CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION
Organizations are established to serve specific purposes and to carry out designated missions. To this end, they provide resources, infrastructures, and necessary training to their employees to enable them to accomplish goals and objectives directed toward the greater missions. The success of any organization is dependent upon the collection of individuals, including leaders and subordinates, and the amount of effort each individual puts into it. In a reciprocal way, it is important that employees of an organization share the vision of their organization be committed to its mission and goals and give unreservedly of themselves in order to attain these purposes. This stands true for education as an organization also. Academic excellence is essential to the educational mission of every educational organization. Such excellence is achieved in an environment of mutual confidence, collegial participation, effective leadership, strong departmental culture and organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment of workers is not a new concept in the study of organizational behavior. This topic was examined as early as 1938 (Barnard). In the 1950s Becker, investigated organizational commitment in relation to job satisfaction, which was then one of the main subjects in the field of socio-psychology or industrial psychology. This was important because of the urgent need to raise productivity, improve attendance and promote retention of the workforce. However, contrary to expectations, there was only a low correlation between job satisfaction and job performance. It appeared that although job satisfaction was related to job involvement and also to work-group involvement, this was not the same as company involvement. Such finding led to the emergence of the concept of ‘commitment’ especially organizational commitment.

Kanter (1968) views organizational commitment as the willingness of workers to devote energy and loyalty to an organization.

Webster’s dictionary (2002, 197) defines commitment as the state of intellectual and emotional adherence to some political, social or religious theory or action or practice... something which engages one to do something ... a continuing obligation. Where as Brown (1996, 233) puts it as the state to being obligated or bound (as by intellectual or emotional ties) or engagement or involvement. He divided commitment
to attitudinal and behavioral commitments. Attitudinal commitment consists of affective, continuance and normative commitments. Mowday et al., (1982) characterize commitment with three factors:

- The strong belief to the goals and values of an organization and accepting them
- The desire to strive much for an organization
- The strong desire to keep membership in an organization

According to Buchanan (1974) commitment includes three components: identification (to organization); involvement; and loyalty. Commitment means desire and acceptance. An individual wants to strive for the object, certain goals and values that he/she wants to be a member in some system (social aspect). An organization may be more or less attractive for potential labor. An individual may have high involvement in his/her work (psychological attachment) which means, "doing whatever it takes to get the job done" (Brown 1996, 234). The strength of commitment varies from the strong loyalty to alienation (Etzioni, 1975). The definitions consist of many different aspects. In commitment research, the term commitment is broadly used to refer to antecedents and consequences, as well as to the process of becoming committed or attached, or to the state of commitment or attachment itself (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

Mowday et al., (1982) provided the first extensive theory of organizational commitment. The authors identified some competing definitions of commitment. These definitions and the ones’ Meyer and Allen (1997) found are listed vide Table 1.1.

Even though the definitions listed are more than forty years old, they bear importance to contemporary commitment research, since they form the basis upon which the current view on commitment has been formed.
Table 1-1 A Brief Overview of Definitions of Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Becker (1960)</td>
<td>Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side-bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grusky (1966)</td>
<td>The nature of the relationship of the member to the system as a whole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanter (1968)</td>
<td>The willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems, the attachment of personality systems to social relations that are seen as self-expressive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown (1969)</td>
<td>(1) It includes something of the notion of membership; (2) it reflects the current position of the individual; (3) it has a special predictive potential, providing predictions concerning certain aspects of performance, motivation to work, spontaneous contribution, and other related outcomes; and (4) it suggests the differential relevance of motivational factors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hall et al. (1970)</td>
<td>The process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheldon (1971)</td>
<td>An attitude or an orientation toward the organization that links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972)</td>
<td>A structural phenomenon that occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investments over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buchanan (1974)</td>
<td>A partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salancik (1977)</td>
<td>A state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weiner and Gechman (1977)</td>
<td>Commitment behaviors are socially acceptable behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marsh and Mannari (1977)</td>
<td>The committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mowday et al. (1982)</td>
<td>The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weiner (1982)</td>
<td>The totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way, which meets organizational goals and interests</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Based on the literature review of commitment research, the view on commitment closely related to that of Meyer and Allen (1991) has been chosen as the fundamental basis for the typology of commitment used in this thesis. The rationale for this decision
is to be found in the strong tradition of commitment research in the field of organizational behavior and its explicit focus on conceptualizations. Moreover, this view on commitment has—to a great extent—received the necessary empirical support. Thus, commitment is defined as follows:

*Commitment is a state of attachment that defines the relationship between an actor (an individual, a group or an organization) and an entity (commitment target). This relationship takes different forms (affective, continuance and normative), that share certain common aspects (focus, strength, terms and durability), in all the forms of commitment.*

The definition of commitment is thus a synthesis of contemporary commitment literature from related disciplines. It is, by design, a static or literary definition of commitment. As such, it provides a typology for discussing commitment at a more profound level. Organizational commitment is a condition in which members of a group give their abilities. In other words, member and organizational interests are clearly identified; there is little membership resistance, and there is anticipated-mutual benefit for the group and its members; and loyalties to the organization and the pursuit of its goals in return for satisfaction.

**Basic Elements of Commitment**

For analytic purposes, it is useful to differentiate among basic elements of commitment, namely, *locus, object, base, focus, source, antecedents and consequences* of commitment. This typology deviates from the vocabulary common in commitment studies.

*Locus of Commitment* refers to where we can find different objects to which commitment is oriented. Brown (1996) distinguishes among a person, a group of persons, an entity made up of people (as organization and an idea or cause), as an object of commitment, but he does not develop this distinction further. There are basically two loci of commitment. One may be committed to an idea as such—for example gender quality—or one may be committed to an agent. The agent can be personal such as the deputy chief of the department of human resource management, or impersonal, such as an organization. An individual forms a commitment to an agent because he or she
believes the agent to “carry” appealing ideas—for example, gender equality. The locus of commitment has implication for the measurement of commitment. The “carrier approach” relies more on behavior, whereas the “idea approach” relies more on intention or meaning in the formation of knowledge about commitments.

The object of commitment is an entity to which commitment is oriented, whether an idea or an agent. In an organizational context, ideational objects of commitment are values, goals, principles, and policies, but so are artifacts like myths and heroes. Agents are entire organizations or different levels of organizational structures: organizational units, managers, professions, and coworkers as individuals or groups. Traditionally, organizational commitment is understood as a commitment to an entire organization (global commitment), but organizational commitment can be understood also as a function of multiple commitments to organizational ideas and agents can be upheld even if the ideas that the agent are seen to carry may be shifting or obscure. One may be committed to obey a deputy chief, for example, although one is not sure about his or her human resource management policies. Organizations very often expect commitment to agents without giving members any opportunity to check the coherence of the values, goals, principles, and policies that the agents may actually advocate. Individuals are also often committed to somebody or to something, even though they can describe only in very broad terms the ideas they share with that something or somebody. The distinction between an idea and the carrier of an idea comes close to the traditional distinction between “attitudinal” and “behavioral” approach to commitment (Brown, 1996, Mowday et al., 1979). This distinction assumes, however, something about bases and foci of commitment. For example, attitudinal commitment is sometimes called affective commitment, whereas behavioral commitment is called continuance commitment (Aven et al., 1993). This exemplifies the need for careful conceptual analysis.

**Bases of Commitment** O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) understand organizational commitment as psychological attachment to the organization. Following Kelman (1958) they differentiate among three bases of commitment:

- Compliance or in-rewards
- Identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation
Internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organization values.

Virtanen (2000) prefers a trichotomy of obligation, utilities and emotions. These concepts refer more directly to rational and arational bases of commitment that make people bind themselves to objects of commitment. Emotions as bases of commitment constitute mostly arational bindings through the process of identification. They are “beyond reason,” not irrational (as the opposite of rational). Obligation and utilities as bases of commitment constitute mostly rational bindings through the mechanisms of compliance and internalization as well as part of compliance, because both internalized value congruence and compliance-related exchange rules create obligations. The same applies for utilities: value congruence enables acceptable rewards, and exchange rules provide the means for balancing mutual benefits. The binding force is not always transparent to one who is committed. Rational bases are more transparent than arational ones.

Meyer and Allen (1997) differentiate among affective, normative, and continuance components of commitment. This resembles the trichotomy of emotion, obligation, and utility. They understand, however, both affective and normative commitment as emotional commitment, perhaps arational and continuance commitment as awareness of costs (people need to remain with the organization), probably rational. Contrary to their implication, Virtanen (2000) holds that the nature of obligations, related to normative commitment in Meyer and Allen’s view, is rational rather than arational, because people have rational arguments about norms. Obligations generated by socialization are often only partly transparent, but this does not make them emotional, only deficiently understood. Jaros et al., (1993) in turn, come closer to his trichotomy, because they relate emotion only to affective commitment but costs to continuance commitment and “a sense of duty, an obligation, or calling” (p.955), to moral commitment (see Table 1-3). In this way, continuance commitment and moral commitment can probably be understood as rational commitment, and affective commitment arational commitment. But, contrary to Jaros et al.’s view, obligation can be also other than moral obligations, and even costs have connections to emotions. For analytic clarity, bases of commitment should not be mixed with foci of commitment.
The focus of commitment explains the content of commitment; in the same way frameworks reveal the angle from which people see what they see. The focus of commitment can be, for example, moral, legal, economic, and political—indeed even aesthetic. The foci of commitment are in many ways related to societal institutions, because they have a profound effect on how people see the world. Together with the bases of commitment, foci provide the motive of commitment as it is experienced. This is the perspective that previous research on commitment has not addressed directly. For example, in Reichers’s (1985) multiple-constituency model of organizational commitment, the foci of employees’ commitment are the goal and values of different groups inside and outside of the organization. For every object of commitment there are many foci of commitment, in the same way as there are many frameworks for any object. One may be committed to the idea of gender equality legally and politically but not morally, for instance. Multi-dimensionality of psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995) comes closer to his view in the sense that these contracts seem to include all kinds of mutual expectations about rewards, power, and emotions and the like.

The source of commitment shows the background from which different objects, loci, bases and foci of commitment are generated. There are many alternatives: education, training, leadership styles and management systems, institutions, socioeconomic class, national culture and civilizations. These are all responsible for diverse contents of commitment, such as the occurrence of gender equality as a potential object of commitment.

Antecedents of commitment age, tenure, task autonomy, and role ambiguity, for example, can be understood as intervening variables that channel the occurrence and strength of different commitments. In order to “manage commitments,” it is necessary to know which constellations of different objects, loci, bases, and foci of commitment are related to which antecedents and, further, which antecedents are related to which source of commitment. How tangible their interrelations are. In this way, it is possible to create different commitments for different organizational purposes (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).
Consequences of commitment  Those purposes can be refined as the consequences of commitment, such as turnover, job performance, and different normative characteristics of organizational behavior (Wiener, 1982).

The strength of organizational commitment  Brown (1996) defines the strength of commitment as “its significance or importance in the life of a person who owns the commitment relative to other commitments and pursuit” (p.234). He is right, in that relative strength must be linked to effort. The results of committed behavior depend partly on factors that are beyond the control of the one who is committed. Another way to understand the strength of commitment is through the idea that the more commitment constrains future behavior, the stronger commitment is (Salancik, 1977). But because both effort and constraint depend on bases, foci and object of commitment, a better understanding of the strength of the commitment requires the analysis of their relation to the binding force of commitment. Table 1-2 presents a summary of basic elements of organizational commitment.

Table 1-2 Basic Elements of Organizational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Upbringing</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Training</th>
<th>Leadership</th>
<th>National</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Civilization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>Task</td>
<td>autonomy</td>
<td>Job scope</td>
<td>Job scope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea</td>
<td>Agent</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Principle</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Team</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Utility</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>Sacrifice</td>
<td>Preoccupation</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td></td>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td></td>
<td>Efforts</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td></td>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td></td>
<td>Grievances</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td></td>
<td>Legitimacy</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Artifact</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Factors Leading to Commitment

What leads individuals to be more or less committed to an organization? To answer this question, four major factors leading to commitment should be considered: visibility, explicitness, irreversibility and volition.

Visibility one of the most simple and straightforward ways to get individuals to commit to an organization is to make their association and contribution to the
organization public information (i.e., increase their visibility). Behaviors that are secret or unobserved do not have a committing force behind them because they cannot be linked to specific individuals. One way to make employee contributions public is through internal newsletters. By highlighting an employee’s contribution or connection to the organization in a company newsletter, the employee becomes more linked to the company. The more visible individuals and their contributions, the more committed they are likely to be. Yet another way to visibly link an employee to an organization is through the use of common uniforms (Salancik, 1977).

**Explicitness** Visibility alone is not sufficient to commit individuals to the organization. It must be combined with explicitness; the more explicit the behavior, the less deniable it is. Explicitness is the extent to which the individual cannot deny that the behavior occurred. How explicit the behavior is depends on two factors: its observability and unequivocality (equivocality is the difficulty of determining the actual act or behavior). When a behavior cannot be observed but only inferred, it is less explicit. Consider the example of two employees working on a company project. One of the employees spends significantly more time in the office working on the project where other employees view their behaviors. The second person working on the project works from home, thus the person’s behavior is less explicit and observable. Under the concept of explicitness, the individual’s behaviors are observed as clearly contributing to the completion of the project (Salancik, 1977).

**Irreversibility** means that a behavior is permanent—it cannot easily be revoked or undone. Organizations develop programs and work structures that tie individuals to their organizations. Benefits packages for example are not transferable from one firm to another. The irreversible loss of these benefits, should an individual choose to leave an organization, commits the individual to continued employment? Job-specific training is also irreversible. Developing an employee’s abilities so that they match the unique constellation of an organization’s expectations reduces the likelihood that the person will disengage from the organization. Developing work or project teams and fostering collaborations among specific coworkers are other ways to connect workers to the organization. Whether through benefits packages, job-specific training, or team projects, the purpose is to entangle the individual in organizational relationships. Therefore, the
greater the entanglement, the higher the irreversibility and the more costly termination would be to the employee (Salancik, 1977).

*Volition* (a choice to act) and its observable equivalent personal responsibility- is the fourth mechanism that binds people to action. Without volition, behaviors are not committing. Enhancing employees' personal responsibility for their action is critical to establishing and maintaining their commitment to tasks and the organization. A number of organizational interventions acknowledge the importance of personal volition. For example, organizations are beginning to design tasks in ways that increase individual’s personal responsibility for performing or scheduling them. Participative decision-making is one example that emphasizes volition or personal responsibility. If a workgroup is involved in making a decision or solving a problem, its member will be more committed to the implementation of that decision or solution than if they were simply informed of it (Salancik, 1977).

**Two Schools of Thought about Organizational Commitment**

Recent efforts to clarify the meaning of commitment have taken two distinct directions. The first involves attempt to illustrate that commitment can take different forms; that is the nature of the commitment that defines the relationship between an employee and some other entity (e.g., an organization) that can vary. The second involves effort to distinguish among the entities to which an employee becomes committed. These two approaches at classification are not incompatible. Organizational commitment research has made a distinction between two schools of thought: attitudinal and behavioral commitment (Reichers, 1985). Attitudinal commitment stems from the works of Buchanan (1974), Porter (1974) and Mowday *et al.*, (1982). Behavioral commitment has its origins in Becker (1960), Kiesler (1971), and Salancik (1977). Mowday *et al.*, (1982), explain the difference as follows:

> Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. […] Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem (Mowday *et al.*, 1982, p. 26).

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The attitudinal perspective of commitment research represents the view taken by organizational behavior researchers as the behavioral perspective stems from the field of social psychology. The difference is also visible in the research foci: The research on attitudinal commitment has traditionally been closely related to discovering the antecedent factors or conditions that contribute to the development of commitment and the behavioral consequences of such commitment. Behavioral commitment research has mostly been concerned with identifying the conditions under which a behavioral pattern tends to be repeated, as well as with the effects of such behavior on attitude change (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Recently, some efforts have been made to merge these two approaches. Coopey (1991) asserts that commitment would be a more valuable research target if both approaches were recognized. Brown (1996) attempts to reconcile the attitudinal and behavioral approaches by suggesting that they are just the two sides of the same coin.

A resolution of the two approaches may lie in the recognition that both attitudes and behaviors play a role in development. Behaviors – binding acts – probably work to seal a commitment, since a person, by definition, becomes committed by virtue of having taken some action or made some pledge. In the case of an internal pledge, behaviors in support of the commitment, particularly public behaviors, would act to strengthen it (Brown 1996, p.238).

In particular, Brown simplifies the concept into a singular concept of commitment as follows.

Commitment to a particular entity is a distinct phenomenon, albeit a complex one that may differ depending upon how certain factors, pertinent to all commitments, are perceived and evaluated by an individual (Brown 1996, p.232).

In specific, Brown (1996) refers to a set of "certain factors" that are common to all commitments. These are focus, terms and strength. All commitments have an object—a target of commitment. The target can be organization, work team, project goal or idea. This, however, is not a new realization. Simon et al., (1950) are among the first ones to propose this differentiation.
Morrow (1983) in her review, identifies five major targets of commitment: work itself, career, job, organization and union. Commitment targets can also be non-work related (Baruch, 1998). The strength of commitment varies depending on the personal meaning associated with the commitment focus, i.e. the respective commitment target. It has long been proposed that commitment is a continuous variable rather than a dichotomous one (Kiesler, 1971). Accordingly, people are referred to as being more or less committed rather than being simply committed or not. Although Kiesler made the suggestion (1971) a relatively long time ago, it was not until recently that Beck and Wilson (2000) seriously challenged the argument. Their findings support Kiesler’s original argumentation. Concerning the existence of multiple commitment targets, there is also a notion of difference in the durability of commitment. Commitment to one’s career may last for a lifetime, while commitment to a project does not.

**Approaches To Conceptualize Organizational Commitment**

Reviewing the literature on organizational commitment (e.g., Mowday *et al.* 1982; Reichers, 1985) reveals that there are at least three different approaches to conceptualizing organizational commitment:

First, the side-bet (exchange) perspective sees commitment as an outcome of inducement/contribution transactions between the organization and member. In this conceptualization, the individual perceives associated benefits such as pension plans as positive elements in an exchange that produces willingness to remain attached to the organization. Thus, commitment is defined as a function of the rewards and costs associated with organizational membership (Alutto *et al.*, 1973; Farrell and Rusbult, 1981).

Second is the psychological perspective which views organizational commitment as a three-component orientation. These components are:

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1 Becker (1960) proposed that: “commitments come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity” (p. 32). Thus, the effect of making side bets is to increase the cost of failing to persist in a course of action. In the case of organizational commitment, the course of action is staying with the company. Side bets can take various forms, but Becker suggested that they fall into several broad categories: generalized cultural expectations about responsible behavior, self-presentation concerns, impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustments to social positions, and non-work concerns.
their track record, as well as their current worth in the open market. The outcome of this analysis could determine organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 1989). A view that might apply to normative commitment suggests that commitment is in some way influenced by the person’s nature rather than what happens at work, and that some people are naturally committed, whereas others are not (Bateman and Strasser, 1984).

Table 1-32 The Component Parts of Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>Affective: A person’s emotional attachment to the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>Continuance: A person’s perception of the cost/risk of leaving the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Normative: The obligation and responsibility felt by the individual in the organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meyer and Allen (1991) however, have observed that the proposed definitions appear to reflect three general themes – affective orientation, cost based and moral obligation. Therefore, as a result of the analysis, they propose that commitment as a psychological attachment may take the following three forms: affective, normative and continuance types of commitment. These forms may also be seen as bases of commitment, motives engendering attachment (Becker, 1992).

It should be noted that other classification schemes have also been proposed. The most notable one is the classification of O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) which has later been redefined by Jaros et al. (1993).

Drawing from Kelman’s research (1958) on attitude and behavioral change, commitment can take three forms:

- Compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards
- Identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation
- Internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values (O’Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

In Kelman’s original taxonomy, these "ways of accepting influence" formed the basis for describing an attitude change. However, some researchers (Vandenberg et al., 1994) have found it difficult to differentiate identification from internalization, and others (Meyer and Allen, 1997) suggest that compliance or instrumental commitment is some kind of antithesis of commitment and its inclusion in the construct would just invite more confusion to the field. It has been proposed that internalization and
Under this perspective, commitment is defined as "the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Streers, 1977, p. 46).

Third is the *attributions perspective* which defines commitment as a binding of individuals to behavioral acts that results when individuals attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviors that are volitional, explicit, and irrevocable (Reichers, 1985).

Involvement could be reflected in the person’s willingness to undertake duties beyond the standard requirements of the job. Organizational commitment arises when the employee strongly identifies with the organization, agrees with its objectives and value system and is willing to expand effort on its behalf. In fact, organizations are made up of a number of factions with different agendas and conflicting objectives. They can be directed to specific experience of the employee at work- for example the individual’s geographic location, his or her section, department, or subsidiary company, or a trade union (Reichers, 1985; Coopy and Hartley, 1991).

**Components of Organizational Commitment**

An attempt has been made by Allen and Meyer (1990) to identify the component parts of commitment along similar lines to the description of three components of attitudes. Using the framework in Table 1-3, one could offer explanations for the causes of organizational commitment. A view, applicable to *affective commitment*, might convey the following sentiment: “If the organization is good to me, I will be loyal and hard working.” It appears that intrinsic job factors (e.g. taxing assignment and personal autonomy), rather than extrinsic factors (e.g., working condition, remuneration, and supervision) are most salient in fostering affective commitment (Dunham *et al.*, 1994). If, on the other hand, affective commitment is low, than a desire to leave the organization could be strong (Meyer, 1997). Of course, leaving the organization is another matter because it all depends on the employment opportunities. A view applicable to *continuance commitment* unfolds itself as follows. People take stock of
identification, rather than being commitment conceptualizations, are mechanisms by which affective commitment may develop.

Meyer and Allen’s conceptualization, in turn, has received empirical support (Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Suliman and Iles, 1999; Hartmann and Bambacas, 2000) and it has been tested for homogeneity (Benkhoff, 1997a). This view forms a part of the foundation this thesis is built upon.

Affective commitment (or attitudinal; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) has been described as a positive desire to act in a certain way. Positive attitudes mean commitment to the goals and values of the object. Allen and Meyer (1990) use concepts such as emotional attachment, identification and involvement in this context. An individual desires to maintain one’s membership in an organization. Etzioni (1975) stated that moral commitment is attached to affective commitment. Moral attachment and normative obligation, which Brown sees as a certain type of commitment, is difficult to separate from each other. An individual may have; for example, internal normative pressures to act for the goals and values of the organization and then it would mean moral attachment (O’Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

Continuance commitment means for an individual a situation, where the withdrawal from the object would cause costs for him/her and he/she must commit further, because of invests and offers ‘side-bets’ one has done. It is difficult and expensive to leave the object (Brown, 1996) and commitment gets also calculative features (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Costs may be social and economic (Jaros, 1997). Education, for example, is an important factor in continuance commitment (Mayer and Allen, 1997). Educational investments will also cause continuance commitment for a student. The deeper motive research may reveal, if an individual’s commitment is the moral-normative-type or continuance-type commitment, continuance commitment will include also compulsive traits. Etzioni’s concepts (1975) of alienative organizations and alienative commitment give a negative shade to the concept of commitment. An individual wants to stay in an organization because he/she fears to lose his/her pension. His/her intensity is low compared to the claims of the organization, but he/she will, however, be a member of the organization. The practical training, which is compulsory for a polytechnic student, may include this kind of features.
**Normative commitment** means an obligation to stay and internalization of normative pressures as familial or cultural pressures (Allen and Meyer, 1996, Hackett et al., 1994). A student has pressures or influences from one’s environment, when she/he is doing occupational choices. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) describe normative commitment as general loyalty or obligation attitudes. Social interactions have an important role in normative commitment processes. Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue membership with the entity in question. The concept of normative commitment was originally introduced by (Wiener, 1982, 420) who argued that normative commitment should be viewed as "the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests". Another commonly used term for normative commitment is moral commitment (Jaros et al., 1993). However, as normative commitment may only last until the ‘debt’ is regarded as paid (Meyer and Allen, 1991) it is subject to be lost later on. Thus, if normative commitment is the dominating form of commitment, it will potentially only last as long as the internal or external pressure is present or until the "debt" remains unpaid.

**Development of Commitment**

Different forms of commitment (affective, continuance and normative), develop through their own mechanisms (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This argument has also received empirical support (Coleman et al., 1999). Thus, these forms shall be treated separately. The literature concerned with the development of affective commitment (toward an organization), has classified a wide range of variables supposedly affecting the process into three categories:

- Organizational characteristics,
- Personal characteristics and
- Work experiences (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Of these characteristics, work experiences are seen to play the most important role in the development of affective commitment toward a commitment target (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1997) have reviewed the antecedents and found that job challenge, degree of autonomy, variety of skills used, role ambiguity, role conflict, participation in decision-making, fairness of policies and treatment, personal
fulfillment, employee-manager relationship, personal importance and personal competence play an important role in the development of affective commitment.

The organizational characteristics identified were fairness of organizational policy, decentralization and policy communication in terms of amount of information given and sensitivity shown. Personal characteristics such as gender, age, tenure, marital status, and the level of education do not contribute significantly to the development of affective commitment. The strongest correlations of personal characteristics with commitment types have been found between perceived competence and affective commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). This suggests that employees who have a strong confidence in their abilities and achievements tend to develop a stronger sense of affective commitment than those who are less confident (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen conclude that it is above all through personal fulfillment that affective commitment develops.

The development of continuance commitment has not been studied as much as the development of affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). However, the process through which one becomes continuance committed toward a commitment target is rather straightforward. Meyer and Allen argue that continuance commitment can develop as a result of any action or event that increases the costs of leaving the organization. Two sets of antecedent variables have been identified: investments and alternatives. In their analysis, Meyer and Allen have found investments including various factors, such as transferability of skills, retirement money, status, job security and the role of provider in one’s family. Alternatives reflect, for example, existing employment opportunities and attractiveness of those opportunities. However, recognition of investments and alternatives prevail the development of a sense of continuance commitment. If one does not recognize having made costly investments or having no alternatives, no sense of continuance is likely to develop.

The development of normative commitment has received the least interest of the various types of commitment in the field of organizational commitment research. Wiener has argued in his seminal work (1982) that normative commitment towards an organization develops through a socialization process. A newcomer to an organization learns what is valued and what is expected of a novice by the organization or by a project team. In turn, the newcomer is expected to behave in an acceptable manner. The
process that is referred to by Wiener is called internalization. What is internalized is a notion of appropriateness concerning loyalty to one’s team.

Investments made by an organization in their employees that seem hard to reciprocate are also suggested to contribute to the development of normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Such an investment may be an expensive training session that the organization agrees to cover. In addition, normative commitment may develop on the basis of psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995). Such a contract consists of "beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligations" (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p. 61). Empirical evidence (Vardi et al., 1989) also suggests that the congruence of organizational values and core values of a society may promote the development of normative commitment.

**Operationalization of the Construct of Organizational Commitment**

The idea for investigation is based on the conceptualization of Meyer and Allen’s three types of organizational commitment model. Figure 1-1 is a pictorial presentation of Meyer and Allen’s three types of organizational commitment.

![Figure 1-1: Three Types of Organizational Commitment](image)

Meyer and Allen (1997) identified and represented three forms of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment is an individual’s emotional attachment with (i.e. identification with and involvement in), the organization. Continuance commitment refers to the individual’s recognition of the
benefits of continued organizational membership versus the perceived cost of leaving the organization. Finally, normative commitment refers to the employee’s feeling of obligation to stay in the organization. All three forms of commitment affect not only employees’ willingness to remain with an organization, but their work related behavior as well.

**Organizational Commitment: A Research Review**

Organizational commitment is a construct that explores individual and organizational effectiveness outcomes. In general, organizational commitment is considered a useful measure of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975). In particular, “organizational commitment” is a “multidimensional construct” (Morrow, 1983) that has the potential to predict organizational outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure, and organizational goals.” (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p. 12).

Jermier and Beckers (1979) collected data on organizational commitment from over 800 police officers. The researchers were investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Findings revealed that employees who were more satisfied with their job had higher levels of organizational commitment.

Wiener and Vardi (1980) looked at the effect that organizational commitment had on commitment to the job and career commitment. Their participants included 56 insurance agents and 85 staff professionals. The researchers reported positive relationships between organizational commitment and the two other types of commitment.

Angle and Perry (1981) undertook a study to determine the effect that organizational commitment had on turnover. Findings revealed a negative relationship between turnover and organizational commitment. In short, employees who intended to leave the job were not committed to the organization.

DeCotiis and Summers (1987) undertook a study of 367 managers and their employees. They examined the relationship between organizational commitment and the outcome measures of individual motivation, desire to leave, turnover, and job performance. Organizational commitment was found to be a strong predictor for each of these outcome areas.
In arguing for three separate types of commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) considered affective, continuance, and normative commitment as disguisable components, rather than types of attitudinal commitment; that is, employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees. Some employees, for example, might feel both a strong need and a strong obligation to remain, but no desire to do so; others might feel neither a need nor obligation but a strong desire, and so on. The ‘net sum’ of a person’s commitment to the organization, therefore, reflects each of these separable psychological states.

While Meyer and Allen (1991) have used affective, continuance, and normative commitment to capture the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, affective commitment is considered a more effective measurement of organizational commitment.

In nine studies involving 2734 persons, Dunham et al., (1994) examined how participatory management and supervisory feedback influenced employee levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The researchers found that when supervisors provided feedback about performance and allowed employees to participate in decision-making, employee levels of affective commitment was stronger than both continuance and normative. That is, employees indicated staying with the organization was more related to wanting to, rather than needing to or feeling they ought to.

In a study involving 109 workers, Loui (1995) examined the relationship between the broad construct of organizational commitment and the outcome measures of supervisory trust, job involvement, and job satisfaction. In all three areas, Loui (1995) reported positive relationships with organizational commitment. More specifically, perceived trust in the supervisor, an ability to be involved with the job and feelings of job satisfaction were major determinants of organizational commitment.

Cohen and Kirchmeyer (1995) undertook a study to investigate the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and the non-work measure of resource enrichment. Their participants included 227 nurses from two hospitals. The researchers found positive relationships between resource enrichment and both affective and normative commitment. However, the relationship between continuance commitment and resource enrichment was negative. In effect, employees who were staying with the organization because they wanted to or felt they ought to, indicate
higher involvement and enjoyment with work activities. Whereas, employees who were staying with the organization because they felt they needed to indicate less involvement and dissatisfaction with work activities.

In a study of 238 nurses, Cohen (1996) investigated the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and other types of commitment including work involvement, job involvement, and career commitment. Findings revealed that affective commitment was more highly correlated with all the other types of commitment. In other words, employees who remained with the organization because they wanted to were more likely to exhibit higher levels of commitment to their work, their job, and their career.

Irving et al., (1997) investigated the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and the outcome measures of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Total participants for the study included 232 employees. Results revealed that job satisfaction was positively related to both affective and normative commitment. However, job satisfaction was negatively related to continuance commitment. All three types of commitment were negatively related to turnover intentions, with continuance commitment having the strongest negative relationship.

Meyer and Allen (1997) buttressed their support for the importance of affective commitment by explaining that employees with strong affective commitment would be motivated to higher levels of performance and make more meaningful contributions than employees who expressed continuance or normative commitment.

Patel (1999) investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and cooperative bank employees in India. A randomly selected sample of 200 bank employees with an equal number from nationalized and cooperative banks, divided into 3 age groups: younger (age below 35 years), middle (age 35-45 years), and elder (age above 45 years), was administered Lodahi and Kejner’s Job Involvement Scale (1965) and Mowday’s organizational commitment scale (1979). Results revealed less job involvement and less organizational commitment in younger age group both the nationalized and cooperative banks. Significant differences in organizational commitment but not in job involvement were observed only between the middle age group employees with the nationalized bank employees.
being higher on organizational commitment than their counterparts in the cooperative banks.

Kaur and Singh (2000) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and self-actualization, work values and work environment. Measures were administered to 100, non-teaching university employees (age 21-59 years). Comparison of groups, high and low on commitment, formed on the basis of median split of scores on organizational commitment, revealed significant differences on self-actualization, self-regard, time competence, social status activity preference, pride in work, and job involvement. Factor analyses revealed that organizational commitment was positively related with self-actualization self-regard and aggression and negatively associated with time-competence and inner directedness. Work values such as social status, activity preference, upward striving and pride in work were positively associated with organizational climate.

Khan and Mishra (2002) estimated the canonical correlation between need satisfaction and organizational commitment. A sample of 150 rail engine drivers (age 26-29) years was administered the Porter s’ need satisfaction scale and the organizational commitment scale (Allen and Meyer, 1993). Need s of social attachment and esteem were significantly correlated with affective and normative commitment. The canonical correlation between the five needs and three dimensions of organizational commitment was significant.

During the past two decades organizational commitment continued to be a major factor of research. There was also considerable attention given to theory development. It is now well recognized that commitment is a multidimensional construct and that the antecedents, correlates and consequences of commitment vary across dimensions. Meyer and Allen’s (1997) Three Components Model of Organizational Commitment overlaps considerably with other multi-dimensional conceptualizations. However because there are some important differences in the measure derived from these multi-dimensional model, the researcher concentrated only on research using the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales which were constructed specifically to evaluated the three component model. Organizational commitment focuses on employees’ commitment to the organization in three areas: (a) affective commitment exists when employees stay with the organization because they want to; (b) continuance
commitment exists when employees stay with the organization because they need to and (c) normative commitment exist when employees stay with the organization because they fell they ought to. Affective commitment results in better performance and more meaningful contributions, followed by normative commitment, followed by continuance commitment.

Factors Influencing Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has attracted considerable attention in the organizational behavior literature over the past few decades (cf., Benkhoff, 1997a; Mathiew and Zajac, 1990) as it has been demonstrated to predict various important work and non-work behavior (e.g., Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1989; Randall et al., 1990). Although some have questioned its relevance in an era of downsizing (Baruch, 1998) others (Mowday, 1998; Rousseau, 1998) believe that organizational commitment is still a meaningful concept of study. The concept of organizational commitment has grown in popularity in the literatures of industrial/organizational psychology and organizational behavior.

The concept has received a great deal of empirical study both as a consequence and an antecedent of other work-related variables of interest. As a consequence, organizational commitment has been linked to several personal variables, role states, and aspects of the work environment ranging from job characteristics to dimensions of organizational structure. As an antecedent, organizational commitment has been used to predict employees' absenteeism, performance, turnover, and other behaviors. In addition, several other variables of interest, perhaps best referred to as correlates (e.g., job involvement and job satisfaction), have demonstrated relationships with organizational commitment (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982; Morrow, 1983; and Reichers, 1985).

Mowday et al., (1982) have suggested that gaining a greater understanding of the processes related to organizational commitment has implications for employees, organizations, and society as a whole. Employees' level of commitment to an organization may make them more eligible to receive both extrinsic (e.g., wages and benefits), and psychological (e.g., intrinsic job satisfaction and relationships with coworkers), rewards associated with membership. Organizations value commitment
among their employees, which is typically assumed to reduce withdrawal behaviors such as lateness and turnover. In addition, committed employees may be more likely to engage in "extra-role" behaviors, such as creativeness or innovativeness, which are often what keeps an organization competitive (Katz and Kahn, 1978). From a larger perspective, a society as a whole tends to benefit from employees' organizational commitment in terms of lower rates of job movement and perhaps higher national productivity or work quality or both.

Literally hundreds of articles have been published on the concept of commitment since its introduction to organizational behavior research in the early 1950's. The commitment concept emerged from studies exploring employee–organization linkages. The motivation for the studies was provided by a belief that committed employees would be beneficial due to the potential for increased performance and reduced turnover and absenteeism (Mowday, 1998).

There are several important reasons an organization should want to increase the level of commitment among its employees. First, research has shown that a positive relationship exists between organizational commitment and employees' job satisfaction, attendance, and motivation (Becker et al., 1996). Second, because highly committed employees want to remain associated with the organization and to advance organization goals, they are most likely to leave and more likely to remain with the organizational for longer periods of time (Angle and Perry, 1981).

Although enhancing organizational commitment is an ongoing process, it is probably most critical early in an employee's association with an organization, to ensure continued attachment. Organizational commitment has been and continues to be of great interest to researchers of organizational behavior and management practitioners. Primarily this is because of its association with such desirable work behaviors as increased productivity, personnel stability, lower absenteeism rate, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Shore and Wayne, 1993). Consequently, much of the earlier research focused on definition, identification of antecedents, measurement and development of organizational processes that enhance organizational commitment among employees (Hall and Schneider, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; Mowday et al., 1979).
Commitment to an organization and its goals is a major factor in predicting performance (Eby et al., 1999). Thus, having mechanism to enhance the development of organizational commitment among new employees is critical. Mowday et al., (1982) suggested a number of factors that may increase this level of commitment, including:

- **Personal factors**, such as the employee’s initial level of commitment (deriving from initial job expectations, the psychological contract and so on).
- **Organizational factors**, such as the employee’s initial work experiences and subsequent sense of responsibility.
- **Non-organizational factors**, such as the availability of alternative jobs.

**Personal factors**

The primary personal factor is the amount of potential attachment that an employee brings to work on the first day. In other words, it is the employee’s propensity to develop a stable attachment to the organization. Gender, marital status, age, work values, and employment tenure are examples of personal factors (Dubin et al., 1975; Kidron, 1978).

**Organizational factors**

Include organizational factors such as job scope – the job’s feedback, autonomy, challenge, and significance increase behavioral involvement. The ability to participate actively in task-related decision-making also influences commitment levels. Likewise, consistency between workgroup and organizational goals will increase commitment to those goals and a person’s ultimate commitment to the organization. Finally, organizational characteristics such as concern for employees’ interests or employee ownership are also positively associated with increase commitment to the organization (Steers and Rhodes, 1978). Organizational factors such as reward systems, opportunity for employment, perceived organizational support, and opportunity for career advancement, job security, values and goals are found to induce organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Shore and Wayne, 1993).

**Non-organizational factors**

The primary non-organizational factor that enhances commitment is the availability of alternatives after the initial choice to join the organization has been made. It seems that the highest level of initial commitment occurs among employees who have sufficient external justification for their initial choice and; view the choice as relatively irrevocable; that is, they believe that they have had no
subsequent opportunities that would warrant changing their minds (O’Reilly and Caldwell, 1980).

However, due to limited time and resources, the investigators from among all these factors selected gender, teaching experience, designation from among personal factors, as demographic variables; and organizational culture and leadership frames from among the organizational factors for the present investigation.

**Organizational Culture**

Organizational culture is the personality of the organization. Culture comprises the assumptions, values, norms and tangible signs (artifacts) of organization members and their behaviors. Members of an organization soon come to sense the particular culture of an organization. Culture is one of those terms that is, difficult to express distinctly, but everyone knows it when they sense it. For example, the culture of a large, for-profit corporation is quite different than that of a hospital which is quite different than that of a university (McNamara, 1999).

Culture drives from the organization and its actions. It is somewhat like “the operating system” of organization. It guides think, act and feel. It is dynamic and fluid, and it is never static. A culture may be effective at one time; under a given set of circumstances and ineffective at another time. There is no generically good culture. There are however, generic pattern of health and pathology.

The organizational culture concept became important both of what it drew attention to and what it enabled. It underlined the fact that organizations were multidimensional, and that how individuals made sense of and felt about them could often be more important than what figures revealed about them. It placed emphasis on the hidden creative potential of human being to transform organizations and the importance of what happens in everyday relations rather than solely in the annual company report. It released a surge of interest in the human dimensions and “softer” elements of organizing, providing a platform for human resources specialists to argue for the greater alignment of leadership styles, vision, recruitment methods, reward structures and informal methods of management in relation to strategic objectives (Linstead, 2001).

Schein (1992) suggests that organizational culture is even more important today than it was in the past. Increased competition, globalization, mergers, acquisitions,
alliances, and various workforce developments have created a greater need for external and internal changes.

The literature on organizational culture is as relevant to public science management as it is to the management of private sector business organizations. Given a rapidly changing environment and continuing insights into organizational effectiveness, science organizations, as most other organizations, are seriously rethinking what they do and how they can best define and accomplish their goals and objectives. Once goals are defined, it is necessary to address the type of culture that is necessary to advance these goals and objectives and ensure the successful implementation of the necessary changes. In addition, the organizational effectiveness literature has been increasingly emphasizing the importance of culture in motivating and maximizing the value of its intellectual assets, particularly its human capital. This is particularly important in knowledge-intensive organizations, such as publicly funded scientific laboratories. This review of the organizational culture literature makes it clear that:

- Culture is essential for both successful organizational change and maximizing the value of human capital
- Culture management should become a critical management competency, and
- While the right culture may be a necessary condition for organizational success, it is by no means a sufficient condition.

An important challenge for managers is to determine what the most effective culture is for their organization and, when necessary, how to change the organizational culture effectively (Baker, 2002).

The concept of organizational culture also appealed to organizational scientists and practitioners who had grown disillusioned with the prevailing formalistic, quantitative organizational research. The emphasis on organizational culture shifted attention away from the functional and technical aspects (the so-called hard side), of management that could be more readily quantified and empirically analyzed to the interpersonal and symbolic aspects (the soft side), of management that required in-depth, qualitative studies of organizational life. This focus on the qualitative, symbolic aspects of organizations and management stimulated a large literature on leadership. In addition, specialized literatures emerged around particular variants of organizational culture considered increasingly important for success in the modern business world, such as
change-oriented culture, learning culture, innovating culture, team- and project-oriented cultures (Baker, 2002).

More recently, attention has turned to identifying and creating an organizational culture that facilitates agility; promotes alliances, partnerships and networks; encourages knowledge management; fosters corporate responsibility and/or moral integrity; and embraces diversity. The concept of organizational culture has generated a massive literature with enormous popularity. Organizational culture is shaped by varying aspects of organizational life, such as strategies, interpersonal relationship, and context (Carroll and Harrison, 1998; Cabrera and Banache, 1999).

**Levels of Organizational Culture**

Definitions of organizational culture initially focused on distinguishing levels of organizational culture, and strong versus weak cultures. Many definitions of culture give primacy to the cognitive components, such as assumptions, beliefs, and values. Others expand the concept to include behaviors and artifacts, leading to a common distinction between the visible and the hidden levels of organizational culture (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). In contrast to the distinction between the visible and hidden levels, some theorists distinguished multiple levels. Schein (1985) one of the foremost experts in the area, identifies the following levels, as shown in Figure 1-2.

![Figure 1-2 Levels of Organizational Culture](image)

In Schein’s view, fundamental assumptions constitute the core and most important aspect of organizational culture. Accordingly, he offers the following formal definition of organizational culture: *A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.* While the deeper levels may have been somewhat invisible in the past, this may no longer be the case. As a result of greater attention being directed at managing culture, organizations are recognizing the importance of articulating and stressing their fundamental assumptions. This is similar to what later happens with knowledge management – greater attention becomes directed at making the tacit knowledge within an organization more explicit and accessible. This suggests a general trend toward more explicitly managing what previously was considered largely unmanageable (Schein, 1992).

**Strong versus Weak Culture**

Although all organizations have cultures, some appear to have stronger, more deeply rooted cultures than others. Initially, a strong culture was conceptualized as a coherent set of beliefs, values, assumptions, and practices embraced by most members of the organization. The emphasis was on:

- The degree of consistency of beliefs, values, assumptions, and practices across organizational members; and
- The pervasiveness (number), of consistent beliefs, values, assumptions, and practices.

Many early proponents of organizational culture tended to assume that a strong, pervasive culture was beneficial to all organizations because it fostered motivation, commitment, identity, solidarity, and sameness, which, in turn, facilitated internal integration and coordination. Some, however, noted that a strong culture might be more important for some types of organizations than others. For example, volunteer organizations may need to stress culture more than business organizations. Still others noted potential dysfunctions of a strong culture, to the point of suggesting that a strong culture may not always be desirable. For example, a strong culture and the internalized
controls associated with it could result in individuals placing unconstrained demands on themselves, as well as acting as a barrier to adaptation and change. A strong culture could also be a means of manipulation and co-optation (Perrow, 1979). It could further contribute to a displacement of goals or sub goal formation, meaning that behavioral norms and ways of doing things become so important that they begin to overshadow the original purpose of the organization (Merton, 1957; March and Simon, 1958).

Culture was initially seen as a means of enhancing internal integration and coordination, but the open system view of organizations recognized that culture is also important in mediating adaptation to the environment. The traditional view of a strong culture could be contrary to the ability of organizations to adapt and change. Seeing culture as important for facilitating organizational innovation, the acceptance of new ideas and perspectives, and needed organizational change may require a different, or more nuanced, view of organizational culture.

Schein (1992) noted that, indeed, a strong organizational culture has generally been viewed as a conservative force. However, in contrast to the view that a strong organizational culture may be dysfunctional for contemporary business organizations that need to be change-oriented, he argues that just because a strong organizational culture is fairly stable does not mean that the organization will be resistant to change. It is possible for the content of a strong culture to be change-oriented, even if strong organizational cultures in the past typically were not. He suggests that the culture of modern organizations should be strong but limited, differentiating fundamental assumptions that are pivotal (vital to organizational survival and success), from everything else that is merely relevant (desirable but not mandatory). Today’s organizations, characterized by rapidly changing environments and internal workforce diversity, need a strong organizational culture but one that is less pervasive in terms of prescribing particular norms and behavioral patterns than may have existed in the past. This view was supported by Collins and Porras (1994) in the study of the companies that had strong and lasting performance.

Operationalization of the Construct of Organizational Culture

The model used in the current research was originally presented by Cameron and Quinn (1999) who were interested in determining the values that employees held as
valuable with regard to organizational effectiveness. They developed an organizational culture framework built upon a theoretical model called the “competing values framework”. This framework refers to whether an organization has a predominant internal or external focus and whether it strives for flexibility and individuality or stability and control. The framework is also based on six Organizational Culture Dimensions (i.e. dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria for success), and four dominant culture types (i.e. clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy). The competing values framework can be used in constructing an organizational culture profile.

Development of the Competing Values Framework

The Competing Values Framework was developed initially from research conducted by Cameron and Quinn (1999) on the major indicators of effective organizations. The key questions being asked in the investigation were: What are the main criteria for determining if an organization is effective or not? What key factors define organizational effectiveness? When people judge an organization to be effective, what indicators do they have in mind? Campbell et al., (1974) had created a list of 39 indicators that he claimed represented a comprehensive set of all possible measures for organizational effectiveness. That list of indicators was analyzed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) to determine if patterns or clusters could be identified. Since thirty-nine indicators are too many to comprehend or to be useful in organizations, they were seeking to find a more parsimonious way to identify the key factors of effectiveness.

Those thirty-nine indicators of effectiveness were submitted to a statistical analysis, and two major dimensions emerged that organized the indicators into four main clusters. One dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasize stability, order, and control. That is, on the one hand, some organizations are viewed as effective if they are changing, adaptable, and organic—for example; neither the product mix nor the organizational form stays in place very long at firms such as Microsoft or Nike. Other organizations are viewed as effective if they are stable, predictable, and mechanistic—for example, most universities, government agencies, and conglomerates such as Boeing are characterized by longevity and staying power in both design and outputs. This continuum ranges, in other words,
from organizational versatility and pliability on one end to organizational steadiness and durability on the other end.

The second dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize an internal orientation, integration, and unity from criteria that emphasize an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry. That is, some organizations are viewed as effective if they have harmonious internal characteristics. Others are judged to be effective if they are focused on interacting or competing with others outside their boundaries. That is, for having units, organizations adopt the attributes of the local environment more than a centrally prescribed approach. This continuum ranges, in other words, from organizational cohesion and consonance on the one end to organizational separation and independence on the other.

Together these two dimensions form four quadrants, each representing a distinct set of organizational effectiveness indicators. Figure 1-3 illustrates the relationships of these two dimensions to one another. These indicators of effectiveness represent what people value about an organization’s performance. They define what is seen as good and right and appropriate. The four clusters of criteria, in other words, define the core values upon which judgments about organizations are made.

What is notable about these four core values is that they represent opposite or competing assumptions. Each continuum highlights a core value that is opposite from the value on the other end of the continuum, that is, flexibility versus stability and internal versus external. The dimensions, therefore, produce quadrants that are also contradictory or competing on the diagonal. The upper left quadrant, for example, identifies values that emphasize an internal, organic focus, whereas the lower right quadrant identifies values that emphasize external, control focus. Similarly, the upper right quadrant identifies values that emphasize external, organic focus whereas the lower left quadrant emphasizes internal, control values. These competing or opposite values in each quadrant give rise to the name for the model, the *Competing Values Framework*.

Each quadrant in figure 1-3 has been given a label in order to distinguish its most notable characteristics—clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. As noted in the figure, the clan quadrant is in the upper left, the adhocracy quadrant is in the upper right, the hierarchy quadrant is in the lower left, and the market quadrant is in the lower right. It
is important to note that these quadrant names were not randomly selected. Rather, they were derived from the scholarly literature that explains how, over time, different organizational values have become associated with different forms of organizations. It was discovered that the four quadrants that emerged from these analyses match precisely the main organization forms that have developed in organizational science. They also match key management theories about organizational success, approaches to organizational quality, leadership roles, and management skills.

Figure 1-3 The Competing Values Framework

Adapted from K.S. Cameron & R. E Quinn (1999). Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley, p. 32)

The dimensions in Figure 1-3, and the quadrants produced by them, appear to be very robust in explaining the different orientations, as well as the competing values, that characterize human behavior. The robustness of these dimensions and the richness of the resulting quadrants led to identifying each quadrant as a cultural type. That is, each quadrant represents basic assumptions, orientations, and values—the same elements that comprise an organizational culture. A brief description of those four culture types is presented here with:
The Four Major Culture Types

Because the names of these four culture types were derived from the organizational studies, literature on dominant forms of organizing is explained and illustrated each of them in this section below.

**The Hierarchy Culture** the earliest approach to organizing in the modern era was based on the work of a German sociologist, Weber (1947), who studied government organizations in Europe during the 1800s. The major challenge faced by organizations at the beginning of the industrial revolution—the time Weber wrote—was to efficiently produce goods and services for an increasingly complex society. To accomplish this end, Weber proposed seven characteristics that have become known as the classical attributes of bureaucracy (rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality, accountability; see Weber, 1947). These characteristics were highly effective in accomplishing their purpose. They were adopted widely in organizations whose major challenge was to generate efficient, reliable, smooth-flowing, predictable output. In fact, up until the 1960s, almost every book on management and organizational studies made the assumption that Weber’s hierarchy or bureaucracy was the ideal form of organization. These authors claimed that the hierarchy was the best form of organizing because it led to stable, efficient, highly consistent products and services. In as much as the environment was relatively stable, tasks and functions could be integrated and coordinated, uniformity in products and services was maintained, and workers and jobs were under control. Clear lines of decision-making authority, standardized rules and procedures, and control and accountability mechanisms were valued as the keys to success. The organizational culture that is compatible with this form is characterized by a formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. Effective leaders are good coordinators and organizers. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. The long-term concerns of the organization are stability, predictability, and efficiency. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

**The Market Culture** is another form of organizing which became popular during the late 1960s as organizations began to be faced with new competitive challenges. This form relied on a fundamentally different set of assumptions than the hierarchy, and was based largely on the work of Williamson, Ouchi, and their colleagues (Williamson,
1975; Ouchi, 1981). These organizational scholars identified an alternative set of activities that they argued served as the foundation of organizational effectiveness. The most important of these was “transaction costs.”

This new design, based on an alternative set of assumptions and values, was referred to as a "market" form of organization. The term market is not synonymous with the marketing function or with consumers in the marketplace. Rather, it refers to a type of organization that functions as a market itself. It is oriented toward the external environment instead of internal affairs. It is focused on transactions with (mainly), external constituencies including suppliers, customers, contractors, licensees, unions, regulators, and so forth. And, unlike a hierarchy where internal control is maintained by rules, specialized jobs, and centralized decisions, the market operates primarily through economic market mechanisms, mainly monetary exchange. That is, the major focus of markets is to conduct transactions (exchanges, sales, contracts), with other constituencies so as to create competitive advantage. Profitability, bottom line results, strength in market niches, “stretch” targets, and secure customer bases are primary objectives of the organization. Not surprisingly, the core values that dominate market type organizations are competitiveness and productivity.

The basic assumptions in a market culture are that the external environment is not benign but hostile, consumers are choosy and interested in value, the organization is in business of increasing its competitive position, and the major task of management is to drive the organization toward productivity, results, and profits. It is assumed that a clear purpose and an aggressive strategy leads to productivity and profitability.

A market culture is a result-oriented workplace. Leaders are hard-driving producers and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. The long-term concern is on competitive actions and achieving stretch goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Outpacing the competition and market leadership are important (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The Clan Culture a third ideal form of organization is represented by the upper left quadrant in Figure 1-3. It is called a "clan" because of its similarity to a family-type organization. After studying Japanese firms in the late 1960s and early 1970s, a number of researchers observed fundamental differences between the market and hierarchy
forms of design in America and clan forms of design in Japan (Ouchi, 1981). Shared values and goals, cohesion, participativeness, individuality, and a sense of "we-ness" permeated those clan-type firms. They seemed more like extended families than economic entities. Instead of the rules and procedures of hierarchies, or the competitive profit centers of markets, typical characteristics of clan-type firms were teamwork, employee involvement programs, and corporate commitment to employees. These characteristics were evidenced by semi-autonomous work teams that received rewards on the basis of team (not individual), accomplishment and that hired and fired their own members, "quality circles" that encouraged workers to voice suggestions regarding how to improve their own work and the performance of the company, and an empowering environment for employees. Some basic assumptions in a clan culture are that the environment can best be managed through teamwork and employee development, customers are best thought of as partners, the organization is in the business of developing a humane work environment, and the major task of management is to empower employees and facilitate their participation, commitment, and loyalty (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The clan culture is typified by a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. Leaders are thought of as mentors and, perhaps, even as parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty and tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of individual development with high cohesion and morale being important. Success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.

As the developed world shifted from the Industrial Age to the Information Age, a fourth ideal type of organizing emerged, i.e., The Adhocracy Culture. It is an organizational form that is most responsive to the hyper-turbulent, hyper-accelerating conditions that increasingly typify the organizational world of the 21st century. With a rapidly decreasing half-life of product and service advantages, a set of assumptions was developed that differed from those of the previous three forms of organization. These assumptions were that innovative and pioneering initiatives are what lead to success, that organizations are mainly in the business of developing new products and services and preparing for the future, and that the major task of management is to foster
entrepreneurship, creativity, and activity on the cutting-edge. It was assumed that adaptation and innovativeness lead to new resources and profitability, so emphasis was placed on creating a vision of the future, organized anarchy, and disciplined imagination. The root of the word adhocracy is ad hoc—meaning a temporary, dynamic, flexible unit. Adhocracies have been characterized as "tents rather than palaces" in that they can reconfigure themselves rapidly when new circumstances arise. A major goal of an adhocracy is to foster adaptability, flexibility, and creativity where uncertainty, ambiguity and/or information-overload are typical.

The adhocracy organization may frequently be found in industries such as aerospace, software development, think-tank consulting, and filmmaking. An important challenge of these organizations is to produce innovative products and services and to adapt quickly to new opportunities. Unlike markets or hierarchies, adhocracies do not have centralized power or authority relationships. Instead, power flows from individual to individual or from task team to task team depending on what problem is being addressed at the time. A high emphasis on individuality, risk taking, and anticipating the future exists as almost everyone in an adhocracy becomes involved with production, clients, and so forth. For example, each different client demand in a consulting firm is treated as an independent project, and a temporary organizational design is set up to accomplish the task. When the project ends, the structure disintegrates.

In sum, the adhocracy culture is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative workplace. People stick their necks out and take risks. Effective leadership is visionary, innovative, and risk-oriented. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being at the leading edge of new knowledge, products, and/or services. Readiness for change and meeting new challenges is important. The organization’s long-term emphasis is on rapid growth and acquiring new resources. Success means producing unique and original products and services (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The Importance of Organizational Culture Assessment

The need to diagnose and manage organizational culture is growing in importance partly because of an increasing need to merge and mold different organization cultures as structural changes have occurred (for instance, when units are consolidated, when
downsizing and outsourcing eliminate part of the organization, or when entire organizations merge). The escalating importance of culture is also partly a result of the increasing turbulence, complexity, and unpredictability faced by organization in their external environments. Organizations tend to develop a dominant organizational culture over time as they adapt and respond to challenges in the environment (Schein, 1985: Sathe, 1983). Just as individuals who face threat, uncertainty, and ambiguity reassert their own habituated behavior with redoubled force (Staw et al., 1981; Weick, 1984) institutions also tend to respond to challenges by reasserting their core cultural values with added zeal.

As competition, change and pressure intensify for organization; therefore, organizational culture is given more prominence and emphasis. This is because, paradoxically, organizational culture creates both stability and adaptability for organizations. It creates stability by being the glue that holds the organization together. Culture reinforces continuity and consistency in the organization through adherence to a clear set of consensual values. Culture also fosters adaptability by providing a clear set of principles to follow when designing strategies to cope with new circumstances.

Clarifying core competence and strategic intent (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990) are prerequisites to organizational adaptability, and both are grounded squarely in the organization’s unique culture. Organizational culture assessment is increasingly important, therefore, because of the need to both change and maintain stability in the face of increasingly turbulent external environments. Having a diagnostic instrument to identify core organizational culture values can be an especially useful tool in the effective management to organizational change.

Organizational Commitment and Organizational Culture

Studies of organizational culture are varied, multilevel (department, division, company, country), and ubiquitous. Denison (1996) asserts that culture is the deep structure of organization, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organization member.

The pervasiveness and importance of values in organizational culture and subsequently in the development of commitment, satisfaction, trust and performance is well known (Ashforth and Mael, 1989).
Commitment to an organization and its goals is a major factor in predicting performance. Thus, having mechanisms to enhance the development of organizational commitment among new employees is critical. One way in which organizations with high levels of commitment differ from organizations with low levels of commitment is that the former are "strong culture" firms. For employees to be part of a strong culture, they must be educated about the expectations and practices of the organization. The extent of employees' commitment to their jobs and the organization may hinge on their ability to understand, accept, and become a part of the organization culture (Ott, 1989).

The strength of a culture is reflected by the degree of commitment shown by organization members. Culture aids the attainment of member commitment by laying out the mission and the values to be observed in its pursuit. Commitment means choosing one set of options in preference to another. It is a type of emotional (and perhaps financial), investment in the group. Reinforcers of commitment take the form of varying rewards, ranging from salary to the physical environment. Indeed, as we saw in our introductory case, negative reinforcement can be used to obtain commitment.

Culture, by its nature, contains many elements of reinforcement that helps attain organizational commitment. Being accepted as a member of a desirable group gives an individual a strong incentive to adopt its culture as a way of life and to work for its preservation. Over time, after primary rites are over, the individual feels a sense of identity with the group and is even willing to make sacrifices for it. The feeling of common bond and acceptance leads one to be committed to the group's continuation.

Thus, one of the prime requirements for or conditions of commitment is the sense of oneness that culture provides. All of its rites and symbols, so evident in fraternal group, are excellent examples of the critical role that culture plays in attaining organizational commitment, the necessary condition for long-term group survival.

Yeung et al., (1991) studied 10,300 executives in 1064 businesses, including many of the corporations on the list of Fortune 500 companies. The key respondents were human resource executives and various associates that these executives selected to complete the assessment instrument. The number of respondents averaged nine per business. Practically, they found that the largest percentage of firms was dominated by the hierarchy culture (44 percent), clan and adhocracy culture were next (15 and 14 percent, respectively), and surprisingly, no firms were dominated by the market
quadrant. All had moderate emphasis on the market culture type. Six percent of the firms had all the cultures equally dominant, and 22 percent had no culture emerge as dominant.

Kapur (1995) has made a study entitled a cross cultural study of job attitudes and organizational commitment among American and Indian school teacher in relation to organization culture, organizational structure, leadership styles and social norms. He found that, one of the variables which account for variance in organizational commitment teacher is organizational culture.

Jones (1998) attempted to study the relationship of organizational commitment to organizational culture of high schools. Surveys were sent to twelve high schools in Gloucester and Salem counties in New Jersey. He found that organizational commitment was closely related to organizational culture.

Lok and Crawford (1999) studied “The relationship between commitment and organizational culture, subculture, leadership style organizational change and development”. In their study, nurses from a number of hospitals in Australia were sampled. They found that organizational subculture was more strongly related to commitment than was organizational culture.

Kaliymoorthy and Kumar (2001) made a study on organizational culture and commitment in public limited companies in India. Result has shown that different organizational culture factors have an affect on organizational commitment; humanistic culture, development culture, rational culture, consensual culture and competitive culture are positively associated with the organizational commitment. The organizational commitment is negatively related to the hierarchical and achievement culture.

Lee (2002) attempted to study the relationship of organizational culture and organizational commitment of business companies in Taiwan. He found that organizational culture had positive relation with organizational commitment and organizational culture had positive effect on organizational commitment.

Jallow (2003) studied the relationships among perceptions of healthcare quality culture, and organizational commitment among four Toronto, Canada teaching hospitals nurses. The results suggest that perceptions of healthcare quality culture are related to organizational commitment among nurses.
Lim (2003) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and learning organization culture in one Korean private organization. One thousand employees were randomly and proportionately selected, He found that organizational commitment (except for continuance), was moderately and positively related to learning organization culture. Finally, employees of the electronic company had higher continuance organizational commitment in learning organization culture than those of other companies.

Lemaster (2004) investigated relationship between individual-culture congruence and affective, continuance, and normative commitment in selected Christian colleges and universities in southern California. The population under consideration included three private, non-profit Christian universities in southern California. Results indicated that individual-culture congruence and certain components of commitment did correlate statistically but it was not a useful predictor of commitment in the study sample as hypothesized.

Lok and Crawford (2004) examined the effects of organizational culture and organizational commitment in samples of Hong Kong and Australian managers. Statistically significant differences between the two samples were found for measures of innovative and supportive organizational cultures and organizational commitment, with the Australian sample having higher mean scores on all these variables. However, differences between the two samples for commitment were removed after statistically controlling for organizational culture and respondents’ demographic characteristics. For the combined samples, innovative and supportive cultures had positive effects on commitment, with the effects of an innovative culture on commitment being stronger in the Australian sample.

Silverthorne (2004) studied the impact of organizational culture and person-organization fit on organizational commitment. The results of this study, conducted in Taiwan, indicate that an organization is not a passive or stable institution and it evolves and grows within an organizational culture. While person-organization fit may be linked to organizational culture, the impact of specific types of organizational culture was also assessed. Involvement in an organization that had a bureaucratic organizational culture resulted in the lowest level of organizational commitment. An innovative culture was next highest and a supportive culture had the highest level of employee's organizational
commitment. These findings indicate that organizational culture plays an important role in the level of commitment in an organization.

Valentino (2004) examined the role of the middle manager in the integration and transmission of organizational culture in a merged organization. A mixed research methodology that included semi-structured interviews with 19 middle managers, five senior staff, and 111 front-line employees was used. Regarding the third research question what, if any, is the relationship of organizational culture with the middle manager's affective commitment? It was found a relationship existed between organizational culture and affective commitment.

Adkinson (2005) examined organizational culture and subculture in higher education utilizing the competing values framework. The researcher describes the organizational culture of a small, private Midwestern University. Specifically, the study employs the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981) and the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) to diagnose overall institutional culture and identify distinctive subcultures along representative Demographic criterion. The results of this investigation support the ability of the OCAI data to demonstrate simultaneously the three perspectives offered by Martin (2002): integration, differentiation and fragmentation. This is the first time the OCAI has been used in intersection with the Three-perspective Theory and the second time the OCAI has been used to test for subcultures in higher education as indicated by Paparone (2003) and available research published to date. This is the first published account of subcultural testing with OCAI in a traditional, comprehensive institution of higher education along Demographic parameters.

Castiglia (2005) explored the impact of changing culture in higher education on the person-organization fit and organizational commitment of college faculty. She reported that greater competition and an increased call for accountability have affected the roles faculty perform in the colleges and universities that employ them, which in turn has an impact on commitment. If changes in higher education culture negatively affect the work-lives of faculty, their willingness to help their students succeed and advance in their fields might be compromised. This mixed-model research was conducted with a population of 70 full-time faculty members at a small private college in northern New Jersey. The test college had recently undergone a major administrative change ushered
in by a new, aggressive strategic plan. This plan pushed the college toward a decidedly business-like management style. The findings indicated that the new strategic plan for the college negatively influenced the commitment faculty members felt toward the institution itself. The conclusion of this study showed that the movement of this college toward a business model did cause faculty to express discontent and disenfranchisement toward the college administration. Changes at this college did cause a drop in the commitment faculty felt toward the institution.

Xie (2005) examined six factors that influence employees’ internal service quality level in a public sport organization in China through testing six hypotheses. The six factors are organizational learning culture, job satisfaction, motivation to learn, affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, and normative organizational commitment. A total of 370 questionnaires were distributed to employees in the State Sport General Administration of China. Correlation analysis indicated that five of the six hypotheses were supported. Hypothesis five, in which there is a negative relationship between continuance organizational commitment and internal service quality, was rejected.

Studies of organizational culture are varied and multilevel. Culture is the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organizational members. That is, when we speak of organizational culture, we refer to the meanings inherent in the actions and procedures of organization. Organizational culture is shaped by varying aspect of organizational life, such strategies, interpersonal relationships, and context. The pervasiveness and importance of values in organizational culture and subsequently in the development of commitment and performance, is well known but lacking sufficient empirical evidence.

Researchers advocate the conduct of comprehensive, empirical studies using sophisticated measures to validate the strong belief among researchers that the performance of organizations is attributable, in part, to organizational culture. There is some indication that culture directly influences trustworthy behavior through social learning processes whereby managers receive social rewards when they behave in a manner consistent with cultural values and norms. A major thrust in the investigation of cultural values and norms has focused on identifying national cultures. However, there has been too much emphasis placed on identifying national cultures which has
neglected the inclusion of explanatory organizational behavior variables, such as industry, company, schools and universities contextual factors. Further, some researchers have called for research using large samples to provide a more comprehensive understanding of culture. The Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument (OCAI) was developed in an attempt to address these deficiencies by Carmon and Quinn, and current study aims to further improve the instrument to advance research on culture with in higher education organizations.

Further research evidence does suggests positive influence of organizational culture on the employee’s commitment. But as majority of these researches have been conducted in business or industrial set up, comparatively less attention has been focused in educational setting. Hence, investigation is needed to explore the relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment.

**Culture versus Climate**

It is now obvious that organizational culture is based on the history and tradition of the organization with the emphasis on value and norms underpinning employee behavior, whereas organizational climate is concerned with the current atmosphere within an organization. Some argue that culture and climate are concerned with the social context of organizations and affect the behavior of employees (Denison, 1996). But it is possible to acknowledge differences between the two concepts.

Climate looks at the current connections between individuals, groups, and performance and it lends itself more easily to change by management in their attempt to influence the behavior of their subordinates. It is a feature of the organization experienced by employees on a daily basis. Most description of organizational climate ignores values and norms. It is not as subtle or enduring as culture and it is probably more akin to morale.

According to Furnham (1997) the internal climate of the organization incorporates the nature of the organization’s communication networks, rewards system, leadership style, and other factors and though it may be seen as part of corporate culture the differences between culture and climate are not very clear. Organizational culture refers to the historical context within which events occur, and recognizes the impact of the
historical context, but it is more difficult to change in the short-term because of its longevity.

**Leadership Frames**

The study of leadership was initiated early in the twentieth century, beginning with trait theory, which suggested that leaders are endowed with specific trait and differentiate them from followers (Yukl, 2001). A shift in the emphasis from the personal characteristics of leaders to their behaviors as leaders began as a result of Stodgill’s (1948) initial research. This behavioral approach, emphasized from the late 1940s to the late 1960s, was concerned with leader behavior that is capable of being changed, focusing on the differences in the behavior of effective and ineffective leaders. However, scant attention had been paid to the possibility that leader behavior was contingent upon the situation, thus leading to the contingency approach in the 1970s, which emphasized the importance of situational factors and the nature of the external environment (Bryman, 1996).

Leadership in organization is commonly defined as having and being seen to have the ability to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of a working group or an organization of which they are member. This conception is an essential component of most of the numerous definitions of organizational leadership that have been proposed in the literature (Yukl, 2001).

Leadership is a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a task or objective. Effective leadership requires that the person in the leadership role establish trust and credibility to enlist the support of the followers; build relationships with those followers that motivate them to contribute their energy and resources to the collective effort; and manage, direct, and apply those collective resources to accomplish the group’s mission or task (Chemrs, 2001).

Throughout the history, proper identification of effective leaders has frequently determined the survival or demise of groups, organizations and entire societal cultures. Thus, it is no wonder that leadership has been of concern to the foremost thinkers and social philosophers in history (e.g. Plato, Machiavelli). Today, identifying and
developing effective leaders are major concern of organizations (Brodbeck, 2001). The scientific research on leadership did not begin until the twentieth century. It is informed by conceptions and methods of science, i.e. terms are defined in observable ways, theoretical assumptions are tested with objective evidence and the desire to find general principles, guides, theory development as well as the design of empirical studies.

Leadership research mainly focused on factors that determine how well a leader is able to influence followers and to accomplish group and organizational objectives (i.e. leadership effectiveness). Also of interest were the reasons why certain persons emerge as leaders, the determinants of the way leaders act, and the perception of leaders and leadership in the "eye of the beholders" (Brodbeck, 2001).

In an attempt to study leadership, three major approaches of leadership can be distinguished based on where they place their emphasis, for explaining leadership effectiveness:

a) Leader oriented trait and behavior approaches.

b) Situational or contingency approaches that incorporate situational factors

c) Approaches that address power and influence processes.

However, these approaches find relevance in organizational setting only, whereas the type of leadership prevalent in educational setting is educational leadership.

Educational Leadership

The quality of education provided in schools and colleges is commonly thought to be influenced by the quality of leadership directing these organizations. But the meaning of leadership, how it differs from everyday management and administration, and how it is manifested in educational organizations are matters of considerable dispute (Boyd, 2001).

Generic Leadership versus Educational Leadership

Scientific research on educational leadership began in the late 1950s and early 1960s, when researchers in the ‘theory movement’ began utilizing the techniques of the social sciences to examine these topics (Willower and Forsyth, 1999). Although researchers recognized that schools and colleges were totally different from business and industrial organizations, little attention was given to differences among types of
organizations in the early research. Instead, leadership and administration were treated as generic organizational issues for many years, with few questions asked about what might be distinctive about these functions or processes in educational settings. To the extent that a generic approach is considered sufficient, one only needs to look at the generic literature on leadership and administration in organizations. However, generic approaches, although valuable, are sufficient for comprehending effective leadership in educational organizations (Boyd, 2001).

The organizational structure of typical schools and colleges involves a context in which teachers are also practitioners doing discretionary, professional work. The work place impedes direct supervision and fosters the autonomy of employees (Lortie, 1975). This context thus reduces the effectiveness of a directive, “command and control” style of leadership and seems conducive to a more collaborative approach. This raises the question of how leaders can best improve the effectiveness of schools, universities and teachers. The early research on educational leadership emphasized strong, directive leadership by educational administrators, but more recent research suggested that a more participatory and collective approach to leadership is needed, to obtain the consent of employees and to build a sense of ‘professional community’ in educational organizations (Newmann and Welhlage, 1995). Some of the contextual aspects of schools such as the tension between their bureaucratic and professional features create what Ogawa et al., (1999) call the enduring dilemmas of educational organization.

**Operationalization Of The Construct Of Leadership**

The research here employed the framework developed by Bolman and Deal (2003) that divides theories of organizations into four traditions, which the authors labeled, as *frames*. The concept of frames has many synonyms in the social science literature-schema or schemata (Lord and Foti, 1986), maps (Weick and Bougon, 1986), images (Morgan, 1986), frames of reference, representations (Lesgold and Lajoie, 1991), paradigms (Gregory, 1983), pictures (Mitroff, 1985), and implicit organizing theories (Brief and Downy, 1983). The different labels share an assumption that individuals see the world in different ways because they are embedded in different worldviews.
Because the world of human experience is so complex and ambiguous, frames of reference shape how situations are defined and determine what actions are taken.

Deal and Bolman (2003) provided leaders and managers new perspectives, or frames to understand and manage organizations. As they defined, frames are both windows on the world and lenses that bring the world into focus. Frames help leaders order experience and decide what to do. And frames are tools. The ability to reframe experience enriches and broadens a leader’s repertoire. These researchers offered four frames to look at organizations: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic, all generated from a broad knowledge base of social sciences—sociology, psychology, political science and anthropology, the four frames of leadership as described by Bolman and Deal (1984) are the structural frame, the human resource frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame as depicted in figure 1-4. A brief description of each of the four frames follows.

**Figure 1-4 Bolman and Deal’s Four Frames of Leadership**

The Elements of the Structural Frame

The structural frame, drawn from sociology and management science, emphasizes goals, specialized roles, and formal relationship. The structural perspective originates from two main intellectual sources: one is from the scientific management approach developed by Taylor and Fayol, the other branch is rooted in the work of Weber (1947). The structural perspective focuses on designing a pattern of roles and formal
relationships that will accomplish collective goals. Organizations allocate responsibilities to participants (division of labor) and create rules, policies, procedures, and hierarchical organizational charts to coordinate diverse activities.

Structure is the pattern for internal exchanges and expectations within an organization. This structural form can either constrain or enhance the ability of the organization to accomplish objectives. Bolman and Deal (2003) list six assumptions behind the structural frame:

- Organizations exist to achieve established goals and objectives.
- Organizations work best when rationality prevails over personal preferences and external pressures.
- Structures must be designed to fit organizational circumstances.
- Organizations increase efficiency and enhance performance through specialization and division of labor.
- Appropriate forms of coordination and control are essential to ensuring that individuals and units work together in the service of organizational goals.
- Problems and performance gaps arise from structural deficiencies and can be remedied through restructuring (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

The structural frame attempts to look at the social context of work and not simply at the individual. Once an organization designates specific roles for employees, the next decision is to form or group them into working units. Coordination and control of these various groups are achieved either vertically or laterally. The best structure depends on the organization's environment, goals and strategies.

Bolman and Deal define the structural frame as a perspective that “emphasizes goals, specialized roles and formal relationships” (Bolman and Deal, 2003). From this window, problems are seen to arise when the organizational structure does not match the existing situation. When this present situation is recognized, reorganization may be in order. The leader's image of the structural frame is one of social analysis and architecture. It is easier to restructure a team or organization than the personality of each individual member. Bolman and Deal (2003) also discussed the importance of structural leadership. This type of leader uses the structural frame to develop the right design for the times and therefore is able to achieve structural changes. These authors identify a number of valuable characteristics that need to be possessed by the structural leader.
These include the ability of structural leaders to gather valid information and really do their “homework”. They must be willing to rethink the relationship of structure, strategy and environment. An effective structural leader must focus on implementation. Finally, they need to be willing to experiment, evaluate and adapt (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

Using the structural frame can help a leader to initiate needed change. First, the leader abandons a “people-blaming” perspective and realizes that most real problems are usually systemic. In viewing the structure, the leader may see that much conflict is the result of too little coordination rather than the division of labor. Problems may be caused by ill-defined roles or a structure that needs to change due to new environmental situations. The leader may see the need to institute an “internal structural device” to resolve and diagnose issues such as a task force. The leader may come to understand that the organization lacks structure and boundaries. Perhaps it has an overly rigid structure that constricts effectiveness. As an example of using the structural frame, a leader may create a chart to examine each individual’s tasks and responsibilities. It may then become more obvious why some conflict and tension occur.

As Bolman and Deal (2003) pointed out, when structuring an organization, managers will face two questions, how to allocate work and how to coordinate different roles and units. Mintzberg differentiates five major components in organizational structure: the strategic apex, the middle management, the operating core, the techno-structure, and the support staff. Different configurations of these components lead to different organizational forms: simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalized form, and adhocracy. Organizations must constantly adjust their structures to adapt to the environment shifts, technology changes, organizational growth and leadership changes (Wang, 2005).

Bolman and Deal (2003) provide guidelines for aligning structures to situations in several case studies presented in their work. Structure is also a key to high-performing teams. Conscious attention to structure and roles within the teams will make the team much more effective. They illustrated four structures for teams: one-boss arrangement, dual-authority arrangement, simple-hierarchy arrangement, and the all-channel arrangement or star network.
The Elements of the Human Resource Frame

The human resource frame is another window to bring an organization into focus. The human resource frame based particularly on ideas from psychology, focuses on the relationship between organizations and people. It sees an organization as much like an extended family, inhabited by individuals who have needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations. Therefore, the challenge, from the human resource perspective, is how to align organizations to people—to find a way for individuals to get the job done while feeling good about what they are doing.

The human resource frame emphasizes the fit between individual and organization. Therefore, it is necessary to understand human nature and their needs. Theories of Maslow, McGregor and Argyris all illustrate the needs of human nature, and the conflict between human personality and organizational structure. All these reflect core assumptions of the human resource frame and advocate treating the workforce as an investment rather than a cost. Organizational success relies on investing in employees and responding to their needs (Wang, 2005).

It is suggested that organizations develop a long-term human resource philosophy, strengthening the bond between individual and organization, empowering employees and redesigning their work by teaming and job enrichment. A comprehensive way to improve human resource management is Total Quality Management, which will combine structural and human resource elements. Bolman and Deal (2003) stated that the key to this window is “a sensitive understanding of people and their symbiotic relationship with organizations” (p.102). They contended that the human resource frame has four core assumptions.

– Organizations exist to serve human needs rather than the reverse.
– People and organizations need each other: organizations need ideas, energy, and talent; while people need careers, salaries, and opportunities.
– When the fit between individual and system is poor, one or both will suffer because either individual will be exploited, or they will exploit the organization. It is also possible that both will become victims of exploitation.
– A good fit benefits both, individuals find meaningful satisfying work, and organizations get the talent and energy they need to succeed.
Many theorists have written about human needs. One area of agreement is that needs must be fulfilled if an employee is to be content and highly productive. People are an important asset in any organization. Many successful organizations have turned their efforts toward investing in their people to create a highly skilled and motivated workforce. A human resource leader develops a supportive human resource philosophy. First, there is a commitment to invest in people, hire the right people and reward them. Other important aspects of this commitment include providing a sense of security, promotion from within, and sound training. Secondly, the effective leader must understand that work itself must be fulfilling and provide challenging opportunities for the employee. This can be achieved by allowing autonomy, participation, job enrichment, cross-utilization, and teaming (Thomas, 2002).

Bolman and Deal also offer other sound advice for the human resource leader. They take a cue from Greenleaf (1973) who believed that “the best test of leadership is: do those served grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?” (p.7). Toward this end, Bolman and Deal provide three leadership principles.

- First, human resource leaders believe in people and communicate their belief.
- Secondly, human resource leaders are visible and accessible.
- Third, effective human resource leaders seek to empower others.

Using the human resource frame can help a leader to initiate change. The leader can discover if basic human needs are truly being met. If not, frustration or fear may occur within the organization. Does the organization have a clear human resource philosophy? The leader can initiate a program to see that the various needs of individuals are being met so they can become most productive. The leader can also direct financial resources to insure that positive training and education is available for workers at every level.

**The Elements of the Political Frame**

The political frame is rooted in the work of political scientists. It sees organizations as arenas, contests, or jungles. This may not sound pretty but the reality is that “it is a jungle out there”. It is a competitive environment or contest in which different people compete for power and limited resources. In an ideal world this situation would not exist. The work environment is one of rampant conflict immersed in
negotiation, bargaining, compromise and coercion. Five propositions summarize the perspective:

- Organizations are coalitions of various individuals and interest groups.
- There are enduring differences among coalition members in values, beliefs, information, interests, and perceptions of reality.
- Most important decisions involve the allocation of scarce resources and what gets done.
- Scarce resources and enduring differences give conflict a central role in organizational dynamics and typically make power the most important resource.
- Goals and decisions emerge from bargaining, negotiation, and jockeying for position among different stakeholders (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

An important political issue in this frame is power. How power is distributed and exercised is essential in understanding the political frame. Social scientists have attempted to identify various elements of power. These include authority, information, expertise, and control of rewards, coercion, alliances, control of agendas, defining myths/symbols and personal power.

A major focus of the political frame is not on the resolution of conflict. Conflict is viewed as inevitable in the organization. For example, horizontal conflict may exist between divisions or departments. Vertical conflict may occur within levels and cultural conflict may exist between groups with diverse values. The political leaders will not focus their efforts merely on resolution of conflict but on strategy and tactics. Simply resolving the many conflicts that arise in an organization only temporarily treat the effect of the conflict, and not the cause. Bolman and Deal highlight the need for a leader to have perceptive political skills to manage relations with both opponents and allies. They emphasize four key political skills. These are:

- Agenda setting,
- Mapping the political terrain,
- Networking and forming coalitions and
- Bargaining/negotiation

For the political leader, this is a difficult balance between adopting open collaborative behavior and more adversarial approaches when absolutely necessary (Thomas, 2002).
The political frame understands that the workplace is much like an arena. There is an ongoing mixture of interests and agendas among differing groups and individuals. The political leader can become an agent of the political process and can use political skills as powerful tools to achieve a desired purpose. Bolman and Deal (2003) provide an example of this. When lower-level employees seek more influence in an organization, a political leader can establish "self-managing teams" to satisfy their legitimate needs. Yet, the leader can still control the alternatives and information available to these teams. The political frame also recognizes that organizations are much like an ecosystem with many shared environments dynamically interacting with each other.

Using the political frame can also help a leader to initiate change. For example, a political leader may understand the certainty of an ongoing political environment. As a unifier, the leader may be able to focus on a common "enemy" to bring competing forces together. Perhaps a competitor is offering a similar or competitive product or service that threatens your existence! The political leader realizes that power also gives them the ability to get things done. Skillfully cultivating allies and advocates can build coalitions and reshape the organization in a desired direction. To accomplish this political leader may create a political map of the organization and arrange both groups and individuals into their various power networks and interests. From a political perspective, organizational goals, structure, and policies emerge from an ongoing process of bargaining and negotiation among major interest groups (Thomas, 2002).

The question is not whether organizations will have politics but rather what kind of politics they will have. Politics can be destructive but can also be constructive vehicle for achieving organizational goals. Organizational change and effectiveness depend on managers’ political skills. Constructive politicians recognize and understand political realities. They know how to fashion agendas, create networks of support, and negotiate effectively with both allies and adversaries.

The Elements of the Symbolic Frame

Being different from the traditional perspective on team building, the symbolic approach focuses on how to build team spirit. The process of team building is viewed as both a search for the spirit within and the creation of a community of believers united
by shared faith and shared culture. The symbolic frame is a powerful window that builds on cultural and social anthropology. It views organizations as carnivals, theaters or tribes. An organization is a unique culture driven by stories, ceremonies, rituals and heroes. This is in contrast to an organization being driven by rules, authority or policies. The organization is analogous to a theater. With this theater, various actors play their respective roles in the drama and the audience forms its own impressions of what is seen on the stage. Bolman and Deal (2003) distill the symbolic frame into a number of core assumptions. These are as follows:

- What is most important about any event is not what happened but what it means.
- Activity and meanings are loosely coupled: events have multiple meanings because people interpret experience differently.
- Most of life is ambiguous or uncertain for most people. What happened, why it happened, or what will happen next are all puzzles?
- High levels of ambiguity and uncertainty undercut rational analysis, problem solving, and decision-making.
- In the face of uncertainty and ambiguity, people create symbols to resolve confusion, increase predictability, inspire a direction, and as an anchor of hope and faith.
- Many events and processes are more important for what is expressed rather than what is produced. They form a cultural tapestry of secular myths; rituals, ceremonies and stories that help people find meaning, purpose and passion in their work.

Symbols clarify an organization's culture. This culture is a collection of values, beliefs, and practices that define to its members who they are and how they are expected to do things. An organization may possess a number of symbols or symbolic activities to find meaning and direction. Some of these include myths, stories/fairy tales, ritual, ceremony, metaphor, humor and play. Each of these activities has distinctive elements as symbolic. Furthermore, many activities of the organization are part of the theatrical process. These activities include meetings, planning, evaluation, collective bargaining, and power. The symbolic frame also looks at team building in a different light. It views the development of high-performing teams as a spiritual network also enhanced by rituals, ceremonies and myths. One does not need to look far to discover these symbols. They exist from the proverbial “corner office”, to corporate seals, to the camaraderie of military units (Thomas, 2002).
From the perspective of the symbolic frame, problems develop when symbols begin to lose their meaning or the actors play their roles poorly. Using the lens of this window, a symbolic leader may recognize the need to alter existing practices. This allows the organization to stage a new drama called "change." This is even true of the organization's structure. Viewed through the symbolic frame, the existing structure is observed as a stage design composed of lighting, props, costumes and drama to make the play real and credible to the audience. The symbolic leader can use symbols or myths to rebuild the spiritual aspect of the organization. If the organization needs to produce the change drama, it can do so by requiring revisions in the script, settings or actors. When this play is directed effectively by the symbolic leader, this process will reduce anxiety, bewilderment and uncertainty (Thomas, 2002). Using the symbolic frame can be yet another way to help a leader to initiate change. A symbolic leader, as a leading actor can interpret and reinterpret experience so as to provide meaning and purpose through phrases of beauty and passion (Bolman and Deal, 2003). A new set of rules and practices can be used to motivate others effectively. The leader can use symbols to capture the attention of others. This can act as a signal that change is coming. The leader can provide visionary meaning to experiences and use symbols to inspire hope of a better future. The symbolic leader can tell stories that link the great experiences of the past and the troubles of the moment to a brighter tomorrow. If an organization is deficient in symbols or rituals, a symbolic leader will create meaningful new symbols. These actions may help bridge the gap that exists between various groups or individuals within the organization who lack a common purpose.

The Significance of Bolman and Deal's Leadership Frames

The four frames listed above are not independent of each other. Studies show that effective leaders and effective organizations rely on using multiple frames and the use of the multiple frames can assist the leader to see and understand more broadly the problems and potential solutions available. It encourages the leader to think flexibly about their organization and opens various opportunities to the leader to view events from multiple angles. The authors offer a detailed guideline on how to choose a frame, and how to integrate multiple frames in the same situation. The essence of reframing is examining the same situation from multiple points to develop a holistic picture.
Reframing provides effective options for leaders but also carries the risk. The structural frame risks ignoring everything that falls outside the rational jurisdiction of procedures, policies and organization charts. The human resource frame sometimes has a romanticized view of human nature. The political frame can easily become a cynical self-fulfilling tool. The symbolic frame could be vague and elusive. So choosing a frame involves a combination of analysis and artistry. They discuss limitations in traditional views of leadership and provide a more comprehensive view of leadership and how it works in organizations. It summarizes the effective leaders as architects, servants, advocates, and prophets. They also argue that leaders should build more ethical organizations through gifts of authorship, love, power, and significance. It concludes with strategies and characteristics future leaders will require (Wang, 2005). Key concepts of the four leadership frames are depicted vide Table 1-4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frames</th>
<th>Comes From</th>
<th>Key Concepts Within Each Frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td>Sociology and Management Science</td>
<td>Goals, task, technology, rationality, environment, rules, roles, linkages, differentiation, integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Needs, skills, feelings, motivation, satisfaction, norms, interpersonal interactions, fit (person/organization)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>Political Scientists</td>
<td>Power, conflict, coalitions, scarcity, enduring differences, politics, bargaining, negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Cultural and Social Anthropology</td>
<td>Symbols, meaning, belief, faith, culture, ceremonies, rituals, myths, stories, play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
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Organizational Commitment and Leadership Frames

Research studies have indicated upon a close influence of leadership behaviors on the organizational commitment. Reichers (1986) claimed that organizational commitment was in reality a collection of commitments to multiple coalitions and constituencies (e.g. owners/managers, rank-and-file employees, and customers/clients). In an examination of this claim, she undertook a study to measure the commitment of 124 mental health professionals. Her only significant correlation was between organizational commitment and top management’s goals and values.

In another study involving 763 employees, Becker (1992) examined whether employees’ commitment to different constituencies or to the overall organization was better predictors of job satisfaction, intention to quit, and pro-social behavior. He
discovered that employees' commitment to top management, supervisors, and work groups contributed significantly beyond commitment to the organization. During later research, Becker et al., (1996) also explored whether commitment to the supervisor or to the organization had the greatest impact on the performance ratings that supervisors gave to newly hired employees. From their study of 281 participants, the researchers found that commitment to the supervisor and the supervisor’s values was more strongly related to performance ratings than was employee commitment to the organization. Summarizing these multiple constituency findings, Meyer and Allen (1997) offered the following:

It should be kept in mind, however, that when researchers measure commitment to the organization as a whole, they are probably measuring employees’ commitment to “top management” (Reichers, 1986) or to a combination of top management and more local foci (Hunt and Morgan, 1994). If, on the one hand, the intention is to use commitment as a means of understanding or predicting behavior of relevance to the organization as a whole (or top management specifically) it would seem that the purpose can be well served with global measures of organizational commitment.

Bolman and Deal (1991) have conducted a research to investigate how leaders use leadership frames in US colleges and universities, US public school and public school in Singapore. Results revealed that in all three populations, the symbolic frame was used in fewer than 20 percent of the cases while the structural frame was used in about 60 percent of the samples.

Rai and Sinha (2000) explored the relationship between factor analytically derived dimensions of transformational leadership and dimensions of organizational commitment, and the moderating effect of organizational culture on the basis of responses obtained from 261 middle level male executives of banks in India. Multiple regressions revealed that the superior’s transformational leadership style had a significant relationship with commitment. Also, facilitating culture enhanced the strength of association of leadership with commitment.

Lee (2002) attempted to study the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment of Business Company in Taiwan. He saw that leadership style had significantly positive effect on organizational commitment.
Mosser and Walls (2002) in their research about Chairpersons’ leadership frames in nursing programs found out that 60 of percent Chairpersons were perceived by faculty members to demonstrate or use the behavior as described in one or more of the leadership frames. Faculty members perceived their Chairpersons to use the human resource the most.

Brown (2003) made a study on employees’ organizational commitment and their perception of supervisor’ leadership behaviors. Participants in the research included 361 employees who worked for the city Charlottesville, Virginia. She found a significant relationship between employees’ organizational commitment and leadership behavior.

Chien (2003) studied the relationship between leadership style and employees’ organizational commitment in an exploratory study of managers and employees of Hsin-Zhu Science Park (China). The results of the study show that the leadership style is predominantly a trend toward a participating leadership style and that an employee’s organizational commitment is predominantly a value commitment. There is a positive, significant correlation between total leadership style and total organizational commitment, and there is a significant correlation between the four individual leadership styles and value commitment.

Skeese (2003) made a study on assessment of Florida public school district superintendents’ leadership styles and the organizational commitment of district principals. The results indicate a relationship between the transformational leadership practices of idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavioral), inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation and the transactional leadership practice of contingent reward; and the organizational commitment levels of district principals.

Villanueva (2003) conducted an investigation on the perceived leadership frames and relationship to organization commitment of sales and marketing personnel. He reported a statistical significance between the four leadership frames and organizational commitment. Further results indicated that supervisors rated in this study most frequently used the structural frame.

Abrego (2004) examined the relationship between followers’ organizational commitment and leader-follower leadership style congruence. The population for this study consisted of 646 managers in a telecommunications industry of whom 46 were
second-level managers and 600 were first-level managers. The results of the study showed that level of organizational commitment of followers was 37.8 percent. With regard to leader-follower congruence, the results revealed that congruence does have an effect on the followers' organizational commitment.

Bell-Rountree (2004) made a study on “Does manager behavior influence organizational commitment attitude?” The conclusion of this research was that employees reported higher level of organizational commitment when manager consistently practiced the five transformational leadership behaviors.

Lok and Crawford (2004) examined “The effects of organizational culture and leadership styles and organizational commitment” in samples of Hong Kong and Australian managers. Statistically significant differences between the two samples were found for measures of innovative and supportive organizational cultures and organizational commitment, with the Australian sample having higher mean scores on all these variables. However, differences between the two samples for commitment were removed after statistically controlling for organizational culture, leadership and respondents' Demographic characteristics. For the combined samples, innovative and supportive cultures, and a consideration leadership style, had positive effects on commitment, with the effects of an innovative culture on commitment and the effect of a consideration leadership style on commitment, being stronger in the Australian sample a slight positive effect on commitment.

Chen (2005) tried to determine the relationship between employees’ perceptions of human resource practices and organizational commitment for full-time banking employees in Taiwan. A purposeful sample of 28 private banking companies with 280 full-time employees was selected. Results indicated human resource practices and organizational commitment were inter-correlated.

Chen L. (2005) examined the causal effects of transformational and transactional leadership and the mediating role of trust on follower outcomes. Information was collected from 150 employees who worked in 12 organizations in the IT Department of Research and Development in Shanghai, China. Leadership styles were manipulated using transformational leadership and transactional leadership, and subordinates’ outcomes were evaluated via the four measures of: trust, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Results, based on path analyses and specification
of the search model in AMOS 5, indicated that transformational leadership had both direct and indirect effects on job satisfaction; and organizational commitment mediated through followers’ trust in the leader and did not result in turnover of employees. However, transactional leadership had only direct effects on followers’ job satisfaction and did not influence followers’ organizational commitment or employees’ intention to leave. Sufficient trust by subordinates, high job satisfaction and organizational commitment to the organization did not result in intention to leave. This study also found that different educational levels would moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Kinnoin (2005) measured the relationship between family-friendly policies offered by employee’s job satisfaction of companies, intent to leave, and organizational commitment. Family-friendly policies are things employers provide, such as flexible work hours and on-site childcare, to help employees minimize the conflict that develops between their work and family lives. The participants in this study were undergraduate and graduate students from a university in southern California. Organizational commitment was measured with Meyer and Allen’s organizational commitment scale (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Two hypotheses were supported. First, a relationship was found between job satisfaction and family-friendly policies. More family-friendly policies were found to lead to greater job satisfaction. Second, a relationship was found between intent to leave and family-friendly policies. Fewer family-friendly policies were found to lead to a greater intent to leave the job. A third hypothesis was not supported. A relationship was found between organizational commitment and family-friendly policies, but it was not statistically significant.

Metscher (2005) examined the relationship between the perceived leadership practices and organizational commitment including selected personal characteristics of Air Force employees. The study proposed two research questions, What is the influence of perceived leadership practices on employee organizational commitment of active duty Air Force and government civil service employees working for the Air Force; In addition; Is there a statistically significant relationship between certain personal characteristics (rank, time in service, age, education level, and gender) and organizational commitment of Air Force members. The findings of this study indicated a statistically significant correlation between leadership practices and organizational
commitment of Air Force employees. Results show a positive relationship between the five leadership practices of challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart developed by Kouzes and Posner (1988) and the organizational commitment of Air Force employees.

There are many factors that can influence organizational commitment. However, some researchers suggested that even though other factors are involved, commitment to organization is probably most reflective of how employees feel about leaders and the behaviors they exhibit. Research in these areas has involved top management, participatory management, supervisors and supervisory feedback. This study offers additional insight into how leadership frames are related to organizational commitment.

Leadership frames encourages the leader to step back and re-examine the operation of their organization through the use of frames or windows. These different images are to make judgments gather information and get thing done. It may be useful to approach leadership from the point of view of four different “frameworks”. Circumstances determine which approach (s), is appropriate. Effective leader may use a number of these approaches at the same time.

Researchers have advocated the value of leadership frames. Investigations into the impact of specific types of leadership behaviors reveal varying degrees of effectiveness.

The literature has also attested to the significant value of organizational commitment, finding it linked to several outcomes of individual and organizational effectiveness. As such, organizational commitment can serve as an overarching measure for many areas of effectiveness. Plus, the specific types of organizational commitment, (affective, continuance, normative), offer an opportunity to conduct a more specialized investigation. Leadership behaviors directly affect organizational commitment. Consequently, examining the relationship between leadership frames and different types of organizational commitment is an important undertaking.
The Role of Chairpersons\(^1\) in University

Leadership in a university is more complex than in a business. The mission in a business is clearer and simpler. It has to do with performance and profitability. The mission in a university, although it has a strong financial element to it, also involves service, research, teaching and preparation of the next generation of leader across all sectors of the economy.

Academic departments from the building blocks of institutions of higher learning and their function heavily depend upon the department Chairperson’s leadership ability.

The leadership of the department is critical to the success of the teaching, research and service mission of the unit and collaboration between the departmental leader and the faculty. The chairperson is accountable both to the Dean of the university and to the faculty of his/her department. He/she is expected to represent the department to administrators at all levels and to communicate administrative priorities and policies to the department. Department Chairs are thus charged with creating a shared vision for the department, and they are responsible for developing an environment conducive to motivating faculty members and encouraging scholarship.

In short, the administrative role and responsibilities the Chairperson has are varied. The Chairperson should be a team leader in working with the Dean, faculty members and staff and other administrators to achieve university goals. The Chairperson’s responsibilities include short and long-range planning, and implementing and evaluating goal achievement. The Chairperson should work with both departmental faculty and the administration regarding the most effective and efficient strategies for achieving departmental goals and objectives in line with institutional goals. The Chairperson will also demonstrate effective budget management, initiative, and institutional commitment.

Organizational Commitment and Demographic Variables

In Steers’s (1977) view there are many demographic factors that can influence organizational commitment, such as age, gender, race and personality.

\(^1\) Throughout this study the term “Chairperson” is employed to denote Head of respective departments.
A number of demographic variables frequently included in previous commitment studies. Variables such as age (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Michaels, 1994; Williams and Hazer, 1986), organizational tenure (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) and position tenure (Gregersen and Black, 1992; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) have been found to be positively associated with organizational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted that age is considerably more strongly related to attitudinal than to behavioral commitment. They further suggested that older workers are more satisfied with their job, receiving better positions, and having "cognitively justified" their remaining in the organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) also found that the number of years in a position is significantly and positively related to attitudinal commitment, and length of service is significantly and positively related to behavioral commitment. Similar results were reported by Gregersen and Black (1992).

Another demographic variable which has attracted a great deal of attention is level of education. Educational level has been reported to be negatively correlated with organizational commitment (DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mottaz, 1988; Mowday et al., 1982). It has been argued 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 they are not being rewarded adequately by their employers, and so the level of organizational commitment is diminished (DeCotiis and Summers, 1987).

Chen and Francesco (2000) in their study in Mainland China found a significant positive relationship between position and affective commitment but no relationship between tenure and affective commitment. Camilleri (2002) presented a summary of the findings from the literature review regarding the relationship between organizational commitment and demographic variables as follow:

- **Position tenure.** The research indicated that there is a low positive correlation with organizational commitment (side-bets). However, other research has provided inconsistent results.
- **Age.** The full meta-analysis (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) yielded a medium positive correlation with organizational commitment.
- **Gender.** Various research based on bivariate analysis has provided inconsistent results. The use of bivariate procedures may not allow one to accurately assess the gender variable when the effects of other variables are held constant.

- **Educational level.** The research indicated that there is a low negative correlation with organizational commitment. However, other research has provided inconsistent and contradictory results.

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) in their study reported that correlations between organizational commitment and the demographic variables were generally low. Age and tenure correlated positively, albeit weekly, with all three components of commitment. Correlations involving the work experience variables were generally much stronger than those involving personal characteristics. These variables correlated most strongly with affective commitment. In all cases, the sign of the correlation involving continuance commitment was apposite to that for affective and normative commitment.

Chen and Francesco (2003) used five demographic attributes as control variables in the regression analysis for their research. That is, age, education and tenure (were measured by number of years), gender and position. They reported these variables included because Demographics may influence the in-role and extra-role performance of employees.

Abrego (2004) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and demographic variables. The population for this study consisted of 646 managers in a telecommunications industry of whom 46 were second-level managers and 600 were first-level managers. The findings revealed that demographic variables had a significant correlation with organizational commitment.

Metscher (2005) examined the relationship between the organizational commitment and selected personal characteristics of Air Force employees. With the exception of an employees' position or rank, the affect of demographic characteristics on organizational commitment was not established.

Rahmani (2005), examined the variables which underlie organizational commitment of employees in organizations based in Indonesia. None of the demographic variables of the study predicted organizational commitment. The demographic variables were not good predictors for organizational commitment in this study.
Since the present study is a study of organizational commitment of faculty members in relation to organizational culture and leadership frames of Chairpersons, it seems pertinent to mention the higher education system in Iran and India.

**Higher Education System in Iran**

Higher education in Iran can be traced back to the third century, to Gandishapur University, which was regarded to be the greatest scientific center for centuries. Under the Sassanid rule, in ancient Iran, education was exclusive the right of the nobility, the royal family, and the clergy. After the advent of Islam, education was no longer the monopoly of the rich; thus, equal educational opportunities for all were highly emphasized. Consequently, some institutes of higher education were established which were called “Madrasa” (school). However, clear information is not available about the structure and administration of these institutes. Higher education institutions varied in type and size, including mosques, libraries, schools, tutorials, house of dervishes, and the like. Rab’a Rashidi University and Nezamieh were among the most famous academic centers at the time. Rab’a Rashidi was founded in Tabriz by Rashid al-Din Fazl-Allah, the prime minister of Qazan Khan in the eighth century after Islam, with courses and programs, administrative structure, academic exchanges, annual reports, libraries and tutorials assimilated into mainstream current universities.

Centuries later, under the Safavid dynasty, due to increased national solidarity and security, advanced programs were developed. After the decline of the Safavid, national stability and security were threatened again and, consequently, advanced programs could no longer continue.

Following the Renaissance and scientific and industrial advancement in the West, modern higher education began in Iran. Amir-Kabir, then Prime Minister, founded Dar al-Fonoun (technical school), in the mid-19th century and sent students to study abroad. He invited foreign lecturers to teach at various technical colleges in Tehran, Tabriz and Oroumieh.
In 1910, the Ministry of Education, Endowments and Fine Arts was established, including several offices for general education, endowments, and research, evaluation and accounting. Subsequently, the Supreme Council for Education in 1921, the Supreme Council for Culture in 1941, Central Council for Universities in 1965, and Central Council for General Education in 1969 were established. The University of Tehran and other universities were established about one century after Dar al-Fonoun. Beginning in 1934, the chancellor of the University of Tehran was appointed by the prime minister at the time for 8 years. The organizational structure of Tehran University was used as a model by other higher education institutions.

In 1942, more autonomy was given to the University of Tehran. Thus, the University Council had the right to appoint the Chancellor and the Deans of Faculties. Universities were given academic, administrative, and financial autonomy. They were required to follow the courses and educational programs approved by the Central Council for Universities. In 1953, Mashad University, Isfahan University, and TU were established. In 1967, following the so-called “Administrative-Educational Revolution”, the responsibility of administering universities were given to boards of trustees, which substituted university councils. Since then, the board of trustees has appointed
Chancellors. At the same time, Parliament approved an act for the establishment of the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education (MCHE).

With the establishment of MCHE, all institutions of higher education, public and private, followed the same administrative structure, including board of trustees, Chancellor, the executive board, the administrative board, university council, faculty councils, and departments. Specific councils with particular missions were also organized for higher education policy making. They include: Central Council for Education, the Council for Higher Education Expansion, Council for Medical Studies, Council for Scientific Research, and Central Council of Universities and Higher Education Institutes.

**Higher Education Development after the Islamic Revolution in Iran**

After the triumph of the Islamic Revolution, the higher education system underwent essential changes in Iran. Firstly, by the approval of the Revolution Council, two ministries of Science and Higher Education, and Culture and Arts, were merged into a newly established Ministry of Culture and Higher Education. It was hoped that the merger as such could save funds and reduce bureaucracy in order to make essential policies and act decisively to achieve the goals of the Islamic Revolution in the area of culture and higher education. In a decisive action, in March 1979, all boards of trustees were dissolved and the responsibility for administering all universities and higher education institutes was given to a temporary three-member committee that administered all higher education and research institutes for more than ten years. In 1980, in order to make essential educational reforms and to develop an educational system suitable for an Islamic revolutionary society, the Supreme Council for Cultural Revolution (SCCR), was formed by the order of the late Imam Khomeini. Since then, the SCCR has played a key role in higher education policy making. Universities were closed for three years, resuming their activities in 1983 with newly revised programs and courses. At that period, universities and academics were highly involved in developing a new curriculum as well as publishing up-to-date textbooks in order to meet the needs of the society. At the same time, Jehad Daneshgahi was also established by the SCCR for the dissemination of Islamic culture in universities. Later, Jehad Daneshgahi was separated from universities and has continued its activities as an
independent organization. The Academic Publication Center is among other institutes established by the SCCR in order to publish academic textbooks.

In 1985, medical education was delegated to the Ministry of Health, Treatment, and Medical Education (MHTME), and all duties and responsibilities of the MSRT in the area of medical education were transferred to the new ministry for the purpose of efficient use of facilities and hospitals under the MHTME.

In 1988, boards of trustees were organized again at each university by the approval of the SCCR, to administer institutes of higher education. In 1990, the SCCR approved the establishment of the Bureau of Representatives of the Leader of the Islamic Revolution at universities in order to strengthen relationships between students, Islamic scholars and theological schools. This bureau is under the supervision of the Leader of the Islamic Revolution.

Very recently, in order to integrate and co-ordinate science and technology strategies, policies and functions, the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education has been revised into the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology (MSRT), to best meet the requirements of the third millennium.

In the last two decades, since all universities and higher education institutes were centered in the capital cities of provinces, geographical expansion of higher education throughout the provinces of the country has been given remarkable attention. As a result, the number of state universities has grown from 22 to 98 in 1978 and 2000 respectively. Currently, there is no province without a higher education institution. Most of the universities have been founded or developed mainly after the Islamic Revolution. Before the Islamic Revolution, post-graduate studies, particularly at the doctoral level, were offered only in a limited number of disciplines such as Persian Language and Literature, Theology and a few pure sciences. Since the revolution this level of education has been developed and expanded in most disciplines.

A. Supreme Council of Cultural Revolution (SCCR)

Major responsibilities of SCCR as the highest authority for higher education policy-making and planning are as follows:

- Dissemination of Islamic culture throughout the society as well as strengthening of Cultural Revolution and enhancement of culture.
- Development of universities, schools arts and cultural centers on the basis of Islamic culture as well as supporting dedicated, active and skilled staff, lecturers, educators, and teachers who believe in Islam and the independence of the country.
- To expand literacy and benefit from the world’s scientific achievements and experiences in order to attain academic and cultural independence.
- Preservation, revival, and introduction of Islamic works and heritage.

B. Ministry of Science, Research and Technology (MSRT)

The main responsibilities of the MSRT (formerly called Ministry of Culture and Higher Education), are as follows:
- Goal setting and policy-making for all levels of education and academic research.
- Comprehensive planning for expansion of higher education and research for training skilled and specialized manpower.
- Supervision of universities and higher education institutes.
- To make decisions about the establishment, expansion, merger and termination of any higher education and research institute.
- To make policies for sending students abroad, supporting and supervising as well as employing them after returning to the country.
- To set rules and procedures to deal with educational and research issues in universities and higher education and research institutes.

C. Universities and Institutes of Higher Education

Universities and higher education institutes are governed by the board of trustees. Major universities have their own board of trustees, whereas newly founded and small higher education institutes are governed by a joint regional board of trustees.

Major responsibilities of the board of trustees are as follows:
- To approve organizational structure and administrative procedures of the university and its affiliated units
- To set regulations for recruitment of faculty members
- To make decisions about payments to lecturers, researchers, authors and the like
- To raise funds under the rules set by SCCR
- To review and ratify the university’s budget
- To review and approve the chancellor’s university report
Various Types of Higher Education in Iran

Universities provide undergraduate and postgraduate courses in both public and private sectors as described below:

A. Public Sector

Educated manpower and specialists are supplied by the MSRT in Iran. However, other ministries and public institutes are also involved in training specialists. Since medical education was delegated to the MHTME in July 1985, all duties and responsibilities of the MSRT in the area of medical education were transferred to the new ministry for the purpose of efficient use of facilities and hospitals under the MHTME. Presently, 54 universities and institutes of higher education are active under the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. In addition, the Comprehensive Applied Sciences University was established in 1992 in order to strengthen technical and vocational education and train skillful manpower needed for industry, agriculture and service sectors. These courses are offered in cooperation with public organizations and ministries which would employ related students awarded either associate or bachelor degrees.

There are other higher education institutes that are affiliated with other ministries including the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Post, Telephone, Ministry of Roads and Transportation, and the like. They specifically provide pre-service and in-service courses for their current and prospective employees. Finally, students pay no tuition fee to public universities.

B. Private Sector

Private universities and institutes were established in order to increase public contribution to higher education, to relieve the government’s financial burden, and to meet the ever-increasing social demand for higher education. Private universities include:

1. Islamic Azad University

As the first private university, the Islamic Azad University was established after the triumph of the Islamic Revolution. During its early years, the university benefited from educational facilities including buildings, equipment and laboratories offered by local officials and generous people. The university is presently active in over 110 cities in Iran with more than half a million students.
2. Other Private Institutes of Higher Education

Presently, some 33 private institutes of higher education, offering both undergraduate and postgraduate courses, with about 23,000 students active in Iran.

C. Distance Education

Payam-e-Noor University was established in 1987 to offer distance education courses at undergraduate level. The university aimed to promote the science and culture of the society, expand higher education in remote areas, admit more candidates to higher education, facilitate further education for employed candidates, take part in training of specialized manpower and make efficient use of educational potentials and facilities. Payam-e Noor University admitted students in 18 disciplines level in the academic year 1998-99 through nationwide entrance examinations. The university has 147 centers across the country. Of a total of 146,990 students in the academic year 1998-99, 76,437 (52 percent), were female and 70,553 (48 percent), were male.

Academic Courses

Academic courses are offered in various levels including associate, bachelor, master and PhD. An associate degree requires 68 to 72 units, which usually takes two years to complete. A bachelor degree requires 130 to 145 units, which usually takes four years to complete. A master's degree requires 28 to 32 units and a research project that takes almost three years to complete. PhD. courses usually take 4-5 years and require 42 to 50 units including course-work and research. Doctoral students are required to pass the comprehensive exams prior to their research project. Graduates are awarded a PhD. degree after successful completion of their dissertation.

Curriculum Planning

The Council for Higher Education Planning is in charge of curriculum planning for higher education. The council is responsible for planning, compiling and approving educational by-laws and regulations for universities and higher education institutes. The council consists of 9 planning committees, with 48 sub-committees, including more than 500 members. Generally, members of these committees are university faculty members and experts in curriculum planning.
Subjects of the bachelor's level include four categories: general, basic, major and specialized. General subjects are offered to provide general information and knowledge, whereas basic subjects are offered to strengthen the scientific potential of students and to prepare the ground for major and specialized subjects. Subjects are mainly offered in compulsory form and a few of them are elective, including independent and dependent subjects. Independent subjects may be taken after the student has passed pre-requisite subjects.

Very recently, in an effort to expand university participation in higher education administration and planning and upgrading the quality of higher education, the responsibility for curriculum planning was delegated to major universities. It is hoped that such an initiative would empower them to plan for themselves, further match curriculum planning with social needs and institutionalize curriculum planning at various levels of the universities.

**Faculty Members**

Holders of doctoral degrees may be employed by universities and higher education institutes. Academic faculty members are responsible for teaching, research and guidance of students. Faculty members involved in research institutes have to work between 24 to 36 hours per week. During these hours they can engage in teaching activities for a maximum of 4 hours per week. Major duties of research faculty members are as follows:

- Conducting research projects.
- Rendering scientific-laboratory services inside and outside of the institute.
- Attending seminars, conferences and scientific forums.
- Contributing to their field of knowledge by publishing papers and books.

Faculty members with approved proposals may take a sabbatical leave inside or outside Iran. Also, faculty members of universities and higher education and research institutes may attend scientific and international conferences, up to three times per year, upon the request of their institute and the approval of MSRT. In addition, exemplary lecturers are regularly awarded every year by MSRT.
The various academic positions at a university (or college or institute), are *murabbi* or instructor / assistant lecturer, *ustadyar* or assistant professor, *danishyar* or associate professor and *ustad* or professor. The usual minimum qualifications and experience required for the four positions starting from the *murabbi* or instructor are a master’s degree in the relevant subject, a doctoral degree with four years of teaching experience, and a doctoral degree with nine years of teaching experience. For the posts of associate professor and professor published work is also required. An academic department or a *gurooh* is looked after by the Head, the Dean heads the faculty (for either college or faculty the term *danishkadeh* is used), and the Chancellor heads the university. The Dean is often assisted by one or more Vice-deans and the Chancellor by one or more Vice-chancellors (Mohsin, 1998).

**University’s Faculty Management in Iran’s Higher Education System**

The Dean who is appointed by the Chancellor manages every faculty. The Dean of faculty, on demand, can have four deputies based on the board decision. The Dean’s duties and responsibilities are as follows:

- Supervising the proper implementation of regulations issued by the chancellor and also creating right conditions for the development of academic talents.
- Creating harmony in educational, research, office and financial affairs of the faculty.
- Supervising the proper implementation of faculty members’ educational and research duties.
- Evaluating and harmonizing all the activities of concerned department.
- Presenting financial budget of the faculty.
- Supervising the educational and research, council’s activities.
- Evaluating the annual activities of the faculty and reporting it to the Chancellor.
- Evaluating the eligibility or qualification of the vice of the department commenting on them.

**The Chairperson’s duties in Higher Education system of Iran:**

Preparing executive procedure of educational, research and office duties presented by the department based on the policies of university council prior to beginning the new academic year and reporting it to the Dean.
Notifying each member of the department of its executive plans as well as educational and research duties.
- Supervising all education and research activities as well as group services.
- Preparing the timetable of the courses of each semester in association with faculty members of the department and submitting it to the Dean.
- Revising constantly the timetable with regard to the latest development and changes, and presenting the timetables to the respective divisions.
- Presenting the needs of the departments to the Dean.
- Processing all official correspondence of the department and suggesting purchasing necessary office supplies, books and publications of the departments to the Dean.
- Proposing research projects that department is ready/ prepared to fulfill in association with other departments to the Dean for approval in the research council of the university.
- Evaluating the annual activities of the members of the departments and reporting it to the Dean.¹

Higher Education Initiatives in the Islamic Republic of Iran

Iranian higher education witnessed important initiatives during the years after the triumph of the Islamic Revolution, the origin of which have been major scientific developments. The significant increase in the number of students was among the major developments in the higher education system of the Islamic Republic of Iran, where the number of students rose from 175,675 in 1978-79 to 1,308,150 in 1998-99.

Major fundamental initiatives in higher education are as follows:
- Geographical expansion of higher education throughout all provinces of the country, since all universities and higher education institutes were centered only in the capital cities of some provinces. As a result, the number of state universities rose from 22 in 1978 to 98 in 2000. Currently, there is no province without a university.
- Allocation of quotas for war veterans as well as candidates from disadvantaged areas in nationwide entrance examinations for universities and higher education institutes.
- Significant increase in the number of female students.

¹ This by-law was approved in covering to divisions and 13 subdivision in the 249th meeting on 11-3-70 by Supreme Council of Educational Revolution.
Expansion of post-graduate education, particularly at the doctoral level, which was offered before the Islamic Revolution only in a limited number of disciplines such as Persian Language and Literature, Theology and a few pure sciences. After the revolution this level was established in most disciplines in qualified universities and research institutes. In general, 436 disciplines are offered by universities and higher education institutes at the post-graduate level, a total of 48,688 students are studying at the master’s level, and 9,998 students are studying at the doctoral level in both public and private institutions.

Offering continuous doctoral courses (There is no bachelor and master degrees, and students start directly a doctoral course), and providing educational facilities for outstanding and talented students.

Emphasis on employing faculty members with Ph.D. degrees at universities and higher education and research institutes.

Expansion of applied-science courses in coordination with other ministries.

Delegation of the authority of granting scholarships to universities and higher education institutes in line with the decentralization policy.

Expansion of universities and higher education institutes in disadvantaged areas in order to create a regional balance in higher education.

Dispatch of lecturers to other countries such as China, Bangladesh, Japan, Jordan, Syria, Yemen, Spain, Poland; admission of foreign students to courses on Persian Language and Literature in Iran; Cooperation of the MSRT in the 28th general meeting of the Third World Academy of Sciences (TWAS), and the fifth general meeting of the Third World Network of Scientific Organizations (TWNSO). The Islamic Republic of Iran actively participated in the Standing Committee for Scientific and Technological Cooperation of member states of the Organization of Islamic Conference (COMSTECH), and the Scientific and Technological Commission for Sustainable Development of the South (COMSATS).

Admission of foreign students: In 1998-99 a total of 885 students from foreign countries studied at public Iranian universities and higher education institutes, of whom 68 students were from Azerbaijan, 210 from Afghanistan, 53 from Pakistan, 164 from Tajikistan, 92 from Iraq, 19 from Turkey and 279 students from other countries.

Establishment of Iranian Research Organization for Science and Technology (IROST), in 1980 to foster scientific and research activity in the country. The organization is a pioneer center for research and development (R&D), and works as one of the most important research and development organizations in Iran. The headquarters of the organization is located in Tehran, with 9 branches in the provinces.
concerned bodies, gained approval of the senior authorities. Finally, on October 30, 1947 the University re-opened and recommenced its educational activities. The news of the glorious inauguration ceremony of the University, which was rightfully regarded as a great unique event in the contemporary history of Tabriz City, was carried live on the state radio. In this way, the cultured men and women of Azerbaijan achieved their hearts’ desire. To start with, the re-established University of Tabriz consisted of 2 faculties, namely, Faculty of Literature and Faculty of Medicine, educating a total of 160 students, but very soon the number of faculties and fields of study increased.

The University of Tabriz, which is now regarded as the second oldest educational institution among the leading universities in Iran, has always been playing a pivotal role in scientific, social and cultural existence of the Country since the early stages of its formation. The University of Tabriz, also known as the biggest academic institution in north-west of Iran, with a precious record of about 56 years in educational and research grounds, has always been striving, particularly in the post-Revolution era and in line with it’s strategic policies based on enhancing academic collaboration and contacts with the accredited and distinguished universities of the world, to attain a sustainable development, keeping up with the state of the art technologies.

Figure 1- 6 Tabriz University Campus (Iran)
Justification for Choice of Tabriz University

Tabriz University is one of the oldest and famous universities in Iran. A good combination of different cultures, languages, religions and many more groups among faculty members can be seen. For example, Turkish, Kurdish and Persian faculty member are working there. In one hand, due to such good composition, Tabriz University can be a suitable sample of Iranian Faculty members. Better description about Tabriz University is presented in the following pages and in the other hand, the researcher felt that there is low desire among Iranian faculty member generally and Tabriz University specially. Furthermore, most of reports and statistics presented existence a kind of absenteeism, turnover and transferring of to other institution among Iranian Faculty member faculty members. This problem set the researcher to start a research in this area to find out the reasons of this problem, and produce some applicable and research-based approaches. Survey in this filed makes it clear that no study had been done to show relationship between faculty members’ organizational commitment with organizational culture and leadership frame of chairpersons, therefore an humble attempted was made by the investigator to make up this research.

Tabriz University

The initial idea of establishing the University of Tabriz was born a year after the termination of the threatening international catastrophe; the Second World War and took shape very soon on 12th June 1946. The newly established educational institution started its activities under the former name of Azerbaycan Universiteti (University of Azerbaijan), in Tabriz City with only three Faculties of Medicine, Agriculture and Pedagogy. However, it wasn't long before that, unfortunately the newly-founded institution dissolved and all its educational activities were brought to a halt within a few months, due to some hindering political developments in the region and subsequent events. In the following year, thanks to the all-out efforts made by people from different walks of life, particularly in the wake of continued support and pressures exerted by a few of local distinguished intellectuals, political figures and the University students, the question of re-establishing the University was brought up again and the urgent need for devising appropriate plans and ways for materialization of this end was firmly emphasized once more. Happily, the new plans being reconsidered by the then
Fortunately, the objective has been already achieved for the most part so that the University of Tabriz has now the honor of being considered among the long-time collaborators of a number of leading universities and institutions worldwide. Meantime, it is a pleasure to mention that, during its fairly long record of educational and cultural activities of more than fifty years, the University of Tabriz has trained a great number of gifted students, now serving as experts, teachers, university professors, scientists and successful managers not only in our own society but also in most educational and research centers throughout the world. It is also worth mentioning that, the number of the University's industrious and talented students who have so far succeeded in securing some of the key scientific and managerial positions in and outside Iran is noteworthy.

The University of Tabriz comprises ten faculties including:
- Languages
- Agriculture
- Chemistry
- Physics
- Education and Psychology
- Engineering
- Humanities and Social Sciences
- Natural Sciences
- Agricultural Faculty (Maragheh Campus)
- Mathematics

There are also a few affiliated off-campus colleges including, Marand Technical College, Bonab Technical College and College of Veterinary Medicine. As well as six research Centers inclusive of, Geographical Research Center, Center for Applied physics and Astronomical Research, Geographical Information System, "Se-Allameh" (three scholars) Research Center, Social Sciences Research Center, Research Center for Fundamental Sciences

**Higher Education System in India**

India has an old tradition of knowledge and learning. In fact, a well-established system of higher education functioned as early as 1000 B.C. In that system, the construction of knowledge, the beliefs on which knowledge is based, basic concepts and the organization of learning are very different from the European tradition. The Indian system is validated by the fact that it sustained Indian Civilization for centuries.
The European system of higher education was introduced to India by the British in 1857 with the establishment of universities for European education in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. Although modeled after the University of London, these universities were not meant to be institutions for the advancement of knowledge, or full-fledged centers of higher learning. The British government had established them with two limited objectives:

- To introduce the Indian elite to European culture, and thus, to colonize the country culturally;
- To produce a cadre of Indians equipped to serve the British administration in India and to practice the professions of law, medicine and teaching, as required by the British.

The emphasis on imbibing European culture and knowledge was so pronounced that universities never really encouraged a spirit of critical inquiry or independent thinking so vital to the advancement of knowledge.

Initially, the British had accepted the indigenous system of knowledge, and allowed institutions for indigenous education to exist. But with the establishment of the first three universities, the British declared their preference for European knowledge, instituted policies that favored European education and withdrew their support for indigenous institutions. English was established as the only medium of instruction permitted for university education.

British economic policy, similarly, withdrew support for indigenous crafts, skills and professional practice, although India was highly advanced in fields such as textiles, architecture, waterworks and medicine. Together, these two policies steadily created a climate in which indigenous knowledge was rejected and links with traditional learning were broken.

Access to higher education was restricted because facilities were meager. In addition, British policies were self-consciously elitist. Whenever it was asked to expand facilities, the British government would argue that the benefits of privileges provided to the elite would eventually trickle down to the masses. Elitism was also encouraged by the limiting of instruction to the language of the rulers.

During this period, universities were statutory bodies closely controlled by the government. The governor of a province was the chancellor of all universities within the province under his jurisdiction. He appointed the vice chancellors, his seconds in
command who were directly in charge of individual universities. Government nominees sat on the all-important bodies -- such as the campus senate, the executive council, the academic council and committees for the selection of faculty and administrative staff.

**The Indian Response**

Indians valued European higher education as the means to acquire employment in the British establishment; to enter the professions of law, medicine and teaching as practiced under British rule; and to gain access to European social circles. They valued the English language as a window on the Western world. And they acknowledged the fact the European education had inspired the nationalist movement for freedom.

But they also felt that policies pertaining to university education in India denied Indians the opportunity to advance, distanced them from their own culture, restricted economic growth and bred continued dependency on Britain for knowledge. The determination to free university education in the country from all these handicaps shaped nationalist dreams and aspirations for higher education in independent India. When India acquired independence in 1947, education was chosen to be the principal instrument for the country's transformation from a poor, dependent, economically and technologically backward imperial colony into an advanced nation. In the larger design for this transformation—which calls for economic development as well as extensive social and political change—higher education was charged with two major responsibilities.

- First, higher education was to provide the manpower required for economic growth and for an efficient delivery of services such as healthcare, transportation, communication and community welfare -- considered basic to a developed society. And, it was to contribute to the advancement of knowledge in the manner required to place India on par with the developed world.

- Second, higher education was to function as an instrument of equality. It was recognized that these objectives were the very opposite of those that universities had served in British India. Nevertheless, it was believed by instituting appropriate policies and facilities it would not be difficult to gear universities to the new objectives.

To enable them to advance knowledge and to produce the manpower required, universities in independent India have been equipped with facilities for undergraduate
as well as graduate education, in the full range of disciplines available at universities in developed countries. At least one agricultural university has been established in each state. In addition, a new category of national-level apex institutions—such as the Indian Institutes of Technology and the Indian Institutes of Management—have been established to provide world-class education in fields such as engineering, technology, management and medicine, which are considered critical to development.

Today, India no longer depends on developed countries for higher education or for qualified manpower. It has the world's third-largest pool of scientifically and technically trained personnel. The products of Indian higher education are accepted for employment worldwide. Students from other countries, particularly the African countries, come to India for higher education studies. Research, which was altogether absent in British India, is now well established.

Main players in the Higher Education System in India

Main players in the higher education system in the country are:

- **University Grants Commission (UGC)** is responsible for coordination, determination and maintenance of standards, release of grants.

- **Professional Councils** are responsible for recognition of courses, promotion of professional institutions and providing grants to undergraduate programs and various awards.

- **Central Government** is responsible for major policy relating to higher education in the country. It provides grants to the UGC and establishes central universities in the country. The Central Government is also responsible for declaration of Educational Institutions as “Deemed to be University” on the recommendation of the UGC. Presently there are sixteen **Central Universities** in the country. In pursuance of the Mizoram Accord, another Central University in the State of Mizoram is planned. There are 99 Institutions which have been declared as Deemed to be Universities by the Govt. of India as per Section of the UGC Act, 1956.

- **State Governments** are responsible for establishment of State Universities and colleges, and provide plan grants for their development and non-plan grants for
their maintenance. The coordination and cooperation between the Union and the States is brought about in the field of education through the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE). Special Constitutional responsibility of the Central Government: Education is on the 'Concurrent list' subject to Entry 66 in the Union List of the Constitution. This gives exclusive legislative power to the Central Govt. for co-ordination and determination of standards in Institutions of higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions.

**Academic Qualification Framework - Degree Structure**

There are three principle levels of qualifications within the higher education system in the country. These are:

- Bachelor / Undergraduate level
- Master's / Post-graduate level
- Doctoral / Pre-doctoral level

Diploma courses are also available at the undergraduate and postgraduate level. At the undergraduate level, it varies between one to three years in length, postgraduate diplomas are normally awarded after one year's study.

Bachelor's degree in arts, commerce and sciences is three years of education (after 12 years of school education). In some places there are honors and special courses available. These are not necessarily longer in duration but indicate greater depth of study. Bachelor degree in professional field of study in agriculture, dentistry, engineering, pharmacy, technology and veterinary medicine generally take four years, while architecture and medicine, it takes five and five and a half years respectively. There are other bachelor degrees in education, journalism and librarian-ship that are second degrees. Bachelor's degree in law can either be taken as an integrated degree lasting five years or three-year course as a second degree.

Master's degree is normally of two-year duration. It could be coursework based without thesis or research alone. Admission to postgraduate programs in engineering and technology is done on the basis of Graduate Aptitude Test in Engineering or Combined Medical Test respectively.

A pre-doctoral program - Master of Philosophy (M. Phil.) is taken after completion of the Master's Degree. This can either be completely research based or can include
course work as well. Ph.D. is awarded two years after the M. Phil. or three years after the Master's degree. Students are expected to write a substantial thesis based on original research generally takes longer.

**New Initiatives**

**Vocationalization at the First Degree Level**

In conformity with the National Policy on Education, 1986, a scheme to provide career orientation to education at the first degree level was launched in 1994-95. Under the scheme, a university / college could introduce one to three vocational courses in 35 identified subjects.

**Autonomous Colleges**

138 colleges have been functioning as autonomous colleges in eight states in the country.

**National Eligibility Test (NET)**

National Eligibility Test (NET) is being conducted by the UGC since 1989 for eligibility for lectureship. Around 50000 students appear for the test every year. Pass percentage is around 5%. Eight State level Tests have been accredited at par with NET.

**System of Governance of Higher Education Institutions**

The Universities are various kinds: with a single faculty, or multi-faculties; teaching or affiliating, or teaching cum affiliating, single campus or multiple campus. Most of the Universities are affiliating universities, which prescribe to the affiliated colleges the course of study, hold examinations and award degrees, while undergraduate and to some extent post the colleges affiliated to them impart graduate instruction. Many of the universities along with their affiliated colleges have grown rapidly to the extent of becoming unmanageable. Therefore, as per National Policy on Education, 1986, a scheme of autonomous colleges was promoted. In the autonomous colleges, whereas the degree continues to be awarded by the University, the name of the college is also included. The colleges develop and propose new courses of study to the
Focus of Ninth Plan

Thrust areas are: measures for quality improvement and modernization of syllabi, renewal of infrastructure, extra-budgetary resource mobilization and greater attention to issues in governance. Issues of access and relevance would receive attention. Conferment of greater autonomy to deserving colleges and professional upgradation of teachers through Academic Staff Colleges would be given priority. Emphasis is being placed on consolidation and optimal utilization of the existing infrastructure through institutional networking, restructuring expansion, so as to only meet the demand of the un-served areas with a focus on women and underprivileged sections. The Open University system, which has been growing in popularity and size, is striving to diversify courses and offerings and gain wider acceptability by upgrading its quality. It would focus more sharply on the educational needs of women and rural society, as well as professional training of in-service employees.

Panjab University

Panjab University has a long tradition of pursuing excellence in teaching and research in science and technology, humanities, social sciences, performing arts and sports. For more than a century, it has served various societal needs with distinction. The glorious traditions of the University, established during the period of more than 120 years of its long service to the nation, since its inception in 1882 at Lahore (now in Pakistan), are a source of inspiration for the present generations of the faculty and students to achieve and continue to excel in their academic endeavors. But virtue of its age, experience, achievements and philosophy, the Panjab University is a University of national character and stature, in so far as it has drawn both its faculty and students from all over the country. Its faculty includes some of the most distinguished scientists and academics in arts and humanities. The University continues to attract celebrated scholars from abroad to visit and interact with the faculty and students.
Panjab University, with its 55 teaching and research departments on the main campus located at Chandigarh, has 122 affiliated colleges spread over Punjab and Chandigarh, a Regional Centre at Muktsar, a Regional Centre and an extension library at Ludhiana and VVBIS & IS at Hoshiarpur.

The main campus at Chandigarh is spread over 550 acres in sectors 14 and 25, Sector 14 having the main academic and administrative building, besides a health centre, a sports complex, hostels and residential area. The University is essentially a residential campus. Mainly students hail from the neighboring states of Haryana, Himachal, Jammu & Kashmir besides Punjab and Chandigarh.

The presence of a good number of students from the rest of the country provides a national character to the University. The campus acquires an international color as many students from the SAARC countries, the Middle East, Africa and South and South East Asia also seek admission to various courses.

The Central A.C. Joshi Library of Panjab University has a holding of over 6.4 lac books and 623 periodicals, some of which are rare collections of the 19th century. The University Library has been recognized as one of the six national canters for data-information-distribution in the UGC’s INFLIBNET program. Besides, the National Board of Higher Education in Mathematics provides special support for the library of mathematics department.

The Indian Council of Social Science Research has set-up its North-Western regional Centre on the Panjab University Campus. The Centre runs a library, a seminar complex and a guesthouse for the visiting scholar under its study-grants program.

The Gandhi Bhawan on the university campus attracts scholars as well as tourists from all over the world for its wonderful architectural form, its library and auditorium. The Panjab University has four museums and the department of Indian Theatre has its own theatre lab, which is unique in the country. The university has a Botanical Garden and a Garden of Medicinal plants on the campus.
Faculty Members

Academic faculty members are responsible for teaching, research and guidance of students and extension. As prescribed by UGC, the normal teaching load of a Lecturer is 16 periods; whereas it is 14 periods for Readers and Professors.

The usual minimum qualifications and experience at the entry level is Master’s Degree in the relevant subject, and UGC’s NET (National Eligibility Test) or its State equivalent.

An academic department is looked after by the Chairperson, the Dean heads the faculty, and the Chancellor heads the University. The Dean is often assisted by one or more Vice-deans and the Chancellor by a Vice-chancellor.

Powers and Functions of Chairperson

The Chairperson/Head of a department shall have the following powers and functions:

- To provide academic leadership to the Department
- To supervise the overall functioning of the Department
- To co-ordinate and guide the teaching, research and administrative work of the Department
- To implement the decisions of the Committees\(^1\) specified in Rule 3.1
- To exercise financial powers in pursuance of the recommendations of the Committees specified in Rule 3.1 subject to such rules as may be prescribed in this regard from time to time
- To recommend to the Joint Research Board, panel of examiners for Evaluating Ph.D. thesis in consultation with supervisor/s, and
- To perform such other functions as may be assigned to him by the Syndicate and the Vice-Chancellor for specific purposes
- The Chairman/Head may exercise such other powers and functions as may be prescribed by the Rules (Panjab University Calendar, 2003)

\(^1\) Rule 3.1 Each Teaching Department/institution shall have the following Committees namely: Academic Committee, Administrative Committee, and Technical Committee.
Significance Of The Study

Today, higher education leaders find themselves leading groups, schools and organizations across a rapidly changing environment and society toward a new destination in the twenty-first century. Teachers constitute the core of the faculty in any university. The development of teaching faculty requires an academic environment that is conducive and congenial to research, training and development of teachers, which ensures commitment towards institution. However, due to a number of limitations in the organizational change literature, information regarding the specific managerial behaviors that elicit faculty members’ commitment is limited.

Faculty member’s commitment may be directed toward a number of entities; for example, to the occupation of teaching, to student success, to specific programs, or the departments as an organization. Given that commitment incorporates an attitudinal dimension, certain conditions have been found necessary for its development. A major factor assumed to significantly influence teacher commitment level is the organizational culture (Peters and Waterman, 1977). The leadership frames of Chairpersons can be a
second significant influence on the level of teacher commitment to a department. Both of these constructs are being explored in this study.

While researches have shown that leadership style and organizational culture affect employees and teachers’ commitment to the organization and school (Jones, 1998; Skeese, 2003), literature does not offer guidance on how different types of organizational commitment are affected by Chairperson’s leadership frames and organizational culture in case of higher education.

Unfortunately, both in Tabriz University and Panjab University limited studies have been conducted on the organizational commitment and factors associated with it in higher education, despite similarities between Indian and Iranian educational systems with regard to higher education. Additionally, no research has been done using Bolman and Deals’ (1990), leadership theory of frame analysis; Cameron and Quinn’s (1999), four types of organizational culture and Meyer et al.’s (1993), organizational commitment theory. Hence, this study, contributes to the research literature by throwing more light on the relationship between leadership frames, types of organizational culture and different types of organizational commitment. Also, it was assumed that this study would be of interest to Chairpersons, Superintendents, Human resource administrators, Faculty members and persons who work directly with departments in universities or colleges.

Statement Of The Problem
The present study thus is an endeavor to find the aforementioned relationships. The title of this study is entitled as under:

**A Study of Organizational Commitment of Faculty Members in Relation to Organizational Culture and Leadership Frames of Chairpersons in Tabriz University and Panjab University**

Objectives Of The Study
The main objectives of this investigation were:

1. To study and compare the different types of organizational commitment of faculty members of Tabriz University and Panjab University with regard to
demographic variables of nationality, gender, teaching experience designation and faculty.

2. To study and compare the different types of organizational culture of Tabriz University and Panjab University.

3. To find out the relationship between types of organizational commitment of faculty members and types of organizational culture in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

4. To study and compare the leadership frames of Chairpersons of Tabriz University and Panjab University.

5. To find out the relationship between different types of organizational commitment of faculty members and leadership frames of Chairpersons in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

6. To find out predictors of organizational commitment of faculty member from among the independent variables of organizational culture, leadership frames and demographic characteristics.

**Hypotheses of the Study**

On the basis of above mentioned objectives, following null hypotheses were proposed to be tested:

\( H_0 \) 1 There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ overall organizational commitment in Tabriz University and Panjab University with regard to demographic variables.

This overall hypothesis covers the following domains:

**Organizational Commitment and Nationality**

\( H_{0,1-1} \) There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment in Tabriz University and Panjab University based on nationality.

\( H_{0,1-2} \) There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ affective commitment in Tabriz University and PU based on nationality.

\( H_{0,1-3} \) There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ continuance commitment in Tabriz University and Panjab University based on nationality.
$H_0 \, 1-4$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ normative commitment in Tabriz University and Panjab University based on nationality.

**Organizational Commitment and Teaching Experience**

$H_0 \, 1-5$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Tabriz University with regard to their teaching experience.

$H_0 \, 1-6$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Panjab University with regard to their teaching experience.

**Organizational Commitment and Designation**

$H_0 \, 1-7$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Tabriz University with regard to their designation.

$H_0 \, 1-8$. There exists no significant differences in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Panjab University with regard to their designation.

**Organizational Commitment and Gender**

$H_0 \, 1-9$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Tabriz University with regard to their gender.

$H_0 \, 1-10$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Panjab University with regard to their gender.

**Organizational Commitment and Faculty**

$H_0 \, 1-11$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Tabriz University with regard to their faculties.

$H_0 \, 1-12$. There exists no significant difference in faculty members’ organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative), in Panjab University with regard to their faculties.
**Organizational Culture and Nationality**

$H_0.2.$ There exists no significant difference in organizational culture types in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

$H_{0.2-1.}$ There exists no significant difference in organizational culture with regard to university faculties in Tabriz University.

$H_{0.2-2.}$ There exists no significant difference in organizational culture with regard to university faculties in Panjab University.

**Organizational Commitment and Organizational Culture**

$H_3.$ No relationship exists between faculty members’ organizational commitment and types of organizational culture in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

$H_{3-1.}$ No relationship exists between faculty members’ affective commitment and types of organizational culture in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

$H_{3-2.}$ No relationship exists between faculty members’ continuance commitment and types of organizational culture in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

$H_{3-3.}$ No relationship exists between faculty members’ normative commitment and types of organizational culture in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

**Leadership frames and nationality**

$H_{4.}$ There exists no significant difference in leadership frames of Chairpersons with regard to university faculties in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

$H_{4-1.}$ There exists no significant differences in leadership frames of Chairpersons with regard to university faculties in Tabriz University.

$H_{4-2.}$ There exists no significant differences in leadership frames of Chairpersons with regard to university faculties in Panjab University.

**Organizational Commitment and Leadership frames**

$H_5.$ No relationship exists between faculty members’ organizational commitment and leadership frames of Chairpersons in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

$H_{5-1.}$ No relationship exists between faculty members’ affective commitment and leadership frames of Chairpersons in Tabriz University and Panjab University.
No relationship exists between faculty members’ continuance commitment of faculty members and leadership frames of Chairpersons in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

No relationship exists between faculty members’ normative commitment of faculty members and leadership frames of Chairpersons in Tabriz University and Panjab University.

Predicting organizational commitment from among the independent variables of organizational culture, leadership frames and demographic characteristics:

None of the independent variables of organizational culture, leadership frame and demographic variables will significantly contribute toward the prediction of organizational commitment independently or conjointly.

None of the independent variables of organizational culture, leadership frame and demographic variable will significantly contribute toward the prediction of affective commitment independently or conjointly.

None of the independent variables of organizational culture, leadership frame and demographic variable will significantly contribute toward the prediction of continuance commitment independently or conjointly.

None of the independent variables of organizational culture, leadership frame and demographic variable will significantly contribute toward the prediction of normative commitment independently or conjointly.

Delimitations Of The Study

In the field of the research, scope and delimitation occupy a prominent position. It gives a clear direction to the researcher and helps in dividing objective of the study. Delimitations of the current study are as follows:

Survey was restricted to Tabriz University and Panjab University in Iran and India, respectively.

The study has been limited to faculty members who were teaching in Tabriz University and Panjab University.
- A random sample of faculty members was chosen from Tabriz University (Iran) and Panjab University (India).
- Eight faculties which were there in both Tabriz University and Panjab University were selected for the current study.
- Both male and female faculty members were included in the study.
- Approximately, one Professor, one Reader and two Lecturers were selected from all concerned departments in the Tabriz and Panjab Universities.
- The present study has been delimited with respect to Faculty members’ organizational commitment, organizational culture and leadership frame of chairpersons as perceived by the faculty members.