

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides theoretical issues and integrative literature review related to organizational commitment which is based on Meyer and Allen's studies (1991) and organizational citizenship behavior which is based on Organ's studies (1988). It describes the concepts, provides definitions from major authors and studies, presents the framework, delineates the antecedents and the organizational outcomes that have been linked to organizational commitment and to organizational citizenship behavior, citing empirical studies.

Organizational Commitment (OC)

Defining Organizational Commitment

Various literature define Organizational Commitment (OC) in many different ways. The decade of the 1980s was an important one for organizational theorists. As attention was focused on increased organizational performance, new research into the concept of commitment became more intense and focused. During this decade and until the present, there are three accepted definitions for organizational commitment that have dominated the direction of commitment research (Milligan, 2003). Each definition addresses commitment in terms of it being applied to employees. Mowday et al. (1979,

p. 225) described the first approach as behavioral, in that an employee displays his or her commitment through binding personal actions or overt manifestations of commitment. In such cases, individuals have one or more choices as to what actions they may take (leave or stay with the organization), but choose to remain committed despite those alternatives. Examples of behavioral commitment are described in literature in terms of costs and benefits.

A second application was also described by Mowday et al. (1979, p. 225). They identified commitment as attitudinal approach, in that an employee identifies with the parent organization such that the employee's integration with the organization's goals and vision is inextricably aligned. Unlike the behavioral approach, the employee under the attitudinal approach is not making commitment decisions based upon costs and benefits. Rather, the employee's personal goals align with the organization such that the employee desires to remain with the organization in order to further his own personal goals, which may include rewards and benefits from the parent organization. Therefore, organizational commitment consists of 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. These three characteristics suggest that organizational commitment involves more than mere passive loyalty to the organization. It involves an active relationship with the organization in which employees are willing to give of themselves and make a personal contribution to help the organization succeed.

Finally, Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) defined organizational commitment as a psychological approach that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization with its implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization. From the variety of definitions, a common theme emerged which is the view that commitment is a psychological state that characterizes the employee's bond with the organization, and has implications for the decision to remain with the organization. In addition, organizational commitment has been conceptualized as an employee's participation in, sense of belonging to, and emotional attachment to an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). They also described a committed employee as one who will stay with the organization through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full day (and maybe more), protects company assets, and shares company goals. However, from the definitions of organizational commitment, one can see that they are connected to the organization as a whole, with the interpretation of the term organizational commitment as describing the relationship of an employee to the organization. Although, there have been many different conceptualizations of the nature of organizational commitment, the idea for investigation is based on the conceptualization of Meyer and Allen's studies (1991). Meyer and Allen's model of commitment was chosen for this study, because it has undergone the most extensive empirical evaluation to date.

In Meyer and Allen's studies (1991) a three-component nature or mode of organizational commitment was developed. This three-component model was developed from an identification of common themes in the

conceptualizations taken from their previous research works. They first identified two dimensions of organizational commitment, affective attachment and cost attachment. After continued research, they identified another dimension, which was obligation. The three distinct components of organizational commitment then, are affective orientation, cost-based orientation, and obligation or moral responsibility. In other words, these are three mind sets which characterize an employee's commitment to the organization: Affective, continuance or cost-based orientation and normative commitment or obligation. Rather than existing exclusively of each other, the three may be exhibited concurrently. They will be detailed in the following paragraphs.

Affective Commitment (AC) refers to employees' perception of the emotional attachment or identification with the organization and exhibit a deep sense of involvement with the organization. That means they desire to remain in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue working in the organization because they have no desire to leave nor do they want to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Continuance Commitment (CC) refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization or perceived cost of leaving. Employees with a strong continuance commitment to an organization recognize that leaving the organization may be detrimental to them financially due to the lack of employment alternatives and a loss of investments (e.g. personal relationships, pension plans). So, employees with strong continuance commitment remain with the organization because they need to do so

(Meyer & Allen, 1991). It is much closer to economists' ideas on how weighing the costs of leaving versus staying, determines the employee's decision to leave or stay.

Normative Commitment (NC) is the employees' perception of their normal obligation to the organization or perceived obligation to remain. It was developed on the basis that the organization made a particular kind of investment in the employee, which gives the employee a sense of obligation to the organization. For example, the organization may have invested resources in training an employee who then feels a 'moral' obligation to put forth effort on the job and stay with the organization to repay the debt. It may also reflect an internalized norm, developed before the person joins the organization through family or other socialization processes, that one should be loyal to one's organization. Employees with a strong normative commitment stay with the organization because they feel they ought to. It is a sense of ethical obligation tying the employee to the organization morally. Normative commitment is also related to a feeling of pressure to conform to the organizational culture (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

As early as Meyer, Sampo, Ian, Coffin, and Jackson (1989) argued that an employee with a strong affective commitment remains with his or her organization longer because he or she wants to while an employee with a strong continuance commitment stay with the organization because he or she needs the employment for economic reasons. In addition, an employee with a strong normative commitment feels he or she has a moral obligation to stay in the organization. Normative commitment was developed on the basis that

the organization made a particular kind of investment in the employee, which gives the employee a sense of obligation to the organization. So, in simple terms of organizational commitment dimensions, people stay with the organization either because they want to (affective), or because they need to (continuance), or because they feel they ought to (normative) (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Moreover, Bragg (2002, pp. 14-16) expanded the term “want to” to the employees who show up for work with a positive attitude, outperform their counterparts, and take on additional responsibilities. “Need to or Have to” is a trapped employee. They stay because they cannot find other employment, need their benefits, are close to retirement, and they make up 30% of the workforce. “Ought to” are employees who stay because they feel an obligation to their employer for giving them a job when no one else would, or they stay because they feel that is the right thing to do. When examining the classes of employee commitment, it is easy to see that employers strive to find and keep employees who are at or stay at the “want to” level. These employees are the ones who enjoy their work, find a sense of belonging to the organization, and look for ways to improve the organization as well as their standing within the organization. The employees at the “want to” level will have the highest commitment because they have a stronger belief in the organization, have more responsibilities, and enjoy their task of improving the organization. The employees at the “have to or need to” level remain with the organization because they are looking for security for their family; they are not looking for new challenges and are secure with the work they do



to help the organization. The “have to or need to” employees will have a commitment level that will be at the average level-not too high nor too low; they stay working for other reasons other than a strong belief in the organization. The last commitment class, the “ought to” are the employees who are working not because they want to be but because they feel a sense of obligation to sources other than the organization. The “ought to” employees can be steered to perform work others might not do and they usually do not do more than the basics of what their job requires and their employee commitment level will be below average.

The levels of all three elements of commitment are related to the relationship between the individual and the organization. The strength of each type, however, is influenced by different factors. Affective attachment to the organization is influenced by the extent to which the individuals’ needs and expectations about them are matched by their actual experiences (McDonald & Makin, 1999). Research focusing on employee work experiences suggested that employees whose work experiences are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs tend to develop stronger affective attachment to the organization (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Continuance commitment, on the other hand, is determined by the perceived costs of leaving the organization. In particular, side-bets and other investments are an important determinant. Some authors have suggested that this dimension may be further sub-divided. They suggest that continuance may comprise personal sacrifice associated with leaving, and limited opportunities for other

employment (McDonald & Makin, 1999). Research into continuance commitment suggests that this component consists of two related sub-dimensions: Personal sacrifice and perceived lack of alternatives (Dunham et al., 1994; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990). Both personal sacrifice and perceived lack of employment alternatives increase the costs associated with leaving the organization (Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1993). Normative commitment is a perceived obligation to stay with the organization. It is based upon generally accepted rules about reciprocal obligations between organizations and their employees (McDonald & Makin, 1999). Employees who are normatively committed to the organization remain because they believe that it is the right and moral thing to do (Wiener, 1982).

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that the three components develop somewhat independently as a function of different experiences and different implications for job behavior. In general, antecedents of affective commitment are those work experiences that satisfy employees' needs to feel comfortable in their relationship with the organization and to feel competent in their work-role. It may be a measure of the relative strength of an individual's involvement with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). Continuance commitment may be affected by the employee of organization-relevant investments and perceived employment alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1991). A study has shown that individuals are bound by sunk costs such as tenure and pension plans invested in the organization, and may therefore not be able to afford to separate themselves from these side bets (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Antecedents of normative commitment are phrased in terms of an

individual's general sense of obligation: Those individuals who value loyalty in general tend to exhibit greater loyalty to the work organization. Feeling of obligation toward an organization may be influenced by an individual's familial and cultural socialization which occur prior to and following entry into the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Committed employees are more likely to remain with the organization, work toward the attainment of organizational goals, exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization, and show acceptance of the organization's major goals and values (Mowday et al., 1982). As such, organizational commitment is considered an important employee quality for organizations as it is indicative of a more stable, engaged and higher performing employee.

In review, organizational commitment has been defined in a number of ways. Arguably, Meyer and Allen (1991) present the clearest articulation of organizational commitment. They capture the common elements found in other definitions: Attachment, identification, internalization, exerting effort on behalf of the organization and in exchange for benefits and rewards. They also argued that an employee can experience all three forms of commitment in varying degrees. Moreover, White, Parks, and Gallagher (1995) found that organizational commitment could be viewed as a multidimensional construct that although it was applied in Japan, the organizational commitment questionnaire is an effective cross-cultural tool for measuring organizational commitment. In addition, scholars observed that positive relationships among the three components of organizational commitment (Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment) tend

to be relatively high in military samples and argued that this pattern is worth exploring in future research (Allen, 2003; O'Shea, Goodwin, Driskell, Salas, & Ardison, 2009). Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggested that this model is suitable to the military, all three components of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) could increase the likelihood of soldiers remaining in the Army. In addition, various military personnel exhibit these three components of organizational commitment to the military at different levels. Thus, this study uses Meyer and Allen's definition (1991) of organizational commitment. Furthermore, the three-component model was chosen to guide the present investigation because it provided insight as to why rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army region are committed to their organization.

The Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

While defining organizational commitment is important in this study, it is equally important to look at the antecedents of organizational commitment. Many researchers have studied the antecedents to commitment. Significant past research has identified various factors or characteristics that serve as antecedents to commitment, being correlated either negatively or positively to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Yoon & Thye, 2002). Some of the research looked at such personal characteristics as age, gender, educational level, organizational status, marital status, salary, work ethic, and tenure with the organization. Another area of research looked at the effects of organizational drivers such as the characteristics of job description, leadership style, and organizational commitment to its

employees. Other research looked at change and examined how the environment affected employee commitment levels (Granger, 2009).

Mowday et al. (1982) proposed that antecedents of organizational commitment are typically reduced into four categories: Personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work characteristics. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) assembled the possible antecedents of organizational commitments, and they also conducted meta-analysis to estimate the correlations between organizational commitment and each of the potential antecedents. They identified five categories that represent influences which are antecedents to organizational commitment. According to their meta-analysis, the antecedents of organizational commitment were five categories: Personal characteristics, job characteristics, group leader relations, organizational characteristics, and role states. Personal characteristics included age, gender, education, marital status, position and organizational tenure, perceived personal competence, ability, salary, Protestant work ethic, and job level. The second antecedent group was job characteristics, including skill variety, task autonomy, challenge, and job scope. Group cohesiveness, task interdependence, leader initiating structure, leader consideration, leader communication, and participative leadership constitute the third group of group leader relations. The next category of antecedents was organizational characteristics, including size and centralization. The final antecedent group was role states which included role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload.

Meyer and Allen (1991) only used four categories: Personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work characteristics

in their discussion of antecedents, but combined job-related characteristics (objectives) and work experience (subjective). This research focused on personal characteristics in terms of demographic factors.

Demographic Factors and Organizational Commitment

A wide range of demographic factors have been investigated in relationship to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Many of these factors such as age, tenure, gender, and educational level have been connected to organizational commitment. Much research has been done in this area (Angle & Perry, 1983; Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Bruning & Snyder, 1983; King, 2002; Liou & Nyhan, 1994; Mottaz, 1988; Salami, 2008; Smith, Gregory, & Cannon, 1996). However, only a handful of researchers focused on the Asian setting, and very few are relevant or specific to Thai rangers. This study intends to contribute to the existing knowledge base, in particular, from a Thai perspective.

Age. A number of studies have suggested that age has a significant impact on organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Williams & Hazer, 1986). In Mathieu and Zajac's meta-analysis (1990) of the antecedents of the antecedents of organizational commitment, their results showed that age had a moderately positive correlation with organizational commitment. They also reported that older respondents had higher levels of organizational commitment. The studies about organizational commitment of industrial workers found that a worker's age and seniority contributed to greater organizational commitment. It can be said that older workers were more

committed to the organization than the younger workers (Bar-Hayim & Berman, 1992; Salami, 2008). In addition, Foosiri (2002) revealed a positive correlation between age and organizational commitment of Thai employees within the American Chamber of Commerce in Thailand. Al-Kahanti (2005), also found that age correlated with all three types of organizational commitment. Kaur and Sandhu (2010) indicated that employees of India's private and public sector banks in their late-career stage (age group 45 years and above) and mid-career stage (between 31 and 44 years) were significantly more committed to the organization on all the dimensions of organizational commitment than those in early-career stage (30 years old or below). The study indicates that the mindset of the older employees is different from those of younger employees.

Stability of work and personal life assume greater importance for them. Older employees are more likely to adapt to norms and procedures of the organization and make themselves comfortable to their job.

Moreover, age was predictive of organizational commitment of Mexican employees in a U.S. firm located in Mexico (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998). It was also predictive of affective commitment among high school principals in the U.S. (Hawkins, 2000). Sommer, Bae, and Luthens (1996) also found that organizational commitment among Korean employees increases with age. Kuchinke, Kang, and Oh (2008) study showed the same result with Korean mid-level employees in diverse industries, indicating that age differences correlated with various work-related parameters. Organizational leaders realize the importance of their employees' ages as they plan for global

expansion. Similarly a study on organizational commitment of nurses in Australia found the correlation between commitment and age as being positive and statistically significant. Lok and Crawford (1999) The same result was found with nurses in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Al-Aameri, 2000). This study showed that the older the participant, the greater was the degree of commitment and it reflects the notion of sunk costs (Staw & Ross, 1977) which was perceived as an investment in the organization. It can be said that older employees view their past years of service to the organization as an investment, and will have the psychological barrier that it would be more difficult for them to shift from one job to another. Long-service employees also develop affective attachment to their organization. Therefore they tend to be more committed to the organization. These results are consistent with research works of several researchers (Labatmediene, Endriulaitiene, & Gustainiene, 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Newstrom, 2007; Staw & Ross, 1977; Valenti, 2001; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Breukelen, Vlist, and Steenisma (2004) found a strong positive correlation between age and organizational commitment among the Royal Netherlands Navy officers. Azeem (2010) also found age was the significant predictor of organizational commitment among employees in Muscat, Saudi Arabia.

On the other hand, findings of a meta-analysis by Cohen (1993) indicated the relationship of age and organizational commitment across various employment stages, but the correlation was weak. Stronger relationship for age and commitment was found in the early employment stage. Hollman (2008)

also found that the younger the employees of Fortune's 500 companies the greater are their organizational commitment. The same results were found among employees of a TV production company in Turkey (Gurses & Demiray, 2009) and among employees of knitwear organizations in Pakistan (Iqbal, 2010). However, Gurses and Demiray (2009) found that there is no significant difference in the average points of affective commitment between various age groups, but continuance commitment is higher in the over 40 age group and normative commitment is higher in the 17-22 age group when compared to other groups. King (2002) conducted meta-analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment and reported that age had a low correlation with organizational commitment. Kirchmeyer (1995) and Madsen, Miller, and John (2005) also determined that organizational commitment was slightly related to age. It is suggested that younger employees are more committed than older employees because they are highly motivated to start a career and are able to cope with change, whereas older employees are less committed because they are often disappointed and frustrated when structural instability due to change occurs (Morris, Lydka, & O'Creevy, 1993). Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that younger employees might have more commitment because they are aware of the fact that with less work experience, they often have fewer job opportunities elsewhere. As they get more experience, however, alternative employment opportunities may increase, thus decreasing the magnitude of one important cost of leaving, that of having no job.

However, Kuruuzum, Cetin, and Irmak (2009) reported that age had no effect on organizational commitment levels of the five-star hotel employees in Turkey. Goulet and Singh (2002) also concluded that organizational commitment was not related to age. Similar to studies of Colbert and Kwon (2000), and Iqbal (2010) that failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organizational commitment.

Thus, with regards to the present study, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{o1} There is no significant difference between age and organizational commitment of rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Marital Status. It also impacts on organizational commitment (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). Married employees are more committed than those who are single (Angle & Perry, 1983; Gurses & Demiray, 2009; Salami, 2008). This can be explained by their family responsibilities, stability and job security which the average married employees need more than the unmarried employees (Gurses & Demiray, 2009; Tsui, Leung, Cheung, Mok, & Ho, 1994). Al-Aameri (2000) also found that married nurses in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia show more commitment than widowed ones. In addition, Harris (2003) found that enlisted and officer personnel of the United States Air Force who are married, have more affective commitment than those who are single. However, some previous research found no significant difference between the three components of organizational commitment and marital status (Brady 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₀₂ There is no significant difference between marital status and organizational commitment of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Educational Level. It has been reported to be negatively correlated with organizational commitment. Employees with higher levels of education tend to have lower levels of organizational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Gurses & Demiray, 2009; Iqbal, 2010; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mottaz, 1988; Steers, 1977). The more education an employee has the less committed he or she is likely to be to the organization (Glisson & Durick, 1988). In addition, the result of One-way analysis of variance--ANOVA showed significant differences in organizational commitment across four educational level groups of non-management personnel employees in various Lithuanian organizations. The most committed were those subjects who had vocational education, less committed were those who had general education and the lowest organizational commitment was found in employees with graduate and postgraduate education (Labatmediene et al., 2007). It can be argued that the higher education groups might be offered more job opportunities unlike the less educated ones. DeCotiis & Summers (1987) indicated that this inverse relationship is attributable to the fact that more highly educated individuals have higher expectations. They are therefore more likely to feel that their employers are not rewarding them adequately, and so the level of organizational commitment is diminished.

Contrary to the above statements, one study found is a positive relationship between U.S. army officers who graduated from the U.S. Military Academy

and their organizational commitment. Besides, they are more likely to report a higher level of organizational commitment than others (Lu, 2003). Similarly, a study of organizational commitment of employees in several companies in Thailand found a positive relationship between education and organizational commitment (Ngamchokchaicharoen, 2003). Salami (2008) also reported that both private and public Nigerian workers with higher educational qualifications were more committed to their organizations. This result is consistent with the research works of Simmons (2005). The positive relationship between education and commitment might be due to the fact that employees who had more education occupied higher status positions and were more involved in decision making in the organization (Simmons, 2005). However, the study of Lok and Crawford (1999) found that there was only a very low positive correlation between commitment and education among nurses in Australia. McNabb (2009) also found that the level of education of southwestern U.S. policemen have relatively little impact on organizational commitment.

Brady (1997) examined the organizational commitment of the professional staff in health and human service organizations where and results revealed no significant difference between the three components of organizational commitment and level of education. This is similar to the result of a research work by Kuruuzum et al. (2009). Harrison and Hubbard (1998) also reported that education was unrelated to organizational commitment among Mexican employees.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:



H_{o3} There is no significant difference between educational level and organizational commitment of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Position. Defined as social or official rank, it has been associated with organizational commitment. However, the literature on the effect of position within the organization on commitment is somewhat contradictory. Some previous studies have indicated that position related to organization commitment (Brief & Aldag, 1980; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Gurses & Demiray, 2009; Mottaz, 1988). On the other hand, two studies of social service organizations found that position did not have an effect on organizational commitment (Bruning & Snyder, 1983; Giffords, 2003).

As to rank, it is defined as an official position or grade. McNabb (2009) found that there was only a very low positive correlation between commitment and rank among southwestern U.S. policemen. Officers who occupy lower ranks might be more inclined to leave because they are less invested in the department and in their jobs, whereas officers with higher ranks might be less able to change jobs regardless of their level of satisfaction or commitment due simply to their inability to move into a job with similar pay, benefits, or status. Metcalfe and Dick (2000), in their results from a study of a police force in England, also revealed that organizational commitment increased with rank, while other studies have found the opposite effects (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Van Maane, 1975). Several studies of police organizations have also found rank to be negatively associated with

organizational commitment (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; McElroy, Morrow, & Wardlow, 1999).

In addition, U.S. active duty air force personnel and government civil service employees also showed a significant difference in employees' position or rank with regards to their organizational commitment. Senior level military personnel have the highest commitment level and the lowest commitment level was found among lowest enlisted military employees (Metscher, 2005). This is because higher level supervisors can make the greatest impact on an organization by the authority of their position (Brown, 1969).

Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{o4} There is no significant difference between the type of ranger and their organizational commitment in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Organizational Tenure. This refers to the length of time one has worked in an organization. Iqbal (2010) found that that length of service is significantly associated with organizational commitment among employees in Pakistan. Salami (2008) reported that workers in Nigeria with longer job tenure had more commitment than newly employed workers. Lu (2003) also reported that the organizational tenure of U.S. army officers is positively related to their organizational commitment. Similarly, the study of Breukelen et al. (2004) found a strong positive correlation between tenure and organizational commitment of the Royal Netherlands Navy officers. These are consistent with previous researches of Mathieu and Zajac (1990), Mathieu and Hamel (1989). The length of service in an organization is

positively related to the level of internalization of organizational values which results in greater commitment from the individual (Allen & Meyer, 1990; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Tenure of Mexican employees in a U.S. firm located in Mexico was also found to be significantly correlated with commitment (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998). In addition, Heinzman (2004) found that all three components of organizational commitment have a significant relationship to tenure in a study of two manufacturing firms. Similarly, Al-Kahanti (2005) investigated the organizational commitment of the faculty at the Institute of Public Administration. His results revealed that organizational tenure significantly correlated with organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative, overall). Azeem (2010) found that tenure was the significant predictor of organizational commitment among employees in Muscat, Saudi Arabia.

The organizational commitment-tenure relationship was stronger for the late employment stage. Because sunk costs such as accumulated investment and lack of available opportunities also combine to cement the individual's attachment to the organization (Reichers, 1986). Moreover, higher positions, greater prestige and importance are associated with longer age and experience which may have been the reasons for their higher affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment. On the other hand, new comers' low investments, low professional skills and, low prestige may result in their lack of commitment to the organization (Kaur & Sandhu, 2010).

Findings of meta-analysis conducted by Cohen (1993) indicated that the correlation between tenure and organizational commitment was positive but weak ($r = .25$). Teplitzky (1991) in his study of 714 junior officers in the U.S. army also found a small ($r = .17$) positive correlation between years of military service and affective commitment. And, Hawkins (2000) found that affective organizational commitment among high school principals was explained by organizational tenure. Gregersen (1993) stated that medical professionals with less than two years of service and those with more than eight years of service were significantly different in their mean organizational commitment scores. Meyer and Allen (1991) indicated that analyses of organizational tenure generally showed a mild curvilinear relationship whereby middle tenure employees possessed less measured commitment than new or senior level (by age) employees.

On the other hand, among nurses in Australia, no significant correlations were observed between commitment and years in their present position. But the ones with at least 15 working years within the organization, all show greater loyalty to the organization (Lok & Crawford, 1999). Kaur and Sandhu (2010) also reported that no significant difference in any dimension of organizational commitment has been found between employees in early-career stage (up to 2 years of experience), and employees in mid-career stage (3-10 years of experience). Similarly, there was no relationship between length of employment and organizational commitment in research works of several researchers (Labatmediene et al., 2007; Simmons, 2005). Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that this lack relationship between length of employment and organizational

commitment might be due to the fact that longer organizational tenure is not necessarily associated with greater side bets (e.g., pension plans, health insurance, and higher pay) for those who work in long-term care facilities.

Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₀₅ There is no significant difference between organizational tenure and organizational commitment of rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Work Experience. It is the experience that a person has gained from working, or had worked in a specific field or occupation. Work experiences occur during an employee's tenure with the organization. This has also been related to organizational commitment. A study of organizational commitment among nurses in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia showed that more experienced nurses were found to be more committed to their organizations than less experienced ones (Al-Aameri, 2000). Reyes (1989) also reported that teaching experience was correlated with teacher commitment. Moreover, Meyer and Allen (1991) found that the best predictor of affective commitment was work experience. Employees whose work experiences are consistent with their expectations and whose basic needs within the organization are satisfied have a stronger level of affective commitment to the organization. Several researchers have also cited that experience about leader behavior and participative decision making have significant effects on commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Effective training and career development experience have a marked effect on employees' organizational commitment (Bambacas, 2010; Benson, 2003; Wetland,

2003). Maurer (2002) explained that when employees perceived higher developmental feedback, employees are more likely to show higher organizational commitment.

Nevertheless, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₀₆ There is no significant difference between experience in fighting and the organizational commitment of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

In all the above findings however, no statistically significant relationships of any kind were found between the personal characteristics and the organizational commitment of the healthcare professionals in U.S. acute care military hospitals (Gee, 2000). This is similar to the research of Metscher (2005) that did not find statistical significance for tenure, gender, age and education in relation to the commitment of active duty air force personnel and government civil service employees in the U.S. Koslowsky (1990) also found no relationship between demographic characteristics and organizational commitment.

The Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment encompasses actions by individuals that indicate positive involvement with the organization, congruence with established organizational goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Lok & Crawford, 2001). As noted by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) commitment demonstrates an allegiance or

loyalty to the organization that transcends self-interest, supports, and defends organizational goals and objectives. Behaviors that exemplify strong organizational commitment include personal contributions in an effort towards positive change and a sense of spirit. This behavior also entails commitment to remaining with the organization in difficult times and representing the organization to others in a favorable manner.

Meyer and Allen (1997) viewed organizational commitment as a stable attitude, reflecting a general affective response towards the organization as a whole and consequently more closely related to the achievement of long-term organizational goals due to its broader reaching implications. Additionally, commitment is the linkage between the employee and the organization (Mowday et al., 1982) that helps identify the organizational outcomes. Thus, the more committed an employee, the more likely he or she becomes involved and satisfied with their job, performs at a higher level, and stays with the organization longer than an employee with low organizational commitment. Being committed to one's organization leads to working harder, showing up to work on time, and performing beyond the stated job description (Meyer et al., 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somers, 1995). In this context, it can be said that employees with high organizational commitment feelings affect organizational performance in positive ways, lessen the frequency of exhibiting negative behavior and they improve their quality of service (Yilmaz & Bokeoglu, 2008). Furthermore, organizational commitment is considered a useful measure of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975). Organizational commitment is also a multidimensional construct (Morrow, 1983) that has

the potential not only to increase success in a certain role, but also encourage the individual to perform many voluntary actions necessary for organizational life and to successfully achieve high standards for the organization (Katz & Kahn, 1977). Therefore, organizational commitment is critical to leaders seeking to inspire followers to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Leaders may aspire to create workplace practices and human resources policies (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006) in alignment with the desired organizational commitment construct.

Dimensions of organizational commitment also interact in distinct ways to predict outcomes. Affective commitment and normative commitment lead to lower turnover and turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior and better employee health and well-being (Angel & Lawson, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). The consequences for continuance commitment are also lower turnover and turnover intentions (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 2002). Moreover, dimensions of organizational commitment not only interact in distinct ways to predict outcomes but also across cultures. Meyer et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis which found that consequences of organizational commitment vary across cultures. Affective commitment is a more powerful predictor of job outcomes in the United States, whereas normative commitment was more important for job outcomes in studies outside of the United States.

More recently, researchers have begun to suggest possible links between organizational commitment and other organizationally valued outcomes such as strategic planning success (Basu, Hartono, Lederer, & Sethi, 2002), ethical

behavior (Oz, 2001) and organizational citizenship behavior (Ang & Slaughter, 2001; Pare, Tremblay, & Lalonde, 2000; 2001). Particularly, the link between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior has become an important topic for organizational research. Organizational citizenship behavior can be described as discretionary actions taken by employees that are considered extra-role or outside of the requirements of a job description. These actions promote the effective functioning of the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Organizational citizenship behavior is a psychological state that looks to categorize the employee's relationship to the organization (Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, & Davids, 2005). This relationship can be correlated to the level of commitment demonstrated by each employee. Many researchers have supported a strong link between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Bragger, Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner, 2005; Cardona & Espejo, 2002; Feather & Rauter, 2004; Karrasch, 2003; Kwantes, 2003; Riketta, 2002; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Yilmaz & Bokeoglu, 2008).

According to this link, if the organizational commitment is increasing, the organizational citizenship behavior may also increase. The employees who have high level of organizational commitment tend to have high levels of organizational citizenship behavior (Meyer et al., 2002). Organizational citizenship behavior has been viewed as contributing to long-term organizational success because of its function in improving organizational efficiency and effectiveness, innovativeness, and adaptability (Organ, 1988). Many researchers have focused on this outcome of organizational commitment. However,

Loke and Crawford (2001) argued that various cultural dimensions can affect the commitment outcome of individuals in organizations. Studies have been done in numerous civilian organizations, little research exists however regarding this relationship within the military organization. Thus, this research emphasizes the consequences of organizational commitment, in relation to Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), specifically in the military organization.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Defining Organizational Citizenship Behavior

For the last several decades, the concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (referred to in some quotes as “OCB”) has become a major construct in the fields of psychology and management and has received a great deal of attention in the literature (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Bergeron, 2007; Foote & Tang, 2008; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Smith et al., 1983). Moreover, during this period, interest in citizenship-like behaviors has extended from the field of organizational behavior to a variety of disciplines, including human resource management, military psychology, marketing, health administration, industrial and labor law, international management, economics and leadership (Kark & Manor, 2005). There are almost 30 potentially different forms of OCB, but closer examination of the dimensions revealed significant conceptual overlaps (Foote & Tang, 2008).

The OCB theory is considered a relatively new area of research within the disciplines of organizational theory and behavior (Vigoda-Gadot, Beerli, Birman, & Somech, 2007). The generally accepted premise of OCB theory is that there are behaviors which are present outside of the realm of action prescribed by a job description or organizational policy. These behaviors can be described as extra-role, to indicate the discretionary or voluntary nature of those actions that promote effective functioning of the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Extra-role behaviors are crucial to organizational effectiveness, because organizations cannot anticipate with perfect accuracy all those activities essential for reaching their objectives (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Moreover, these behaviors lubricate the social machinery of the organization, provide the flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies, and help employees in an organization cope with the otherwise awesome condition of interdependence on each other (Smith et al., 1983). So, management literature has started to pay more attention to understanding the dynamics of OCB and to develop normative theories of extra-role employee behaviors that are thought to contribute positively to overall organizational performance (Erturk, Yilmaz, & Ceylan, 2004).

OCB is also considered vital for the organization's sustainability. It is a unique aspect of individual activity at work in nature (Lin, Lyau, Tsai, Chen, & Chiu, 2010). The first empirical studies addressing OCB were those undertaken by Bateman and Organ (1983). Their study examined the relationship between the effects of OCB on the organization and the level of employee OCB. They noted that Katz and Kahn (1966) suggested that organizational effectiveness

sometimes depends on employees engaging in supra role behaviors. In other words, they engage in behaviors that cannot be prescribed or required in advance for a particular job. In 1983, they also described these supra role behaviors as helping coworkers with a job-related problem; accepting orders without a fuss; tolerating temporary impositions without complaint; helping to keep the work area clean and uncluttered; making timely and constructive statements about the work unit or its head to outsiders; promoting a work climate that is tolerable and minimizes the distractions created by interpersonal conflict; and protecting and conserving organizational resources. For lack of a better term, the authors refer to these acts as citizenship behaviors.

By 1988, Organ had expanded OCB's definition, using broad terms rather than listing specific behaviors. Under the influence of Barnard's concept (1938) of the willingness to cooperate of the willingness to cooperate (Barnard's view is that organizations are associations of cooperative efforts.), and Katz's (1964), there is a distinction between dependable role performance and, innovative and spontaneous behaviors. Katz identified three employee behavior categories which are essential for a functioning organization. First, individuals must be induced to enter and remain within the system. Second, they must carry out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion. Lastly, they must engage in innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond their role prescriptions. Subsequently, the last category has come to be known as organizational citizenship behavior. Such behavior is termed extra role since it is outside the boundaries of a formal job description.

Nevertheless, such behavior is important in that it is believed to promote the effective functioning of an organization.

Ultimately, Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior as individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. There are three key aspects to this definition of OCB. These behaviors are discretionary because they are not an enforceable requirement of the role, job description or the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization. OCB are entirely voluntary actions made by a matter of personal choice above and beyond the call of duty. An employee who exhibits OCB is exceeding the standards but doesn't regard these contributions as directly leading to formal rewards. They might hope to make a good impression, but this is at best, a probabilistic inference of reward that is not guaranteed to happen. Organ referred to a person who engages in organizational citizenship behavior as a good soldier. He used this metaphor to name his first influential book "Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome" (Organ, 1988). Later, in 1990 Organ identified OCB as characteristics of individuals voluntarily making extra-role contributions to the organization that are above and beyond their duties, and is regarded as a factor impacting the effectiveness of an organization.

Furthermore, it can be said that citizenship behaviors are behaviors which are helpful to the organization, yet they are not behaviors considered part of the core elements of the job. Citizenship behaviors are often exhibited by employees to support the interests of the organization even though they may

not directly lead to individual benefits (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Organ and Rryan (1995), further suggested that OCB includes performing extra-job activities, voluntarily helping co-worker to complete assigned duties, staying late or working weekends, meeting workplace rules and acting according to organizational policies and procedures regardless of personal inconvenience and actively participating in the organizational development.

More recently, the most updated definition is Organ's definition that this behavior is discretionary, in other words, behavior which individuals exhibit without expecting any reward and ultimately results in an effective organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). This recent definition is notable because organizational efficiency and effectiveness are so important to organizational successful, factors that contribute to them are worth exploring (Solan, 2008). The concept of OCB could be better explained by discussing its dimensions as seen in the following section.

Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Smith et al. (1983) note that every organization depends on a myriad of acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures of goodwill, altruism, and other instances of citizenship behavior. Initially, it was suggested that organizational citizenship behavior was comprised of at least two fairly distinct classes of behavior factors or two dimensions. The first is altruism, which is a class of helping behaviors directed at individuals. It is also defined as face to face behavior that helps a specific person with an organizationally relevant task or problem. The recipient is usually a colleague, but can be

organizationally relevant outsiders such as customers, clients, vendors, and suppliers. The other is generalized compliance, which involves doing the right thing for the sake of the overall system. Later, generalized compliance was called rule-adherence but renamed to conscientiousness by Organ in 1988 because he felt it connoted servile obedience to authority. Conscientiousness is defined as behaviors that are indirectly helpful to other people in the organization, but not targeted directly toward a specific recipient. They are organizationally beneficial behaviors that are carried out well beyond minimum required levels such as punctuality, dedicated attendance, and scrupulous attention to cleanliness of facilities. He believes conscientiousness is a code of conduct or a level of resolve of how one should behave. He also suggested that some people who are very conscientious are not always very altruistic and vice-versa (Organ, 1988).

Organ (1988) eventually added the dimension of sportsmanship which demonstrates the willingness to tolerate minor and temporary inconveniences and impositions without appeal or protest. These are mostly behaviors that people refrain from doing, such as avoiding whining and making grievances. Courtesy is the other dimension of OCB. It represents a degree of interpersonal sensitivity that helps prevent work associates' problems. Courtesy is similar to altruism, helping others solve problems, but is exhibited by behaviors demonstrating thoughtfulness, foresight, and communication that stop potential problems from happening. The last dimension is civic virtue, defined as responsible and constructive involvement in an organization's issues and governance. Civic virtue is demonstrated by staying informed on critical



issues, being involved in policy making, and tactfully speaking up when it is appropriate and necessary.

Other researchers present different views on the dimensionality of OCB. It has been suggested that types of OCB can be categorized according to the intended primary beneficiary or target of the behavior and can be classified into three broad categories (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). Two of the three categories come from Williams and Anderson (1991). They divide OCB into two categories. The first OCB category is concerned with benefiting the organization as a whole (OCBO), such as conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue, while the second refer to OCB that benefits individuals within the organization (OCBI), such as courtesy and altruism. Although these two categories are more specific and may be a fruitful way of elaborating OCB research, these two dimensions of OCB could not be clearly distinguished from each other empirically. This may be in line with the conclusion that OCB may refer to a general tendency to be cooperative within an organizational setting (LePine et al., 2002). The last OCB category is OCB that benefits one's own job (OCBJ) (Coleman & Borman, 2000). This is evident within the organization when an individual who is unable to come to work will have his or her responsibilities picked up by other persons already working, due to positive interest in other employees. Prior research has labeled the dimension of organizational citizenship behavior for the individual as altruism and organizational citizenship behaviors for groups of employees within an organization as generalized compliance. Both organizational citizenship behaviors for the individual and organization are rooted within the fundamental

principle that no formal rewards will be given for such behavior (Bonaparte, 2009).

Podsakoff et al. (2000, pp. 516-525) combined similar concepts and the result was seven distinct dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Three dimensions are as follows under the same headings as previous researchers: (1) Helping behavior, this behavior involves voluntarily helping others with work-related problems or preventing their occurrence. This dimension also includes Organ's altruism dimension (1988), altruism dimension, and Williams and Anderson's OCB-I. (2) Sportsmanship is a characteristic of people who not only do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but also maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way, are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group, and do not take the rejection of their ideas personally. (3) Civic virtue is manifested by a willingness to participate actively in the organization's governance (e.g. attend meetings, engage in policy debates, express one's opinion about what strategy the organization ought to follow), a willingness to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities (e.g. keep up with changes in the industry that might affect the organization), and to look out for its best interests (e.g. reporting fire hazards or suspicious activities, locking doors), even at great personal cost. In summary, these behaviors reflect a person's recognition of being part of a larger whole and accepting the associated responsibilities that come with such citizenship. Four other dimensions have been conceptualized under different headings as shown here: (4) Organizational loyalty which entails

promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions.

(5) Organizational compliance is used to capture the concepts of generalized compliance (Smith et al., 1983), OCB-O (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and others. This dimension appears to encapsulate a person's internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance. The reason that this behavior is regarded as a form of citizenship behavior is that even though everyone is expected to obey company regulations, rules, and procedures at all times, many employees simply do not. Therefore, an employee who religiously obeys all rules and regulations, even when no one is watching, is regarded as an especially good citizen. (6) Individual initiative. This dimension differs from other citizenship behaviors in that it is extra-role only in the sense that the employee is performing tasks well beyond generally expected levels to the degree that it takes on an above and beyond the call of duty nature. (7) Self-development. Scholars indicate that self-development includes discretionary behaviors employees engage in to further their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Such behaviors include voluntarily completing training courses, reading to stay current in one's field, and learning new skills to add value to the organization. However, they point out that self-development has not received any empirical confirmation in the organizational citizenship behavior literature and it does not appear to be conceptually different from other forms of citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000, pp. 516-525).

Although Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) appears to have several dimensions, researchers most frequently propose five dimensions following Organ's studies (1988) concept. Further definition of organizational citizenship behavior dimensions, and how each helps to improve efficiency in the organization is explained in the following: (1) Altruism (also called helping behavior) reflects an attitude of willfully helping specific people with an organizationally relevant task or problem. For example, helping a co-worker with a project, switching vacation dates with another person and volunteering. Altruism is typically directed toward other individuals but contributes to group efficiency by enhancing the individuals' performance. (2) Conscientiousness refers to being punctual, having an attendance record that is better than the group norm, and judiciously following company rules, regulations, and procedures. These include never missing a day of work, coming to work early if needed, not spending company time on personal calls. It can be said that conscientiousness involves behaviors that go above and beyond the requirements of both formal and informal rules. This dimension enhances the efficiency of both an individual and the group. (3) Courtesy is being mindful and respectful of other people's rights, such as advance notices, reminders, and communicating appropriate information. It also has the person turning the other cheek to avoid problems not blowing up when provoked. It also helps prevent problems and facilitates constructive use of time. (4) Sportsmanship refers to avoiding complaints, petty grievances, gossiping, and falsely magnifying problems. It is having a grin-and-bear-it attitude, making do without complaint, not finding fault with the organization. It thus improves the amount of time

spent on constructive endeavors in the organization. (5) Civic virtue is responsible participation in the political life of the organization. It implies a sense of involvement in what policies are adopted. This behavior involves keeping abreast of not only current organizational issues but also more mundane issues, such as attending voluntary meetings and functions, responding to in-house communications, keeping up with new information and speaking up on issues. Civic virtue promotes the interests of the organization. It has been suggested that civic virtue is the most admirable manifestation of organizational citizenship behavior because it often entails some sacrifice of individual productive efficiency (Greenberg, 1999; Jahangir, Akbar, & Haq, 2004; Muchinsky, 2003).

This current study can be restated as following a modified version of Organ's five-dimensional OCB model. Because Organ's framework has the longest history and many of his works have been published. The OCB survey items are based on Organ's dimensions which were created by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) and widely used in a large number of empirical OCB studies. Organ's dimensions are beneficial across situations and organization and over the long term, have been assumed by OCB scholars (LePine et al., 2002). So, many OCB researchers usually measure all or most of Organ's five-dimensional in their works.

However, only three dimensions were focused on in this study, altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue, because these three dimensions are considered ethic (universal) dimensions of OCB (Farh et al., 1997). In addition, from a discussion with some of the senior ranger regiments'

leadership it was suggested that due to the unique mission of the military, sportsmanship and courtesy are already strictly incorporated in their military training. So altruism, conscientiousness and civic virtue were deemed as most relevant to the sample under study. As previously defined, altruism is helping behaviors directed toward a specific person with an organizationally relevant task or problem. This dimension is necessary for military works, especially in operations associated with controlling the unstable situation and stopping the unrest in the three southernmost provinces (Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat) and four districts of Songkla. Rangers need to help each other to accomplish their goal. The recipients are usually not only the comrades, subordinates and commanders, but also organizationally relevant outsiders such as civilians and enemies. Conscientiousness involves behaviors that go above and beyond the requirements of both formal and informal rules (Organ, 1988). Indeed, individuals joining military organizations swear an oath that they are willing to potentially die for their country and that they take this obligation freely and will faithfully discharge the duties of the office (Keskel, 2002). Thus, this dimension is essential for such sacrificial work as military work. Civic virtue implies a sense of involvement in what policies are adopted. For this reason this study on military organization adds this dimension of civic virtue because every ranger should know, participate and follow organizational policies. Civic virtue is a key contributor to organizational effectiveness. As such, this study is interested in understanding factors associated with individual willingness to exhibit OCB. Besides, there had been little research done regarding these relationships in military organizations because most research

works have focused almost exclusively on civilian organizations. Therefore, insight gained from this study will be instructive for the rangers' senior leadership to understand factors that influence OCB.

Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), exhibited by individuals voluntarily making extra-role contributions to the organization that are above and beyond their job duties, is regarded as a factor impacting the effectiveness of an organization (Organ, 1990). As such, researchers and organizational leaders are interested in understanding factors associated with individual willingness to exhibit OCB. Empirical research has identified four contextual categories of OCB antecedents: Employee characteristics (e.g. employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, perception of fairness, role perceptions, role ambiguity), task characteristics (e.g. task feedback, intrinsically satisfying tasks), organizational characteristics (e.g. group cohesiveness and perceived organizational support), and leadership behaviors (e.g. supportive and transformational leadership behaviors) (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Another research concludes that there are three basic types of antecedents affecting OCB: Personal factors, perceived situational factors and positional factors (Holmes, Langford, Welch, & Welch, 2003).

Furthermore, numerous constructs have been investigated in relation to OCB. The antecedents of OCB can be separated into three factor groups based on published research works. The first factor group is perceived psychological contract support (the employee's perception of whether the organization is

keeping its contract with the employee) which is seen as binding employees and the organization together. The second factor group is cynicism (it is a negative factor) and perceived psychological contract support. Many OCB research has shown promising results with cynicism and perceived psychological contract support as constructs related to OCB. The third factor group is attitudinal variables. The attitudinal variable that has shown a strong relationship with OCB is job satisfaction. Researchers have observed that satisfied individuals are more likely to offer extra-role contributions to an organization (Jordan & Schraeder, 2007). Along with job satisfaction, another well known attitudinal factor that will be examined as an antecedent of OCB is organizational commitment (Alotabi, 2001; Desivilya et al., 2006). Organ (1990) stressed that organizational commitment is linked to OCB and is a direct antecedent of such behavior.

Organizational Commitment as an Antecedent of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Many related researches state that organizational commitment is a premise to organizational citizenship. Organ (1988) argued that Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is distinct from related constructs such as organizational commitment as developed by organizational researchers. While OCB may be empirically related to organizational commitment (Cohen & Vigoda, 2000), it is important to emphasize that OCB refers to a particular class of employee behaviors, while constructs such as organizational commitment is essentially attitude-based. Scholl (1981) had also stated that

organizational commitment is a likely determinant of OCB. Because commitment maintains behavioral direction when there is little expectation of formal organizational rewards for performance. In addition, commitment is responsible for behaviors that do not depend primarily on reinforcements or punishment (Weiner, 1982). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggested that employees who are emotionally attached to their organization viewed their jobs as encompassing a wider range of behaviors, including behaviors commonly considered to be extra-role, than those who were not committed. Thus, organizational commitment has been cited as an antecedent to OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Schappe, 1998; Smith et al., 1983; Witt, 1991). It is a popular factor associated with OCB. The meta-analysis conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995), reviews 55 studies and indicated that organizational commitment is the one antecedent that had been well researched to date. It is supported by Alotaibi (2001) in his research, which found that organizational commitment is one of the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior.

Moreover, in the studies of organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment among teachers in Turkey (Yilmaz & Bokeoglu, 2008) and teacher in the USA (Bragger et al., 2005), it was found that there was a positive relationship between these two factors. The finding in the study among U. S. army officers also indicated that commitment is significantly and positively related to OCB (Leboeuf, 1994). Increased commitment is then predicted to lead to more OCB (Bonaparte, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Schnake & Dumler, 1997). Becker and Billings (1993) found that employees

who were highly committed to the organization were more likely to perform OCB than employees who reported lower levels of commitment. Gautam et al. (2005) also reported that those employees with stronger commitment would be less reluctant to make extra contributions to the organization and would therefore be more likely to engage in OCB.

Other studies have similarly indicated that organizational commitment is positively related to job performance (e.g. Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Meyer et al., 1989). This finding posits that employees who are committed to their organizations are more likely to remain with the organization. They exert more effort on behalf of the organization as well as work towards its success and therefore are better performers than the uncommitted employees. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), effective organizational functioning requires employees to not only perform their prescribed role, but also to engage in behaviors that go beyond these formal obligations. This aspect of performance is consistent with Organ's conceptualizations (1988) conceptualizations of organizational citizenship behavior. Taken together, this discussion implies that organizational commitment foster OCB, which consequently would lead to higher levels of performance. In other words organizational commitment directly relates to OCB.

From the aforementioned studies, a relationship between organizational commitment and OCB occurs at a high level within organizations. Organizational commitment creates positive attitudes about the job within an organization that encourage people to pursue or manifest extra-role behaviors. Riketta (2002) found that commitment correlated more strongly with extra-role

behaviors or OCB than with in-role performance. Employees will act or behave in ways to maintain membership in an organization and exhibit organizational citizenship behavior when their needs are being met by the organization (Rioux & Penner, 2001). A study based on a Singapore sample showed that organizational commitment is significantly related to extra-role behavior of employees in a service company (Aryee & Lau, 1990). Several researches reported that overall organizational commitment was positively associated with overall organizational citizenship behavior (Becker & Billings, 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Munene, 1995; Schappe, 1998). LePine et al. (2002) conducted an OCB meta-analysis which not only supported strong relationships among most of the OCB facets themselves but also reported that both individually and collectively, the facets (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and courtesy) related to organizational commitment. A study of Spanish employees in a multinational food company (Cardona & Espejo, 2002) also showed the same result that organizational commitment had a positive and significant impact on all OCB dimensions for different OCB ratings. Gurbuz (2009) also reported that organizational commitment was the potential antecedent of OCB in a military setting. However, Wagner and Rush (2000) found that the antecedent of altruism (a dimension of OCB) of U.S. nurses differs with employee age. Organizational commitment predicted altruism for only the older employees 35 years and above. Chen, Hui, and Sego (1998) conducted a study across 11 companies operating in the People's Republic of China and reported a positive relationship between organizational commitment and altruism but not between commitment

and either sportsmanship or conscientiousness.

Additionally, each type of organizational commitment is frequently cited as an antecedent of OCB. The relation between them has been documented by Meyer et al. (2002). In their meta-analysis, they found that the three types of commitment namely affective, continuance and normative have positive correlation with OCB. Affective (desire-based) commitment showed the strongest positive relation with OCB, followed by normative (obligation-based) commitment, but continuance (cost-based) commitment had a negative, albeit very weak, relation with OCB. The positive relationship with OCB was strongest for Affective Commitment (AC) due to the fact that this type of commitment is conceptualized as an emotional attachment and identification with the organization thus wanting to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Because affective commitment maintains behavioral direction when there is little expectation of formal rewards (Allen & Meyer, 1996), it would seem logical that affective commitment drives those behaviors (i.e. discretionary behaviors) that do not depend primarily on reinforcement or formal rewards (Jahangir et al., 2004).

Affective commitment tends to demonstrate stronger links with performance than other commitment bases (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 1989; Morrison, 1994), particularly when performance is operationalized as either contextual performance or citizenship behavior (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003). Bolon (1997) indicated that affective commitment is the most important commitment component in terms of explaining the unique variance in OCB. Morrison (1994) found positive relationships between

affective commitment and four OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue). In addition, the meta-analysis conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995) revealed that affective commitment was significantly related to altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB. Similarly, the study of Shore & Wayne (1993) indicated that affective commitment was positively correlated with both compliance and altruism in a large multinational firm headquartered in the southeastern United States. A study on organizational performance investigated how organizational citizenship behavior can be affected by organizational commitment within the services industry in the USA. The results showed that OCB for altruism was positively related to affective commitment (Bonaparte, 2009). Van Dyne and Ang (1998) conducted their study with a sample of 155 professional workers from a bank and a hospital in Singapore. They found that the relationship between affective commitment and OCB was stronger for contingent workers than for regular employees. It indicates that when contingent workers have positive attitudes about their relationship with an organization, they engage in OCB. However, a study of 1,584 civil servants in Korea found that affective commitment was positively related to altruism but not to generalized compliance (Kim, 2006).

In contrast, Continuance Commitment (CC) was found to be negatively correlated with OCB. This is supported by the previous studies of several scholars (e.g. Meyer et al., 1993; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Individuals high on continuance commitment tend to be more sensitive to conditions that define what is expected of them (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Consequently, they may exhibit fewer citizenship behaviors because they are pursuing activities



to avoid costs rather than realize individual or organizational gains (Brown, 1996; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Organ and Ryan (1995) reported that continuance commitment was unrelated to either altruism or conscientiousness.

Normative commitment, the other type of organizational commitment, is also found to be a predictor of OCB. It is supported by the study of Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002) that examined the predictors of OCB among public and private-sector organizations in the Sultanate of Oman. The result indicated that normative commitment was a significant predictor of OCB. Morrison (1994) also found positive relationships between normative commitment and altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Employees high on normative commitment exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors such as peer mentoring because of psychological attachment to the employing organization through internalization of its goals and missions (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993).

However, despite the generally strong support for the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, Williams and Anderson (1991) found that organizational commitment was not related to OCB. It is consistent with the research works conducted by Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993). In addition, Organ and Ryan (1995) found no indication of a significant relationship between organizational commitment and altruism. Tansky (1993) found no significant positive relationships between organizational commitment and the five dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue).

In any case, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₀₇ There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and altruism.

H₀₈ There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and conscientiousness

H₀₉ There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and civic virtue.

H₀₁₀ There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Demographic Factors and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Demographic factors such as age, tenure, gender, educational level, etc. have also been connected to organizational citizenship behavior. Some research had been done in this area (Bragger et al., 2005; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Schappe, 1998).

Age. A number of studies have suggested that age has a significant impact on OCB. Cohen (1993) suggested that age is an important antecedent of OCB because it is considered as main indicator of side bets, a term that used to refer to accumulation of investments valued by individual which would be lost if he or she were to leave the organization. The study of OCB in public and private-sector organizations in the Sultanate of Oman reported that younger Omanis had lower OCB than older workers (Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002). The study of organizational behavior of industrial employees in Great Britain and in the USA found that the age of the employees was the only demographic predictor of the altruism dimension of OCB (Organ & Lingl,

1995). Similarly, Wagner and Rush (2000) found significant differences between younger and older in term of Altruistic OCB. Hardeep and Shivani (2010) argued that younger employees coordinate their needs with organizational need more flexibly, whereas, older employees tend to be more rigid in adjusting their needs with the organization. Therefore, younger and older employees may differ in their orientation towards self, others and work. These differences may lead to different salient motives for OCB among younger and older employees.

However, Mohammad and Habib (2010) found a weak positive relationship between employees' age and OCB among the academic and non-academic staffs of a reputed public university in Malaysia. In contrast, Chang (2004) found that age was not related to OCB among Taiwanese employees. Tang and Ibrahim (1998) also found that age was not related to OCB among Middle East public personnel. Similarly, the research works of Schappe (1998) indicated that age was not significantly correlated with OCB. Therefore, it was expected that there is no significant difference between age and OCB.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{o11} There is no significant difference between age and organizational citizenship behavior of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Marital Status. Previous studies support a link between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Bonaparte, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Schnake & Dumler, 1997), in addition, marital status as an antecedent of organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983; Gurses & Demiray, 2009; Salami, 2008). Therefore, it can be anticipated that marital

status may be related to organizational citizenship behavior. However, a study of organizational behavior of the industrial employees in Great Britain and in the USA found that marital status alone was significantly related to only one dimension of OCB, namely generalized compliance or conscientiousness (Organ & Lingl, 1995).

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{012} There is no significant difference between marital status and organizational citizenship behavior of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Educational Level. This has been reported to be correlated with organizational citizenship behavior. The study of Deckop, Mangal, and Circa (1999) yields that the age of employee had a negative and a marginally significant effect on OCB. In addition, Noble (2006) indicated the existence of a significant relationship between level of education and OCB with specific significance with regard to the dimension of civic virtue. By contrast, no significant relationship was shown to exist between overall OCB and an employee's field of study or academic discipline.

Nevertheless, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{013} There is a significant difference between educational level and organizational citizenship behavior of rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Position. Defined as social or official rank, it has been associated with OCB. Schappe (1998) conducted a study of 150 employees of a mid-Atlantic state. It indicated that organizational level (managerial or non-managerial)

was all significantly negatively correlated with OCB. On the other hand, a survey of 349 participants from Chinese enterprises demonstrated that the higher the position one holds in the organization, the higher OCB ratings he or she counts (Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007). Due to the fact that previous studies have shown a link between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment (Karrasch, 2003; Kwantes, 2003; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Yilmaz & Bokeoglu, 2008), and position as an antecedent of organizational commitment, it can be then anticipated that position may be related to organizational citizenship behavior. However, the literature on the effect of position within the organization on commitment is somewhat contradictory. Some previous studies have indicated that position related to organization commitment (Brief & Aldag, 1980; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Gurses & Demiray, 2009; Mottaz, 1988). Other studies found that position did not have an effect on organizational commitment (Bruning & Snyder, 1983; Giffords, 2003).

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{o14} There is no significant difference between type of ranger and organizational citizenship behavior of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Tenure. It is defined as the length of time the employees stay with an organization. Schappe (1998) in the same study as above indicated that organizational tenure was also a factor that significantly negatively correlated with OCB. Mohammad and Habib (2010) found a weak positive relationship between employees' tenure and OCB among the academic and non-academic staffs of a reputed public university in Malaysia. However, Podsakoff et al.

(2000) revealed that organizational tenure did not correlate to OCB. A study of organizational citizenship behavior among teachers in the USA found that there were no other significant differences by tenure for the overall measures of OCB (Bragger et al., 2005). Besides, Strugar (2007) found that there was no significant difference on OCB based on job tenure among employees in some U.S. non-profit organizations. Similarly, research work by Change (2004) revealed that tenure was not significantly related to OCB among Taiwanese employees. In addition, Turnipseed and Murkinson (2000) found that job tenure in the U.S. Army was not correlated with OCB.

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{o15} There is no significant difference between organizational tenure and organizational citizenship behavior of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Work Experience. According to several studies, there is a relationship between work experience and organizational commitment. Employees with different work experience were found to have different organizational commitment levels (Al-Aameri, 2000). Due to the fact that previous studies have shown a link between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Karrasch, 2003; Kwantes, 2003; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Yilmaz & Bokeoglu, 2008), it can be then anticipated that work experience may be related to organizational citizenship behavior. However, Podsakoff et al. (2000) revealed that work experience had not been found to be related to OCBs.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₀₁₆ There is no significant difference between experience in fighting and organizational citizenship behavior of the rangers in the Fourth Royal Thai Army Area.

Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

There are four predictor categories of OCB namely, employee characteristics or employee attitudes, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviors as mentioned by Podsakoff et al. (2000). Most studies have placed organizational commitment under the employee characteristics/employee attitudes category, For the purpose of this study emphasis is made on organizational commitment as a predictor of OCB.

According to Schappe's study (1998), hierarchical regression analyses indicated that when job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and fairness perceptions were considered concurrently, only organizational commitment accounted for a unique amount of variance in OCB. Similarly, the research work of Becker (1992) reported that organizational commitment has been included as an important predictor of OCB. Other studies on the type of organizational commitment and OCB, found that affective commitment and normative organizational commitment are influential predictors of OCB (Meyer et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Similarly, two experimental studies by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) using university students and university employees as subjects, found that identification and internalization, which are conceptually similar to affective commitment, were significant predictors of self-reports of OCB. The research work of Carmeli

and Colakoglu (2005) also found that affective commitment was a significant predictor of two facets of organizational citizenship behaviors namely altruism and compliance. Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002) also examined the predictors of OCB in public and private-sector organizations in the Sultanate of Oman. Their result indicated that only normative commitment was a significant predictor of OCB. However, the results of Unuvar's research work (2006) research work showed the importance of continuance commitment and normative commitment together with affective commitment at an aggregate level when predicting OCB in the Turkish business context. In addition the results of this study also indicated that organizational commitment predicted positively only the exhibition of courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and the aggregate OCB.

Moreover, Foote and Seipel (2005) reported that organizational commitment in terms of policy commitment is predictive of conscientiousness and civic virtue behaviors of production workers and lower-level supervisors at a rural, Midwestern U.S. industrial plant. Organizational policies which state specific major courses of action that embody a set of values congruence with employees' values, offers a target that enables individuals to focus and maintain their commitment to the organization. According to Foote and Seipel (2005) employee commitment to such policies leads to greater OCB.

However, organizational commitment was not a significant predictor of organizational citizenship behavior among employees' supervisors in a research work of Williams and Anderson (1991).

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{o17} Organizational commitment will not significantly predict organizational citizenship behavior.

Consequence of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Behaviors under the term organizational citizenship can reasonably be used as indicators of job performance which measure not only the degree to which an employee fulfills a work requirement, but also spontaneous and innovative behavior. Due to the nature of the OCB concept, it was suggested that such behaviors in the aggregate would enhance organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988). In addition, some studies have shown that OCB correlated to indicators of individual performance, unit performance and organizational performance (Chien, 2004). Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) found a positive relationship between OCB and workgroup performance in terms of quality and quantity of work. Additionally, other studies also show that these citizenship behaviors have a positive impact on increasing organizational performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Consequently, high levels of OCB lead to greater efficiency and help to bring about new resources for the organization. These resources refer to both the attraction of new members or raw materials and intangible resources as goodwill, image and reputation of the organization (Chien, 2004). OCB has been regarded as an important concept in that it is thought to contribute to the effective functioning of the organization, and consequently, its competitiveness (Krlłowicz & Lowery, 1996).

For the overall consequence of OCB, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) suggested that it can be anticipated to enhance the productivity of coworkers, productivity of managers, free up organizational resources for other productive purposes, help coordinate activities between work groups, make the organization a more satisfying place to work and thus help attract and retain productive employees, maintain performance consistency and stability, and improve organizational adaptability. Through all these means, such behaviors should contribute to organizational effectiveness. Cohen and Vigoda (2000) concluded that OCB improves organizational effectiveness through various ways. Consequences of OCB are as follow: Improved worker and managerial productivity, superior efficiency in resource use and allocation, reduced maintenance expenses, better coordination of organizational activities across individuals, groups, and functional departments, improved organizational attractiveness for high quality recruits, increased stability in the organization's performance and enhanced organizational capability to adapt effectively to environmental changes.

From the context above, organizational citizenship behavior had been shown to help maximize organizational performance. This is the goal of every organization and it benefits managers or leaders to understand how various variables affect organizational citizenship behavior. This understanding can help managers assess the ways to motivate and improve such behaviors in order to promote the effective functioning of the organization.



Theoretical Framework

This research model was developed to explain the association between independent variables and dependent variables. It will test the research hypothesis about the difference in organizational commitment level and citizenship behavior level based on demographics. Thus, demographic factors are used as independent variables, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior as dependent variables. In addition, the hypotheses proposed test whether organizational commitment relates to organizational citizenship behavior and whether organizational commitment significantly predict organizational citizenship behavior. Based on the above mentioned review, the theoretical framework for this study is shown in Figure 3.

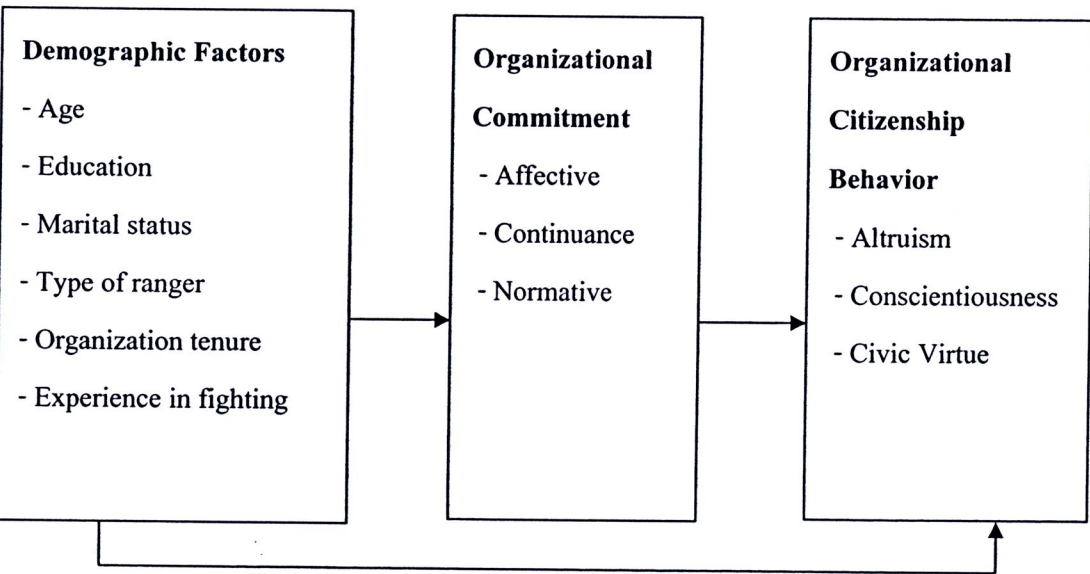


Figure 3 The theoretical framework.

Summary

This chapter covers a review of literature to present the background on the nature of organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, demographic factors with organizational commitment and with organizational citizenship behavior. The literature has attested to the significant value of organizational commitment and organization citizenship behavior, showing that they are linked to several outcomes of individual and organizational effectiveness.

It can be concluded from the literature that organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior are an important entity in obtaining positive outcomes within an organization. So, this study will provide knowledge in this area. Although there have been many studies done on the organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, most of these focused on civilian organizations, few on military organizations. In addition, the existing researches on this area in military organizations are extensively based on western samples and have utilized relatively little data from other cultures. To fill this research gap, the present study may contribute to the field by using the data from the military organization in Thailand, specifically the rangers in The Fourth Royal Thai Army Area. Based on the literature review, several hypotheses were proposed for testing. A theoretical framework is also presented in this chapter.