Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment Among Pakistani University Teachers

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The purpose of this study was to determine if selected personal characteristics, facets of job satisfaction, and the two dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice & procedural justice) significantly explained variance in the organizational commitment of Pakistani university teachers. In addition, the present study examined the influence of organizational commitment on two organizational outcomes—job performance and turnover intentions. Data were gathered from 125 full-time teachers from 33 universities in the three major cities of Pakistan: Lahore, Islamabad/Rawalpindi, and Peshawar. The results of the study indicate that the personal characteristics, facets of job satisfaction and two dimensions of organizational justice as a group were significantly related to organizational commitment of teachers. Individually, distributive justice and trust in management were found to be the strongest correlates of commitment. Moreover, commitment was found to be negatively related to turnover intentions (- .40) and positively related to a self-report measure of job performance (.32).

Introduction

Over the past three decades, an impressive amount of research efforts have been devoted to understanding the nature, antecedents, and consequences of organizational commitment. Employee commitment is important because high levels of commitment lead to several favorable organizational outcomes. Meta-analyses indicate that commitment is negatively related to turnover (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), absenteeism (Farrell & Stamm, 1988), and counterproductive behavior (Dalal, 2005) and positively related to job satisfaction (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), motivation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Riketta, 2002). Moreover, research studies have provided evidence of a positive correlation between organizational commitment and job performance (e.g., Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). Low commitment has also been associated with low levels of morale (DeCottis & Summers, 1987) and decreased measures of altruism and compliance (Schappe, 1998). Finally, non-committed employees may describe the organization in negative terms to outsiders thereby inhibiting the organization’s ability to recruit high-quality employees (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). These findings have important implications for both organization theory and the practice of management.

In the present study organizational commitment has been defined as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al. (1982) mention three characteristics of organizational commitment: (1) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert a considerable
effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organization.

Literally hundreds of studies have been conducted to identify factors involved in the development of organizational commitment. For example, research has shown that commitment has been positively related to personal characteristics such as age (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), length of service in a particular organization (Luthans, McCaul, & Dodd, 1985), and marital status (John & Taylor, 1999) and negatively related to the employee’s level of education (Glisson & Durick, 1988). In addition, commitment has been found to be related to such job characteristics as task autonomy (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994), feedback (Hutchison & Garstka, 1996) and job challenge (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998) and certain work experiences such as job security (Yousef, 1998), promotion opportunities (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989), training and mentoring opportunities (Scandura, 1997), and supportive and considerate leadership (DeCottis & Summers, 1987). Finally, research studies have revealed that commitment is influenced by perceptions of organizational justice (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

Meyer and Allen (1997) have noted that there are at least three sets of beliefs that have been shown to have strong and consistent links with commitment to the organization – the beliefs that the organization is supportive (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-Lamastro, 1990), treats its employees fairly (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992), and contributes to the employees feeling of personal competence and self-worth (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977). Moreover, they argued that many of the job characteristic and work experience variables found to correlate with organizational commitment might contribute to one or more of these perceptions. For example, internal promotion policies and job security might foster perceptions of organizational support; performance based reward policies and employee participation might contribute to perceptions of organizational justice; and job challenge and autonomy might bolster perceptions of personal competence.

**Organizational Commitment among Teachers**

Most of the research on organizational commitment has been done by industrial-organizational and occupational psychologists (Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992). Very little research on organizational commitment has been conducted within educational settings. The focus of the present study is to identify the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment among Pakistani university teachers. Fostering organizational commitment among the academic staff is important because, as mentioned previously, employees that are highly committed stay longer, perform better, miss less work, and engage in organizational citizenship behaviors. These findings can be generalized to the teachers as well. Teachers who are not committed to their workplace are likely to put less effort in the classroom as compared to teachers with high levels of commitment. This would adversely affect student learning and achievement in particular and standard of education in the country in general.

Moreover, high turnover among teachers, especially when good teachers quit, can have high costs and implications for the education system. This is because good
quality teachers take with them their research, teaching skills, and experience. Other
costs include the time involved in recruitment, selection, and training of new faculty;
advertising expenses; and increased workloads for existing faculty. It is not
necessary to be a management expert or an economist to understand that if the
education managers are spending thousand of dollars and hours of their time to
replace teachers, preventing brain drain in the first place might have saved some of
the resources.

By identifying factors that help to foster organizational commitment among
university academics, this study aimed to provide guidelines to education managers
to come up with policies which would enable them to attract and retain top level
faculty at their respective universities. In the Pakistani context, fostering
organizational commitment among teachers has become imperative for the
universities. Possession of high quality faculty, especially faculty with Ph.D.s and
foreign degrees, is one of the most important factors used by the Higher Education
Commission of Pakistan to evaluate the performance and standard of universities.
With the emergence of private sector universities, the demand for talented teachers
has increased, and universities are now constantly looking for talented teachers and
are willing to pay them very attractive compensation packages. This is likely to make
it harder for the universities to retain their academic staff. Because of these changes
in the Pakistani education sector, universities will have to work hard to create an
environment that would enable them to attract new faculty and retain their best
teachers. Secondly, as discussed above, teachers who are committed to their
respective institutions are more likely not only to remain with the institution but are
also likely to exert more effort on the behalf of the organization and work towards its
success and are therefore likely to be better performers than uncommitted teachers.
Thus fostering commitment among the academic staff is an important and viable
organizational objective.

**Purpose of the study**

The main purpose of this study was to determine if selected personal characteristics,
facets of job satisfaction, and perceptions of organizational justice significantly
explained variance in the organizational commitment of university teachers in the
three major cities of Pakistan: Lahore, Islamabad/Rawalpindi, and Peshawar. Personal characteristics focusing upon the individual included age, tenure, marital
status, level of education, and two attitudes—trust in university management and job
involvement. The selected facets of job satisfaction considered for this study were
satisfaction with: pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, job security,
training opportunities, actual work undertaken, and working conditions. Finally, the
employee perceptions of organizational justice included distributive and procedural
justice.

The second objective of this research was to study the behavioral outcomes
of organizational commitment. Specifically, this study aimed to find out the
influence of organizational commitment on job performance and turnover intentions.
Table 1 shows the variables that were included under each category.
Table 1
Summary of study variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Characteristics</th>
<th>Facets of Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Organizational Justice</th>
<th>Organizational Outcomes</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
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<td>Education</td>
<td>Promotion opportunities</td>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
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<td>Marital status</td>
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<td>Working conditions</td>
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Theoretical Framework

The hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment and each of the selected personal characteristics, facets of job satisfaction, and the two dimensions of organizational justice and the justification of including each of these variables in the present study is discussed below.

Hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment & personal characteristics

The personal characteristics included in this research were age, marital status, tenure, level of education, trust in university management, and job involvement. Research has shown that age is positively related to organizational commitment (Steers, 1977; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1981). One possible explanation for this relationship is that there are few employment options available to older employees (Mowday et al., 1982), and older employees realize that leaving may cost them more than staying (Parasuraman & Nachman, 1987). Thus, in this research, a positive relationship between age and commitment was predicted.

Tenure. Research indicates that organizational tenure is positively related to organizational commitment (Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Although empirical evidence suggests that there is a positive link between organizational commitment and tenure, it is still not clear how this link operates. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), as an individual’s length of service with a particular organization increases, he or she may develop an emotional attachment with the organization that makes it difficult to switch jobs. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that the results of a positive relationship between tenure and organizational commitment might be a simple reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organization, and only those with a high commitment remain. In the light of this evidence, a positive relationship between organizational commitment was hypothesized for this study.
Marital Status. Marital status has emerged as a consistent predictor of organizational commitment. Findings reported by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), John and Taylor (1999), and Tsui, Leung, Cheung, Mok, and Ho (1994) indicate that married people were more committed to their organization than unmarried people. Married people have more family responsibilities and need more stability and security in their jobs; and therefore, they are likely to be more committed to their current organization than their unmarried counterparts. In the light of these findings and explanation, it was hypothesized that marital status would be positively related to commitment.

Education. Level of education was expected to have a negative relationship with organizational commitment. The rationale for this prediction is that people with low levels of educations generally have more difficulty changing jobs and therefore show a greater commitment to their organizations. Steers (1977) and Glisson and Durick (1988) have reported findings consistent with this rationale.

Job Involvement. Job involvement as conceptualized and used in this study concerns an individual’s ego involvement with the job—that is, the degree to which his self esteem is affected by his work performance (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Studies by Janis (1989), Stevens, Beyer, and Trice (1978), and Loui (1995) revealed a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement. One explanation for this could be that for employees with a high level of job involvement, the job is important to one’s self image (Kanungo, 1982). These high-involvement employees identify with, and care about, their jobs and are thus less likely to quit their jobs. Thus, in this study, a significant positive relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment was expected.

Trust. Trust refers to the person’s degree of confidence in the words and actions of another (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998). Trust in organizational authorities has been shown to influence a variety of subordinate’s work attitudes and behavior (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tylerm & Martin, 1997). When trust levels are high, employees are supportive of, or committed to, authorities and the institutions that the authorities represent. Brockner and his colleagues (1997) report that trust has a positive although non-significant effect on employee commitment. In a similar vein, Dirks and Ferrín’s (2002) research findings demonstrate a substantial relationship between trust in leadership and organization commitment. In light of these studies, a positive relationship between commitment and trust was expected in this study.

Hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment and facets of job satisfaction

The facets of job satisfaction which include satisfaction with promotion opportunities, pay, coworkers, actual work undertaken, job security, supervision, working conditions, and training opportunities were expected to be positively related with organizational commitment.
Satisfaction with Promotion Opportunities. Policies and practices concerning the movement of employees, particularly upward movement, once they are in the organization might also affect their commitment. For example, Gaertner and Nollen (1989) found that commitment was greater among employees who had been promoted and that it was also positively related to employees’ perceptions that the company had a policy of promoting from within. Such a policy might be perceived by employees as evidence of organizational support, which in turn instills a greater commitment to the organization. In this study, a positive relationship between promotion opportunities and organizational commitment was envisaged.

Satisfaction with Pay. According to McElroy (2001), providing high compensation could lead to higher organizational commitment through a variety of reasons. First, it allows the organizations to attract a larger pool of applicants from which to selectively recruit. Second, high compensation serves as an indication of how much an organization values its people, thereby enhancing their self-worth and feelings of importance. Third, tying compensation to performance motivates the employees to exert more effort on behalf of the organization. For these reasons, high compensation that is tied to organizational performance is predicted to lead to increased levels of organizational commitment. Thus, a linear and positive relationship between satisfaction with pay and organizational commitment was likely to be observed in this study.

Satisfaction with Coworkers. In his work on employee commitment, Steers (1977) found that opportunities for social interaction positively correlated with feelings of commitment. For the purpose of the present research, satisfaction with co-workers is taken as an index of how highly the university teachers value the nature of working relationships with coworkers, which in turn is expected to positively relate to commitment.

Satisfaction with Supervision. Satisfaction with supervision is also likely to be an important predictor of organizational commitment among the university teachers. Because supervisors create much of a subordinate’s work environment (Oldham, 1976), they might be described as representing the organization to the subordinates. Thus, supervisors play a crucial role in the perceptions employee form about the organization’s supportiveness and the extent to which they can be trusted to look after their interests. It follows that satisfaction with supervision could be expected to positively relate to organizational commitment.

Satisfaction with Job Security. Research studies have found job security to be positively related to organizational commitment (Yousef, 1998). The existence of job security is likely to bolster employees’ perceptions of organizational support which would help to foster organizational commitment. Thus, it was hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between satisfaction with job security and organization commitment.
Satisfaction with Work. Organizations have a greater chance of retaining their employees if they offer them jobs that are interesting, challenging, and give them a sense of accomplishment. In other words, satisfaction with the actual work undertaken can foster organizational commitment. Research has indicated that satisfaction with work itself is positively related to commitment (e.g., Okpara, 2004). In this research, a positive relationship between commitment and satisfaction with the nature of work was hypothesized.

Satisfaction with Working Conditions. Good working conditions such as clean, attractive surroundings, enable employees to perform their work smoothly and thus are likely to have a positive impact on organizational commitment. Research by Painter and Akroyd (1998) and Richards, O’Brien, and Akroyd (1994) found that the general working conditions were significantly related to organizational commitment. Keeping in view these findings, it was expected that in this study there would be a positive relationship between commitment and general working conditions.

Satisfaction with Training Opportunities. Although commitment might not be the intended or at least the most obvious objective of training, it can nevertheless be influenced in the process. The provision of training and development sends a message to the employees that the organization cares about them and supports them, and this is likely to lead to increased organization commitment. Research findings by Birdi, Allan, and Warr (1997) and Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1991) have revealed a positive relationship between organizational commitment and training opportunities; and the same positive relationship between the two variables was envisaged in this research.

On the basis of the above discussion it can be argued that the higher the satisfaction with each facet of the job, the greater the sense of commitment to the organization.

Hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment and employee perceptions of organizational justice

The two dimensions of organizational justice considered in this study were procedural justice and distributive justice. Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employees receive, whereas procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Research indicates that both distributive justice and procedural justice are related to organizational commitment (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Although both dimensions of organizational justice are important and have been linked to commitment, research evidence suggests that procedural justice is a better predictor of employee commitment to the organization than distributive justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Distributive justice, however, is a better predictor of personal outcomes such as pay satisfaction. One reason for this could be that use of fair procedures in decision making provides evidence of a genuine caring and concern on the part of the organization for the well being of employees (Lind & Tyler, 1988). This in turn motivates the employees to
continue their association with their current organization. Thus in this research it was hypothesized that if the faculty members perceived both distributive justice and procedural justice to be high they would be more motivated to continue their association with their current institutions.

**Hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment and organizational outcomes**

In this study, it was hypothesized that organizational commitment will lead to two behavioral outcomes: lower turnover and higher performance. Highly committed employees should have a weak intention to quit. Such an outcome is implicit in the definition of organizational commitment. Studies by Angle and Perry (1981) and Jenkins (1993) for example have revealed a negative relationship between turnover intentions and organizational commitment.

Studies by Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) and Meyer and others (1989) have uncovered a positive relationship between commitment and job performance. Employees who are committed to their respective institutions are more likely not only to remain with the institution but are also likely to exert more effort on the behalf of the organization and work towards its success and therefore are also likely to be better performers than the uncommitted employees.

**Research Hypotheses**

On the basis of the theoretical framework discussed previously, five hypotheses were tested:

- **H₁**: The selected personal characteristics will significantly explain variance in organizational commitment
- **H₂**: The selected facets of job satisfaction will significantly explain variance in organizational commitment
- **H₃**: The employee perceptions of organizational justice will significantly explain variance in organizational commitment
- **H₄**: There will be a positive relationship between organizational commitment and job performance
- **H₅**: There will be a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions
Method

Sample

Data were collected from full-time faculty members teaching in 33 universities in the three major cities of Pakistan: Lahore, Islamabad/Rawalpindi and Peshawar. In total, 140 questionnaires were delivered to the participating universities for distribution. Data were collected from lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors teaching on a full-time basis in the participating universities. Out of the 140 questionnaires distributed, 125 were completed and returned, yielding a response rate of 89.2%. The sample of employees was 66% male and 34% female with a mean age of 39 years. A total of 71% of the sample was married. The average job tenure for the sample was 9 years and the total years of teaching experience was 13 years. As far as the level of education was concerned, 74% of the faculty members held masters degrees, whereas 24% were Ph.D.s. In this sample 57% of the teachers were from Lahore, 29% were from Rawalpindi/Islamabad, and 13% belonged to Peshawar. 80% of the teachers taught in the public sector universities whereas 20% of the teachers belonged to private sector universities. Forty-three percent of the teachers were lecturers, 30% were assistant professors, 15% were associate professors, and 12% were full professors. Finally 10% of the teachers belonged to the faculty of arts, 19% were from the faculty of social sciences, 58% belonged to the faculty of science and engineering, and 13% were from the faculty of business and management.

Data Collection Procedure

The data were gathered by administering a questionnaire among the selected sample of teachers teaching in the chartered universities/degree-granting institutions operating in the 3 major cities of Pakistan: Lahore, Islamabad/Rawalpindi, and Peshawar. Before administering the questionnaire to the actual sample, it was pre-tested using a sample of 54 respondents from four universities in the city of Lahore. The respondents of this study were asked to give their comments and suggestions to improve the questionnaire. The qualitative comments received were mostly regarding the wording and length of the questionnaire. In the light of the suggestions received from the pilot respondents the researcher replaced the word “organization” with the word “institution” and “supervisor” with the word “immediate boss.” Apart from this, the items were not modified in any other way.

In addition to these modifications, the researcher also prepared a cover letter to accompany the questionnaire. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study to the selected respondents and requested them to take some time out of their busy schedule to complete the questionnaire. The letter also assured the respondents that their identity and the identity of their institutions will remain confidential. In fact the respondents were instructed not to write their name or the name of their respective institutions on the questionnaire.

The required number of copies of the modified questionnaire and the accompanying cover letter were handed over to the research officer in the Centre for
Statistics at the Lahore School of Economics (the institution where the researcher works). The research officer then visited the relevant respondents at their respective institutions and cities and requested them to fill out the questionnaires. If the respondents had the time, they completed the questionnaire on the spot. Only two respondents refused to participate in this voluntary survey. In other cases the research officer left the questionnaire with the relevant respondents and collected the questionnaire at a mutually agreed date and time. It took approximately six weeks to collect the data.

**Measurement of Variables**

**Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment was measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). The OCQ contains 15 items tapping three areas: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Each item used a seven-point scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (weighted 1) to “Strongly Agree” (weighted 7) to rate agreement or disagreement on with a statement. The average of the 15 items was used as the total scale score for each respondent. The coefficient alpha of this sample was 0.82.

**Personal Characteristics**

The personal characteristics included in this study were age, marital status, length of service with the current organization (organizational tenure), trust in university management and job involvement. These variables were measured as follows:

**Age.** Respondents were requested to report their age in years as of their last birthday.

**Organizational Tenure.** Respondents were asked to report the total number of years they had been employed in their current university or institution.

**Marital Status.** Respondents were asked to report whether they were married (coded 1) or single (coded 0).

**Level of Education.** Respondents were asked to report the highest degree they had attained. A doctorate was coded as 1 and all other degrees coded as a 0.

**Trust in University Management.** Trust in university management was measured by three items developed by Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, and Martin (1997). Each item was measured on a five-point scale with responses ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (weighted 1) to “Strongly Agree” (weighted 5). The scores on these three items were averaged to obtain a single score for trust in university management. The coefficient alpha for this sample was 0.66.
**Job Involvement.** Job involvement was measured by 12 items taken from the job involvement scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). Each item was measured on a five-point scale where a value of one corresponded to “Strongly Disagree” and a value of 5 corresponded to “Strongly Agree”. The scores obtained on each of the 12 items were averaged to produce a single score for job involvement. The coefficient alpha of this sample was 0.64.

**Facets of Job Satisfaction**

The facets of job satisfaction considered for this study included satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, training opportunities, coworkers, job security, supervision, actual work undertaken, and working conditions. Satisfaction with respect to each facet except supervision was measured by a single item. Supervision was measured by two items. Items pertaining to pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, coworkers, working conditions, and job security were taken from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967), whereas the items pertaining to actual work undertaken and opportunity for training and development were added by the researcher. The researcher used the same scale used by the MSQ to obtain responses for each item. Each item was measured on a five-point scale where a value of one corresponded to “Very Dissatisfied” and a value of 5 corresponded to “Very Satisfied”. The scores obtained on each item represented the respondents’ level of satisfaction with a particular factor. For supervision the scores obtained on each of the two items related to this facet were averaged to produce a single score for satisfaction with supervision. The coefficient alpha for supervision was 0.87.

**Organizational Justice**

The two dimensions of organizational justice were measured as follows:

**Distributive Justice.** Distributive justice was measured by five items taken from Price and Mueler’s (1986) Distributive Justice Index. These items asked the respondents to indicate the extent to which they have been fairly rewarded in view of their responsibilities, experience, job stress, effort and performance. The responses to these items were measured on a five-point scale where 1=very unfair and 5=very fair. The scores obtained on each of these five items were averaged to obtain a single score for distributive justice. The coefficient alpha for this sample was 0.89.

**Procedural Justice.** Procedural justice was measured by a five-item procedural justice scale. Four items were taken from previous research conducted by McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) and one item was added by the researcher. Respondents indicated on the five-point scale mentioned above, the extent to which the general procedures used by their respective institutions to communicate performance feedback, determine pay increases, decide teaching loads, and evaluate performance and determine promotions were fair. The item relating to “teaching load” was added
by the researcher. The scores obtained on each item were averaged to obtain a single score for procedural justice. The coefficient alpha of this sample was 0.81.

**Turnover Intentions**

Two items developed by Jenkins (1993) were used to measure withdrawal intentions. Each item was answered on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all likely/actively) to 7 (very likely/actively). The two scores were averaged to provide a single score of intention to turnover. The coefficient alpha of this sample was 0.76.

**Performance**

Job performance was measured by using a self-appraisal approach. For this purpose the researcher designed a self appraisal form which required the respondents to rate their performance on the following eight dimensions: teaching ability, research productivity, interpersonal skills, communication skills, student advisement and consultation, initiative, punctuality and attendance. Each dimension was measured by a single statement and the responses were obtained on a seven-point scale where a value of one corresponded to “Strongly Disagree” and a value of seven corresponded to “Strongly Agree”. The scores obtained on each of the eight items were averaged to produce a summary score reflecting job performance. The method of self appraisal has been used in previous research (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Yousef, 1998) and has produced satisfactory results. The coefficient alpha of this sample was 0.67.

**Analysis of Data**

The first three hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analysis. For the purpose of this research the researcher constructed three multiple regression models. In the first model, organizational commitment was regressed against personal characteristic variables. In the second model, organizational commitment was regressed against the facets of job satisfaction. In the third model, organizational commitment was regressed against the two dimensions of organizational justice: distributive justice and procedural justice.

In this research, all variables except age, organizational tenure, marital status, and level of education were measured with ordered scales. It has been suggested that OLS regression using variables with ordered scales may produce biased results (Sloane & Williams, 1996). To overcome this problem and maintain uniformity in all the variables, the suggestion of Sloan and Williams was followed that all the variables should be rescaled to produce z scores measuring the number of standard deviations between a given response and the mean response.

To determine which variable was most closely related to organizational commitment of faculty members, stepwise multiple-regression was used. With stepwise regression, the independent variable that contributes the most to explaining the dependent variable is entered first. Subsequent variables are included based on their incremental contribution over the first variable and whether they meet the criterion for entering the equation. Variables may be removed at each step if they
meet the removal criterion, which is a larger significance level than for entry. In this research a significance level of 0.05 was used to include or remove the variables from the model.

Hypotheses four and five were tested by using correlation analysis. Pearson Product Moment Correlations were run between commitment and each outcome variable (job performance and turnover intentions) to test hypotheses four and five.

**Results**

Table 2 shows the means and standard deviation for each variable used in the study. The overall mean of 5.27 for organizational commitment was moderately high. The average age of the respondents was 39 years and the average tenure was 9 years. Faculty members seemed satisfied with the actual work undertaken (Mean = 4.04) and the amount of job security they had (Mean = 4.03). However, with other facets of job satisfaction faculty members expressed moderate levels of satisfaction. The respondents indicated a high level of job involvement (Mean = 4.10) but reported moderate levels of trust in management (Mean = 3.56). The respondents perceived procedural justice (Mean = 3.31) and distributive justice (Mean = 3.53) to be at moderate levels. The faculty members reported a very low intention to turnover (Mean = 2.42) but rated their performance very highly (Mean = 5.84).

The reliability coefficients and correlations among the variables used in the study are reported in Table 3. This table indicates that the reliabilities for the job involvement, trust in management, and the self appraisal scales were marginal, but were very satisfactory for the other multi-item scales. The alphas ranged from 0.64 to 0.89 for the present sample.

From table 3, it can also be seen that organizational commitment was most closely related with distributive justice ($r = 0.56, p < 0.01$), trust in management ($r = 0.55, p < 0.01$), and procedural justice ($r = 0.52, p < 0.01$).

**Table 2**

**Descriptive Statistics**

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<td>3.56</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Involvement</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Performance</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Commitment</td>
<td>(.82)</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Age</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tenure</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Supervision</td>
<td>(.87)</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Job security</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Promotion Opportunities</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Coworkers</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Work</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Working conditions</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Training opportunities</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Trust</td>
<td>(.66)</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Job involvement</td>
<td>(.64)</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Distributive justice</td>
<td>(.89)</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>-.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Procedural justice</td>
<td>(.81)</td>
<td>-.38</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Turnover intentions</td>
<td>(.76)</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Job performance</td>
<td>(.67)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Coefficient alphas are in the diagonal. Correlations greater than .17 are significant at the .05 level and correlations greater than .23 are significant at the .01 level.
Table 4
Results of multiple-regression analysis with organizational commitment as the dependent variable and personal characteristics as independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>-.055</td>
<td>.539</td>
<td>1.463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.628</td>
<td>2.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>1.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>1.319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Involvement</td>
<td>.215</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>1.055</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² = 0.37
Adjusted R² = 0.34
F = 11.45, p < 0.01

Hypothesis 1: Relationship between Personal Characteristics and Commitment

As shown in the correlational analysis in Table 3 and the regression analysis in Table 4, trust in management and job involvement were both significantly related to organizational commitment. Age, tenure, marital status, and the level of education, however, were not related to commitment. Collectively, the personal characteristics explained 37% of the variation in organizational commitment as indicated by the value of R² (adjusted R² = .34). The complete equation is highly significant (F = 11.45, p<0.01). Thus, Hypothesis 1, which predicted that the personal characteristics as a group would significantly explain variance in organizational commitment, was supported.

The last column in Table 4 gives the values of the Variance Inflating Factor (VIF). The variance inflating factor is a measure of the effect of the other independent variables on a regression coefficient (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). According to Gujarati (2004), a variance inflating factor larger than 10 indicates serious multicollinearity. In the present model, the values of VIF are below 10 and hence, multicollinearity is not a problem.

Hypothesis 2: Relationship between Facets of Job Satisfaction and Commitment

To test this hypothesis, the selected facets of job satisfaction were regressed against organizational commitment. As shown in the correlational analysis in Table 3 and the regression analysis in Table 5, the results revealed that satisfaction with job security (p<0.05), supervision (p<0.1), training opportunities (p<0.05) and the actual work undertaken (p<0.01) is positively correlated with organizational commitment. The value of R² shows that as a group the facets of job satisfaction explain 39% of the variation in organizational commitment (adjusted R² = .35). The significant F-value (F = 9.31, p<0.01) indicates that the facets of job satisfaction collectively explain a significant amount of variance in organizational commitment. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.
Table 5
Results of multiple regression analysis with organizational commitment as the dependent variable and facets of job satisfaction as independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction Facet</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Security</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>1.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>1.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>1.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworkers</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td>1.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>1.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Opportunities</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>1.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual Work Undertaken</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1.446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>1.798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² = 0.39
Adjusted R² = 0.35
F = 9.31, p < 0.01

Table 6
Results of multiple regression analysis with organizational commitment as the dependent variable and the two dimensions of organizational justice as the independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Justice Dimension</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>2.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>2.261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² = 0.33
Adjusted R² = 0.32
F = 30.63, p < .01

Hypothesis 3: Relationship between Organizational Justice and Commitment

To test Hypothesis 3, the two dimensions of organizational justice were regressed against organizational commitment. As shown in Table 6, both distributive justice (p<0.01) and procedural justice (p<0.05) are significant predictors of organizational commitment and explain 33 percent of the variance in commitment as shown by the value of R² (adjusted R² = .32). The complete equation is highly significant (F = 30.63, p<0.01). Thus Hypothesis three was supported, and it was concluded that distributive justice and procedural justice, together, significantly explain variance in organizational commitment.

By comparing the values of R² for the three models, it was found that the selected facets of job satisfaction as a group explained the greatest proportion of variance in organizational commitment (R² = 0.39; Adjusted R² = 0.35). Therefore, it was concluded that the facets of job satisfaction as a group were most closely related to commitment of university teachers.
Next, attention was focused to determine which of the significant variables is most closely related to organizational commitment. For this purpose the researcher employed the stepwise multiple regression technique. From the above analysis it was found that trust in university management, job involvement, satisfaction with job security, satisfaction with training opportunities, satisfaction with the actual work undertaken, satisfaction with supervision, and the two dimensions of organizational justice—distributive justice and procedural justice were found to be significantly related to commitment. These variable were regressed against organizational commitment in a stepwise multiple regression. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 7.

The statistics on the five variables that entered the stepwise multiple regression equation are given in Table 7. Distributive justice was the first and the most salient of the five variables that entered the regression equation, and accounted for 31% of the variation in organizational commitment. At step 2, trust in university management entered the regression equation and accounted for an additional 9% of the variation in organizational commitment. At step 3, satisfaction with actual work undertaken entered the equation and accounted for an additional 7% of the variation in organizational commitment. Job involvement entered the equation at step 4 and accounted for an additional 3% of the variation in the dependent variable. Finally at step 5, satisfaction with training opportunities entered the equation and accounted for an additional 2% of the variation in organizational commitment. Together, these five variables explained 53% of the variation in organizational commitment. Procedural justice, satisfaction with job security and supervision did not enter the regression equation. From this analysis it was clear that distributive justice had the most significant impact on the organizational commitment of university faculty members.

Hypothesis 4 & 5: Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Outcomes

Hypotheses four and five were tested by correlating organizational commitment with self-ratings of performance and turnover intentions. As expected, organizational
commitment was positively correlated with self-rated job performance ($r = .32, p < .01$) and negatively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = - .40, p < .01$). Thus hypotheses 4 and 5 were substantiated. These results are shown in table 3.

**Discussion**

The findings of this research revealed that personal characteristics, facets of job satisfaction, and both distributive and procedural justice significantly explained variance in the organizational commitment of Pakistani university teachers. The selected facets of job satisfaction as a group were found to be most closely related to commitment ($R^2 = 0.39$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.35$).

The results of the stepwise multiple-regression revealed that individually, distributive justice exerted the most profound influence on organizational commitment. Procedural justice was also found to be statistically significant, but its effect on commitment was not as strong as that of distributive justice. Although both dimensions of organizational justice have been positively linked to commitment (e.g., McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992), research studies in the U.S. have revealed that procedural justice is a stronger predictor of organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment whereas distributive justice is more strongly related to personal outcomes such as pay satisfaction (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989). However, contrary to the findings in the US, the research findings of this study revealed that Pakistani faculty members are more likely to continue their association with their current institutions if they feel that they are fairly compensated or rewarded keeping in view their qualifications, teaching experience, the amount of effort that they put in and their job performance. In other words, the commitment level of faculty members is likely to increase if they perceive distributive justice to be high. One reason for this could be that, in a third-world country like Pakistan, where people struggle to make ends meet, satisfaction with personal outcomes, such as a high pay raise, may be more important for faculty members than the fairness of procedures. A larger pay check will buy more regardless of whether the procedures are fair or not (Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

Thus, the management of universities in Pakistan needs to ensure that the distribution of rewards is equitable and fair. Having said this, the importance of procedural justice should not be undermined. The fairness of an institution’s procedures defines the institution’s capacity to treat its employees fairly (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Thus if they see procedures as fair, the faculty members are likely to view the organization positively, which in turn would motivate them to remain committed to their respective institutions. The presence of both distributive justice and procedural justice is likely to create an “aura” of fairness within an institution (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997) which may lead to increased commitment.

Trust in university management was also found to be significantly related to commitment of faculty members. This finding is consistent with the studies of Brockner et al., (1997) and Dirks and Ferrin (2002). According to Brockner and colleagues (1997), employees generally are more supportive of authorities and the institutions that the authorities represent when trust is relatively high. If, however, the employees perceive the leadership of their respective institutions as dishonest and
if they feel that the management is likely to take advantage of them, the trust is likely to be low and consequently is likely to lead to lower levels of commitment. Thus the management of the respective universities can gain the trust of their faculty members by being honest with them and by fulfilling the promises they make. A high level of trust in management, as pointed out earlier, is likely to lead to increased commitment.

Job involvement was also found to be positively linked with commitment. Job involvement as defined and used in this research concerns an individual's ego involvement with the job, i.e. the degree to which his self-esteem is affected by his work performance (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). It follows that people who are very involved in their job and for whom their job is a “central life interest”—that is the job is a major source for satisfaction of important needs—will have less of an incentive to leave the organization. Studies by Janis (1982) and Loui (1995) also support this finding.

Finally, four facets of job satisfaction—actual work undertaken, training opportunities, job security, and supervision—were also found to be positively related to organizational commitment. Faculty members are less likely to leave their respective institutions if they are offered jobs which are challenging, motivating, and interesting. Research has shown that the presence of certain work characteristics like autonomy (Dunham et al., 1994) and job challenge (Meyer et al., 1998) might bolster perceptions of personal competence which is likely to lead to increased commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977). Thus, by incorporating the above-mentioned characteristics in teaching jobs, the university administrators can enrich the jobs of faculty members which consequently may lead to higher commitment.

As mentioned previously, although commitment might not be the intended, or at least most obvious, objective of training, it can nevertheless be influenced in the process. Employees who receive training, particularly training intended to provide them with an opportunity for advancement, might view this as a sign of organizational support and therefore help develop greater organizational commitment. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Tannenbaum and colleagues (1991) and Birdi and others (1997).

According to McElroy (2001), job security may induce commitment due to several reasons. Continued employment may enhance levels of commitment by virtue of the fact that employees can get to like their work environment after a while. In addition, it might happen that as employees continue membership of an organization, their belief in organizational values might increase and so might their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization. Alternatively, the employee might feel obliged to return the loyalty exhibited by the organization. Satisfaction with job security has also been found to be positively related to commitment in the studies conducted by Yousef (1998) and Hallier and Lyon (1996).

Finally, the results of this study revealed that satisfaction with the immediate supervisor was positively linked to commitment. A supervisor or the immediate boss represents the organization to the employees. If the supervisor takes a personal interest in and cares about the employees, it will send a message to employees that the organization cares about them and supports them, which in turn is likely to lead
to higher levels of organizational commitment. Studies by Richards and others (1994) and Wasti (2003) support this finding.

It was interesting to note that none of the four demographic variables—age, tenure, marital status, and level of education—were found to be significant predictors of organizational commitment. This finding supports the general notion that demographic variables are weak and inconsistent predictors of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

As far as the organizational outcomes were concerned, the findings of this research revealed that turnover intentions were negatively related to commitment ($r = -0.40, p < 0.01$), whereas the self report measure of job performance was positively related ($r = 0.32, p < 0.01$). These results show that highly committed faculty members are not only likely to stay with their respective institutions but are also likely to be better performers. These results are not surprising. Highly committed workers are likely to have a strong desire to remain with the organization. Such an outcome is implicit in the definition of commitment. Studies conducted by Angle and Perry (1981) and Jenkins (1993) lend support to this finding. Similarly research findings have provided evidence that employees who are highly committed to the organization are likely to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and therefore tend to perform at a relatively higher level (Meyer et al., 1989).

**Recommendations**

On the basis of the above findings, the following recommendations are made:

**Fair Rules, Policies and Procedures**

The institution’s rules, policies and procedures should be based on the foundation of distributive and procedural justice. Any perceived inequity in the distribution of rewards or any perceived injustice in the decision making process is likely to lower the commitment levels. According to Greenberg (1990), to maintain if not enhance employee motivation and commitment, the managers must at least “look fair” from their subordinates’ perspective. Therefore the higher authorities of universities in Pakistan would be well served if they make a concerted effort to improve procedures and reward distributions at their respective institutions.

**Gain Trust of Faculty Members**

The university authorities in Pakistan should try to build trust between the management and faculty members to foster organizational commitment. According to Brockner and colleagues (1997), employees are more supportive of, or committed to, authorities and the institutions that the authorities represent when trust is relatively high. To gain trust of faculty members the management of the respective universities needs to be honest with them. According to Kouzes and Posner (1993), “Honesty is absolutely essential to leadership. If people are going to follow someone willingly, whether it be into battle or into the boardroom, they first want to assure themselves that the person is worthy of their trust.” Therefore, dishonesty on part of
the management or any unmet promises is likely to diminish employees’ level of trust which could consequently result in lower commitment.

**Enrich the Jobs of Faculty Members**

Findings of this research revealed that satisfaction with the actual work undertaken was positively related to commitment. Therefore, it is recommended that faculty jobs should be enriched so as to make them more interesting, challenging, and motivating. Research has indicated that the presence of certain core job dimensions such as autonomy (Dunham et al., 1994), job challenge (Meyer et al., 1998), variety (Steers, 1977) and positive feedback (Hutchison & Garstka, 1996) lead to greater commitment. Therefore it is recommended that the education managers should try to design or redesign the jobs of faculty members by incorporating the above mentioned job dimensions. Autonomy can be incorporated into faculty jobs by giving teachers more freedom to choose textbooks, determine the teaching methodology, and set grading and evaluation criteria for their courses. They should also be given some discretion in scheduling their classes.

As pointed out earlier task autonomy fosters perceptions of personal competence which is likely to lead to higher commitment. In addition to this faculty jobs can be enriched by adding more variety to their work. One way to do this is to strike a right balance between teaching and research. Presently, conducting research in their respective areas of specialization is not a requirement for teaching staff in Pakistani universities. Lack of quality research is one of the reasons why Pakistani universities are lagging behind. Thus, by creating a right blend of teaching and research, the teachers will not only have a greater variety of work to do but will also get a chance to use more of their skills and abilities. This measure is also likely to improve the quality of research in Pakistani universities. Finally, by providing timely and accurate feedback on how well the teachers are performing their jobs, the university management can send the message that they support and care about their teaching staff. This could instill greater commitment among the faculty members.

**Provide Training Opportunities**

By providing opportunities for training and development, education managers can accomplish two objectives. One, the provision of training opportunities sends a message to employees that the organization cares about them and supports them which in turn help to develop greater organizational commitment. Two, by improving the skill level of faculty members, training can enhance student learning and achievement and can also lead to the improvement in the overall standard of education in the country. Thus, it is recommended that the institutions should initiate on the job training programs like mentoring and coaching and off the job training programs like sending faculty members for higher studies abroad, providing them opportunities to attend such events as courses, seminars, conferences, and workshops.
Conclusion

From the above discussion, it is clear that fostering commitment among faculty members has important consequences and implications for educational institutions. The results of this study revealed that highly committed faculty members are likely to continue their association with their current institutions, and at the same time, they are likely to put more effort on behalf of their respective institutions and thereby perform at higher levels than their uncommitted counterparts. Although the impact of organizational commitment on other organizational outcomes such as absenteeism and citizenship was not examined in this study, previous research has indicated that absenteeism is negatively related with commitment (Somers, 1995) and organizational citizenship behavior is positively related (Morrison, 1994). Therefore in light of this evidence, it can be argued that highly committed faculty members would have a stronger desire to come to work and make a positive contribution to their respective institutions—that is, they are likely to have lower absenteeism rates. In addition to this, highly committed teachers would be more willing to go above and beyond the call of duty for their respective institutions—that is, they are likely to perform organizational citizenship behaviors with greater frequency. All this is likely to increase the effectiveness of the educational institutions. On balance, it can be concluded that institutions which seek to retain their faculty members by building strong organizational commitment are in a better position to reap the benefits of a more dedicated, motivated, and reliable teaching staff.
References


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