding are consistent with the Meyer and Allen theory that CC may have a negative effect on performance and AC will always have a positive effect. Lastly, the survey results indicated that AC was more strongly related to morale (well-being) than CC.
This study confirmed the factor structure and reliability of the Army adapted AC and CC scales and developed reliable, shortened AC and CC scales. Further, the results showed that the Meyer and Allen theory works well at predicting behavioral outcomes as they relate to AC and CC. Most importantly, the MFO survey results demonstrated a relationship between commitment and performance. These commitment measures provide a way to track precursors of performance, retention, and well-being. With further development, they may serve as leading indicators of readiness.82


In this article, Allen discusses conceptual and measurement issues within military commitment research, the consequences and antecedents of commitment, the focus of commitment, and the military as a research resource with respect to the articles published in Military Psychology (Volume 15, Issue 3).84

The research of Karrasch, Gade et al., and Tremble et al., and Heffner and Gade suggest that military personnel can distinguish between affective (AC), normative (NC), and continuance commitment (CC).85 The second theme of the reviewed research concerns antecedents and consequences of commitment. First, as personnel retention is critical to the military, all the articles examined career intent as a consequence of commitment. Consistent with the body of research, a pattern in which strongly committed employees are significantly less likely to say they will leave the military emerged. In fact, turnover intention is the strongest consequence of organizational commitment. Future research that studies commitment in relation to the reasons and timing of leaving the organization would be very valuable in addressing retention and assigning resources. Second, Karrasch examined leader behavior and established that AC and to
a weaker degree NC are positively correlate to leader behavior while CC was negatively correlates. Third, Gade et al measured job knowledge, self-reported readiness, and morale as well-being. It seems probable that there is conceptual overlap between morale and commitment.86

The diversity of variables studied as antecedents in the current literature reflect the interest in understanding, developing, and leading committed employees. In this case, Karrasch sought to understand social demographic factors. She examined the relationship of the three components of commitment and the diversity factors of gender, ethnicity, branch of the Army, and tokenism. There was only a modest correlation between minority status members and weaker AC/NC and stronger CC. This research points to a complex issue. Minority status and perceived tokenism are associated with psychological discomfort so the suggestion that they will negatively affect AC makes sense. In contrast, current theory does not support these variables negatively affecting AC and positively affecting CC. To fully understand this issue, greater research is needed between perceived tokenism and minority status group results. As the military undergoes demographic changes, understanding commitment of these groups will be integral to developing and retaining personnel.87

The next question is “what are people committed to?” Early research focused on the organization or occupation but recent literature emphasizes that many different work domains interact with each other. These domains include the organization itself, sub-groups such as a unit, team, or department, and domains outside the organization such as an occupation, union, or individual careers. If both commitment and focus are multi-dimensional, then the complexity is greatly increased. Perhaps due to this complexity, there is little multi-foci research literature. However, Heffner and Gade examined the nested foci of Special Operations Forces in relation to
AC and CC. The study showed that members could distinguish between two foci. This means that they could have strong AC for their nested organization but not to the larger military organization. Therefore, the next question becomes, what happens if the two foci come into conflict and what does that mean for retention and how do people come to feel differently about the two foci? Heffner and Gade’s results suggest that the AC of the foci have overlapping but not identical predictors. To optimize AC in both cases, support should come from the distal foci (organization) and the proximal source (team/supervisor). This multi-dimensional focus of commitment is complex and in the infancy of analysis.

There are multiple factors that make the military a valuable resource for increasing the understanding of organizational commitment, including the diverse nature of the personnel and the ability to pull large samples sizes. Further, the personnel practices allow for long-term studies. There are also several avenues for military research. First, researchers need to develop consistent conceptual and measurement factors. Second, the military is uniquely situated to examine the obligation factors of commitment that are required to understand NC. Third, the impacts of commitment on a wider set of outcomes need study. Fourth, how is commitment developed? Lastly, research needs to address the interaction between antecedents and multiple foci. Many of these issues require study over time and the military possesses the stability to conduct the required longitudinal research.

8. O’Shea, Goodwin, Driskell, Salas, and Ardison: The Many Faces of Commitment: Facet-Level Links to Performance in Military Contexts

As a follow-up to the recommended research avenues in the Military Psychology (Volume 15, Issue 3) special issue, O’Shea et al. extend the understanding of commitment, its foci, and its outcomes within the military context. Military-oriented commitment, in this case,
refers to commitment at the organizational level. They found that team-focused commitment better predicts performance than military-oriented commitment and that soldier’s negative behaviors correlated to decreased military-oriented commitment.

O’Shea et al., examined team- and military-commitment in the context of the Meyer and Allen Multi-Dimensional Commitment Model. Instead of focusing on a single commitment facet, this study examined five different facets, including the team-based and military-based foci, to investigate the commitment-performance relationship. These facets were “relations among supervisor performance ratings and team-based affective commitment (T-AC), team-based normative commitment (T-NC), military-based affective commitment (M-AC), military-based normative commitment (M-NC), and military-based continuance commitment (M-CC).”91 The expectation was that interpersonal and team-oriented behaviors have a stronger correlation to team-commitment than military-commitment, but the “powerful climate and strong behavioral and social norms that permeate the military may generate the opposite effect.”92

Like commitment, performance is also multi-dimensional. Task performance impacts organizational effectiveness through task-oriented expertise and reflect the “can do” nature of performance. Conversely, contextual performance supports the organizational and social environment or the discretionary aspects of performance. The study focused on contextual performance to identify behaviors that are impacted by attitudes. Further, contextual performance includes interpersonal facilitation, or behaviors that contribute to organizational goals, and self-disciplined job dedication behaviors, like rule-following and hard-work.93 This study focuses on five contextual, interpersonal team-oriented behaviors or criterions:

1. Responsibility to Others: The extent to which a soldier fulfills his or her duties to other individuals or to a group and assists others who need help
2. Cooperation: The degree to which soldiers work cooperatively with others to meet a goal
3. Sociability: The degree to which soldiers are friendly and pleasant during their interactions with others
4. Negativity: The extent to which a soldier is moody, irritable, or easily stressed by negative life events
5. Dominance: The degree to which a soldier fails to take others’ suggestions and feelings into account when making decisions, does not listen to others, and dominates group interactions

Based on previous findings, O'Shea et al., hypothesized that AC positively relates to the performance criteria and CC negatively relates to performance. Further, the mean for T-AC would be statistically higher than M-AC because AC increases as foci become more proximal. It then follows that the positive relationship between AC and contextual performance would be stronger in team-commitment than military-commitment.

During the study, 193 soldiers completed commitment surveys and 69 supervisors rated the soldiers’ behaviors. The commitment measures included the Meyer and Allen Normative Commitment scale and the shortened Meyer and Allen scale used by the Army Research Institute. Supervisors rated soldiers on the five contextual behaviors as well as Van Scotter and Motowidlo’s seven contextual performance items.

After analysis, the reliabilities for the commitment and performance scales are consistent with previous research but they are higher for the affective commitment scales. The correlation between affective and normative commitment is higher within a focus than across foci. For example, T-AC strongly correlates to T-NC but team-commitment correlates to military-commitment to a lesser degree. The weakest relation is M-CC to T-AC, but all links were significantly positive across the commitment facets.

With respect to commitment-performance correlations, T-AC and T-NC exhibited the strongest and most consistent links to contextual performance. In contrast, there were fewer links to military-commitment and M-CC did not significantly correlate to any of the contextual performance criteria. Further, team-commitment related significantly to cooperative work ethic
and performance and marginally related to the responsibility to others criterion. Counter to this trend, only M-AC predicted the negativity criterion. In addition, no criteria exhibited a significant interaction between team- and military-commitment. Finally, the T-AC and T-NC means were higher than the M-AC and M-NC means.98

These results reinforce the view that AC demonstrates stronger links to performance than other commitment components and the consistent pattern indicates that the increase in performance may be strongest when there is a bond with team members rather than only toward the organization. The results also support the trend that AC, NC, and CC tend to be higher in military samples than non-military studies and may indicate that the value-based facet of commitment in the military may not be partitionable from the bonds that create the affect.99

IV. Analysis

The following tables gather the data from all the readings to find commonalities and trends. These trends provide a clearer understand of what commitment is, why it is important, what individuals are committed to and to build the virtue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Becker</strong> (Psychological)</th>
<th>• Lines of action a person feels obligated to take due to cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meyer and Allen</strong> (Psychological)</td>
<td>• Multidimensional, psychological state that characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gade et al., O’Shea et al. &amp; Allen</strong> (Psych)</td>
<td>• Same as Meyer &amp; Allen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>González &amp; Guillén</strong> (Psychological tied to ethics)</td>
<td>• Psychological attachment or bound, that is the result of a personal voluntary decision, based on calculated rationality, affective tendencies and moral judgement, which conducts to a higher or lower degree of identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization, and that is observable throughout free effort extended in accomplishing organizational goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Watson</strong> (Ethics)</td>
<td>• Strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Keithley</strong> (Ethics)</td>
<td>• Obligation to the values principals of the constitution and an internalization of the purpose, rules, values, and obligations of the military service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>USMC</strong> (Ethics)</td>
<td>• The spirit of determination and dedication within members of a force of arms that leads to professionalism and mastery of the art of war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>USN</strong> (Ethics)</td>
<td>• The day-to-day duty of every man/woman in the Department of the Navy is to join together as a team to improve the quality of our work, our people and ourselves.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3A: Definition of Commitment 1-4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Becker</th>
<th>• Conscious side-bet calculations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Meyer & Allen | • Affective: emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organization; Want to stay  
  • Continuance: cost-benefit analysis; Need to stay  
  • Normative: feeling of obligation; Ought to stay |
| Gade et al. | Same as Meyer & Allen |
| Allen | • Same as Meyer & Allen  
  • Military personnel can distinguish between affective (AC), normative (NC), and continuance commitment (CC) |
| O'Shea et al. | Same as Meyer & Allen |
| González & Guillén | • Affective: Attachment or loyalty; Want to stay; Aristotle’s pleasant goods; Emotional  
  • Continuance: Cost or lack of alternatives; Need to Stay; Aristotle’s useful goods  
  • Normative: moral internalization; Obligation to stay; Aristotle’s moral goods; Rational |
| Watson | • Affective: Emotional attachment, recognition of the value of, identification with an organization; Potentially related to ethical values  
  • Continuance: Instrumental evaluation of membership  
  • Normative: Perceived obligation to remain that develops when an individual internalizes norms; Potentially related to ethical values |
| Keithley | • Moral obligation to lead the men and women into combat to kill and be killed.  
  • Duty: The obligation to serve  
  • Belief in the rules, values, and obligations of the organization |
| U.S. Military | • Core Values: Honor, Courage, and Commitment  
  • Selflessness, espirit, professionalism, will, |

Table 3B: Basis of Commitment 5-7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Becker</th>
<th>• Account for consistent lines of activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meyer &amp; Allen</td>
<td>• Predicts work behaviors, including retention, job performance, loyalty, and neglect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Gade et al. | • Predict reenlistment intentions and job behaviors  
  • Demonstrated relationship between commitment and performance |
| Allen | NC are positively correlated to leader behavior while CC was negatively correlated |
| O'Shea et al. | Qualitative nature of both commitment and performance matter because not all components of commitment correlate to all forms of job performance |
| Keithley | • Professionalism and military ethics provide the foundation for moral decisions  
  • Commitment is an ethical virtue required for military leadership  
  • Military leadership is an ethical imperative due to its importance to mission success and the ethical responsibility for the lives and actions of those they command |

Table 3C: Why Is Commitment Important

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Becker</th>
<th>• Courses of action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Meyer & Allen | • Focus or entity: people, collectives, or activities  
  • Constituencies w/in an org: management, team, coworkers, supervisors or Domains: organizations, union, profession |
| Allen | • Interaction of commitment to different work domains; Multi-dimensional |
| O'Shea et al. | • Team; Military |
| González & Guillén | • Attitudinal: entities  
  • Behavioral: courses of action |
| Keithley | • Constitution; Defense of the nation; To the men and women that they lead; Responsibility to fellow servicemen |

Table 3D: What Are People Committed To
### Table 3E: How to Build Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Becker</th>
<th>• Raise costs of leaving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meyer &amp; Allen</td>
<td>• Affective Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Fair, honest, well-communicated, supportive work experiences &amp; HRM policies; Socialization and training; Manage perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Continuance Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Raise costs of leaving; Transactional contracts; Manage perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Normative Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Socialization; Relational contracts; Manage perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen</td>
<td>• Support from both distal and proximal organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>González &amp; Guillén</td>
<td>• Affective: Work Exchange; Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Continuance: Economic exchange; Transactional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Normative: Social exchange; Relational; Develop moral judgements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keithley</td>
<td>• Training, character, professionalism, leadership, and military ethics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3F: Antecedents of Commitment

| Meyer & Allen               | • Organizational Characteristics; Personal characteristics; Work experiences; Socialization Experiences; Management Practices; Environmental Conditions; Role states; Psychological contracts |
| González & Guillén          | • Organizational variables; Personal variables; Environmental variables; Found in psychological contracts |
| Watson                      | • Same as Meyer and Allen plus: |
|                             | o Organizational ethical values; Benevolent leadership; Perceived leader integrity; Organizational fairness |
| Keithley                    | • Character |
|                             | • Acceptance of ultimate liability |

### Table 3G: How Commitment is Observed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Becker</th>
<th>• Consistent behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meyer &amp; Allen</td>
<td>• Retention; Productive behavior; Employee well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O’Shea et al.</td>
<td>• Task performance; Contextual performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>González &amp; Guillén</td>
<td>• Turnover; Absenteeism; Job performance; Change acceptance; Organizational citizenship behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keithley</td>
<td>• Character; Acceptance of ultimate liability; Professionalism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3H: Influences on Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Becker</th>
<th>• Costs: social, bureaucratic, financial, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meyer &amp; Allen</td>
<td>• Affective Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Organizational characteristics that are perceived as fair; Perception of work experiences; Need Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Continuance Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Perception of costs; Investments &amp; alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Normative Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Perception of loyalty; Expectations &amp; obligations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O’Shea et al.</td>
<td>• Team commitment exerts great influence than military/organizational commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>González &amp; Guillén</td>
<td>• The need for useful goods, the desire for pleasant goods, or the obligation to find the moral good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watson</td>
<td>• Perception of ethical leader behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keithley</td>
<td>• Professionalism; Virtues; Ethics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Commitment is a multi-dimensional psychological attachment that is the result of a personal choice, based on rationality, affective tendencies, and moral judgement. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment comprise an individual’s commitment profile. The emotional attachment, identifications with, and recognition of value of an entity define affective commitment. Conversely, continuance commitment is the rational evaluation of costs and benefits of maintaining membership in an organization or the continuance of a behavior. Finally, normative commitment is the perceived obligation that occurs when an individual internalizes norms and values. It is important to realize that individuals demonstrate commitment to multiple entities, from their team, to organization, to profession, to entities outside of the work environment like family. Each commitment profile can affect the others in a positive or negative manner. However, how commitment conflicts are resolved is not yet fully understood.
Commitment is important, because levels of commitment determine not only if an individual will remain in an organization but also how well they will perform. In both civilian and military studies, individuals with high affective and high normative commitment demonstrate higher retention intentions, loyalty, job performance, ethical leadership, and job satisfaction. They are more likely to act in the interests of the organization and in accordance with organizational values. In contrast, individuals with high continuance commitment will remain in the organization but are much less likely to contribute to organizational goals in a meaningful way or perform duties beyond the requirements to remain in the organization.

Therefore, it is important that organizations build and manage commitment. The most effective way to increase affective commitment is through supportive, well-communicated, and fair work experiences, training, and human resource management policies. When people perceive that they are valued and treated fairly, they reciprocate with increased affective commitment. At the same time, perception of socialization, expectations, and relational contracts can increase normative commitment. Individuals need to perceive consistent values and fairness of the entity for them to identify with internalize the values of their organization.

V. Recommendations and Conclusion

Traditionally, commitment in the military means an acceptance of the obligation to the values and principles of the Constitution and the internalization of the obligation and values. It begins with the promise made when a person takes the oath of office or enlistment. It is a promise to defend the Constitution and to be loyal to the values of the profession. It is the acceptance of the special trust and confidence given by the President of the United States and the acceptance of duty. It is dedication and determination required to carry out that duty. Commitment is part of the service core values, integral to professionalism, and is a major reason
the U.S. military succeeds in its mission. That is not to say that other organizations and professions do not inspire and require commitment, but that commitment is not the same.

Normative commitment in the military requires the acceptance of ultimate liability, the duty to put service to the nation before oneself. Who are you? Once a Marine, always a Marine, Big A – Airman, I am a United States Sailor, I am a United States Soldier, I am a Veteran. The identification with an entity, recognition of core values, and emotional attachment is affective commitment in the military. However, force management policies often focus on continuance commitment or increasing the costs of leaving. Commitment is more complicated than that. It is influenced by ethical leadership, the perception of fairness, and value that the organization places on the member. It is part of the ethical foundation that informs individual decision making.

To fully realize the value of commitment, the services should invest in longitudinal studies on commitment with a focus on multiple foci and normative commitment. A fuller understanding of commitment could inform better HRM practices and policies that directly affect commitment levels and therefore retention intentions. Second, professional military education should incorporate commitment into ethics instruction. The internalization of values, ethical leadership, and moral decision making are all antecedents of commitment. A greater understanding of ethics will increase internalization of those values.

Commitment includes emotional attachments, a rational analysis, and obligations. It is complicated, yet fundamental to military service. Understanding commitment enables leaders to foster its growth and understand its effects.
Notes


3 Ibid.


10 U.S. Army, “The Army Values.”


12 Department of the Navy, “Core Values Charter.”


15 Ibid., 26.

16 Ibid., Chapter IV: The Central Values of the Soldier and IV-A: Military Leadership as an Ethical Virtue. For a discussion on selfless service and sacrifice, honor, loyalty and integrity see section IV-B: The Essential Modern Military Virtues.

17 Ibid., 35-36.

18 Ibid., Chapter V-A: The Military Virtues, Revisited. This chapter includes duty, courage, commitment, country, honesty and truthfulness, and competence. This synopsis only covers duty and commitment.


24 Howard Becker, “Notes on the Concept of Commitment,” 32.

25 Ibid., 33.

26 Ibid., 35.
This section is a summary of: John P. Meyer and Natalie Jean Allen, *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application, Advanced Topics in Organizational Behavior, Vol. 2* (Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc., 1997). The authors and summary refer to the following works:


- John P. Meyer and Natalie Jean Allen, *Commitment in the Workplace, 12.* From:
  - Howard Becker, “Notes on the Concept of Commitment,” 32.
  - B. Buchannan, “Building Organizational Commitment,” 553.
  - D.T. Hall, B. Schneider, and H.T. Nygren, “Personal Factors in Organizational Identification,” 176-177.
  - L.G. Hrebiniai and J.A. Alutto, “Personal and Role-Related Factors,” 556.
  - M.E. Sheldon, “Investments and Involvements,” 143.

This chapter details studies and results that are summarized in the table.
1. Ibid., 51-56
2. Ibid., 56-60
3. Ibid., 60. From:
   - R.W. Scholl, “Differentiating Commitment from Expectancy as a Motivating Force.”
   - Y. Wiener, “Commitment in Organizations: A Normative View.”
4. Ibid., 60-64.
5. Ibid., 87-90
6. Ibid., 92.
7. Ibid., 93-104.
8. Ibid., 106.
51 González, Tomás F. and Manuel Guillén, “Organizational Commitment: A Proposal for a Wider Ethical Conceptualization,” 402. From:
53 Ibid., 402. Antecedents were developed by John P. Meyer and Natalie Jean Allen (1997) and Iverson, and D. M. Buttigieg (1999).
57 Ibid., 406
58 Ibid., 403.
60 Ibid., 408.
61 Ibid.
62 Ibid., 408-409.
63 Ibid., 409.
64 Ibid., 410.
65 Ibid., 410-411.
66 Ibid., 411.
67 This section is a summary of: Teresa Watson, “Leader Ethics and Organizational Commitment” Undergraduate Leadership Review III, no. I (April 2010): 16-26 (Regent University School of Global Leadership and Entrepreneurship presented at Christopher Newport University on Ethical Leadership). The author and summary refer to the following works:

68 Teresa Watson, “Leader Ethics and Organizational Commitment,” 17 From
- P.C. Nystrom, “Differences in Moral Values Between Corporations,” 971
- Milton Rokeach, *Understanding Human Values*.

69 Ibid., 17.
71 Ibid., 18.
72 Ibid., 19.
73 Ibid.
74 Ibid.
75 Ibid.
76 Ibid., 23-24.
77 This section is a summary of: P.A. Gade, R.B. Tiggle, and W.R. Schumm, “The Measurement and Consequence of Military Organizational Commitment in Soldiers and Spouses,” *Military Psychology* 15, no. 3 (2003): 191-207. EBSCOhost (AN10362769). The authors and summary refer to the following works:

79 Ibid., 192.
80 Ibid., 192-195
81 Ibid., 198-203.
82 Ibid., 205-206.
83 This section is a summary of: Natalie J. Allen, "Organizational Commitment in the Military: A Discussion of Theory and Practice," *Military Psychology* 15, no. 3 (2003): 237-253. EBSCOhost (AN10362766). Both Allen and the synopsis reference the following articles:

84 Ibid., 237.
85 Ibid., 239-240.
86 Ibid., 239-245.
87 Ibid., 246-248.
88 Ibid., 248-250.
89 Ibid., 250-251.
90 This section is a summary of: O’Shea, Patrick G., Gerald F. Goodwin, James E Driskell, Eduardo Salas, and Sharon Ardison, “The Many Faces of Commitment: Facet-Level Links to Performance in Military Contexts,” *Military Psychology* 21 (2009): 5-23. The authors and summary refer to the following works:

91 Ibid., 9.
92 Ibid.
93 Ibid., 10.
94 Ibid.
95 Ibid., 11.
96 Ibid., 13.
97 Ibid., 14.
98 Ibid., 19-21.
99 Ibid.
100 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
101 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
102 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
103 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
104 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
105 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
106 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
107 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
108 This table draws from the summaries in the previous sections. Reference endnotes for Section III: Readings.
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