CHAPTER - 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews both empirical and theoretical literature on the key constructs of the study namely: job satisfaction and affective commitment. The chapter begins by highlighting the development of job satisfaction and organizational commitment; the definitions and conceptual approaches to understanding the constructs. Finally, the chapter presents a review of job satisfaction and organizational commitment studies in higher education in developing and developed economies.

2.2 CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction has been one of the most heavily researched employee attitudes over the last 50 years (Rayton, 2006). There are several definitions of job satisfaction, but Spector (1997) refined the definition of job satisfaction to “an attitudinal variable that measures how a person feels about his or her job, including different facets of the job”. It is an affective response to some specific aspects of the job and plays a vital role in enhancing employee commitment to an organization. Studies reveal that employee absenteeism, turnover and other behaviors are related to a person’s satisfaction with his or her job and the organization. Studies by various researchers have shown that job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct consisting of intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction (Maidani, 1991; Volkwein & Zhou, 2003). Intrinsic aspects of the job include motivators’ or ‘job content’ factors such as feelings of accomplishment, recognition, autonomy, achievement, advancement, among other factors. Extrinsic facets of the job, often referred to as ‘hygiene’ factors are job perspective factors which
include pay, job security, physical working conditions, company policies and administrative aspect, supervision, hours of work among others. Most studies have found that job satisfaction is also influenced by an arrangement of personal and job characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, tenure, organization type, nature of work, among others (Volkwein & Parmley, 2000; Lambert, 2003; Volkwein & Zhou, 2003; Lambert, 2004; Lambert, Hogan & Griffin, 2007).

2.3 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment as a concept has increasingly achieved prominence over the past three decades. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined organizational commitment as the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it reflects the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization. They also noted that different terminologies have been used to describe the same basic phenomenon, such as identification with the organization’s goals and values; involvement or loyalty to the organization and affective or psychological attachment. According to Meyer and Allen (1996), affective commitment is an employee’s emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organization. It refers to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization and it has been related to personal characteristics and organizational structures; for example; pay, supervision, role clarity and skill variety. Some studies have conceptualized it as one-dimensional (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Wiener, 1982) while others as multidimensional (Allen & Meyer, 1990; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Meyer and Allen made the biggest contribution to the organizational commitment literature, with over fifteen studies published since 1984. Common to all conceptualizations, they argued that commitment binds an individual to an organization and thereby reduces the likelihood of turnover. Meyer and Allen’s three component model of commitment was chosen for this study, because it has undergone the most extensive empirical evaluation to date (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Meyer and Allen (1990) developed their three component model from an identification of common themes in the conceptualization of commitment from existing literature.
2.4 ATTITUDINAL COMMITMENT

The attitudinal commitment approach perceives commitment as an individual’s psychological attachment to the organization. Consistent with the philosophy of human resource management, attitudinal commitment suggests that employees’ values and goals are congruent with those of the organization (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Armstrong, 2003). This approach, now commonly referred to as affective commitment, has dominated most of organizational commitment research for more than three decades (Buchanan, 1974; Porter et al., 1974; Mowday et al., 1982). Brown (1996) refers to it as a “set of strong, positive attitudes towards the organization manifested by dedication to goals and shared sense of values” while Porter et al. (1974) defines it as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Such commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Meyer and Allen (1991) defined it as an employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. These definitions view organizational commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between the employees and the organization. The resulting outcomes are increased work performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced turnover (Scholl, 1981). The exchange theory has also been used to explain attitudinal commitment. According to the exchange perspective, employees exchange their identification, loyalty and attachment to the organization in return for incentives from the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982). This implies that an individual’s decision to become and remain a member of an organization is determined by their perception of fairness of the balance of organizational stimulus and employee contribution. This approach therefore presumes that the employee develops attitudinal commitment when they perceive that their expectations are being met by the organization. Another dimension in explaining attitudinal commitment has
been proposed by Wiener (1982). He argues that an employee’s commitment could be as a result of internalized normative pressures such as personal moral standards, and not rewards or punishments. Employees with strong normative commitment may feel a deep seated obligation “to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests”. Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organization because they feel they must to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to this approach, an employee willingly maintains membership purely for the sake of the organization without asking for anything in return. These feelings of obligation to remain with an organization result primarily from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into an organization (ancestral or cultural socialization) or following entry into the organization and not through rewards or inducements (Wiener, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Feelings of indebtedness may also arise from an organization’s providing certain benefits such as tuition reimbursement or training. This feeling of obligation may continue until the employee feels that he or she has “paid back” the debt (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Wiener’s (1982) proposal which stresses identification and loyalty to the organization, has added a new dimension to the understanding of attitudinal commitment. Whereas in affective/attitudinal commitment an individual is attached to the organization’s goals and values, normative commitment arises from the congruency of the individual’s and the organization’s goals and values, which aim to make the individual to be obligated to the organization (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Studies that have used Meyer and Allen’s (1991) affective and normative commitment scales have revealed that the two approaches have an inherent psychological overlap and that it may not be possible to feel a strong obligation to an organization without also developing positive emotional feelings for it (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky, 2002; Jaros, 2007).

2.5 ANTECEDENTS OF AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Mottaz (1988) suggests that intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards are powerful determinants of organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) verify this. They found employees with
strong affective commitment feel emotionally attached to the organization. It follows that the employee will have greater motivation or desire to contribute meaningfully to the organization than would an employee with weak affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) reported that employees will develop affective commitment to an organization to the extent that it satisfies their needs, meets their expectations and allows them to achieve their goals, thus, affective commitment develops on the basis of psychologically rewarding experiences. An employee who is affectively attached to an organization will have greater motivation or desire to contribute meaningfully to the organization than an employee with weak affective attachment. Such an employee will therefore choose not to be absent from work and will desire to perform their duties well. However, employees whose attachment to the organization is based on continuance commitment will stay with the organization mainly due to the investments they have in the organization. Such employees, therefore, may not contribute effectively to the organization and may eventually feel frustrated, leading to inappropriate work behaviors such as absenteeism. Finally, the feeling of indebtedness or obligation to the organization arising from normative commitment may create some resentment which may affect the employee’s performance.

2.5.1 Personal Characteristics

Research has focused on two types of variables: demographic (e.g. gender, age, organizational tenure) and dispositional variables (e.g. personality, values). Relations between demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997). People’s sensitivity of their own competence might play an important role in the development of affective commitment. From the several personal characteristics that Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have examined, perceived competence and affective commitment have the strongest link. Employees who have strong confidence in their abilities and achievements have higher affective commitment. A possible explanation for the observed relation between the two variables is that competent people are able to choose higher-quality organizations, which in turn inspired affective commitment.
2.5.2 Work Experience

According to Meyer and Allen (1997) work experience variables have the strongest and most consistent correlation with affective commitment in most studies. In Mathieu and Zajac’s (1990) meta-analytic study, affective commitment has shown a positive correlation with job scope, a composite of three variables, e.g. job challenge, degree of autonomy and variety of skills used. Affective commitment to the organization is stronger among employees whose leaders allow them to participate in decision-making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981) and those who treat them with consideration (DeCotiis & Summer, 1987). The strongest links between affective commitment and behavior will be observed for behavior that is relevant to the community (e.g. supervisor) to which the commitment is directed. On the basis of antecedent research on affective commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested possible universal appeal for those work environments where employees are supported, treated fairly, made to feel that they make contributions. Such experiences might fulfill a higher order desire to enhance perceptions of self worth.

2.6 JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Work environments are not just tangible, physical structures but are also composed of social and psychological factors (Lambert, 2004). These work environments consist of job characteristics and role stressors, factors which are expected to influence employees’ attitudinal states. Various studies have been carried out relating organizational commitment and job satisfaction to different work-related characteristics such as task variety, autonomy, feedback, work overload, co-worker and supervisory support (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Lambert, 2004). Studies have shown that employees exhibit high levels of commitment and job satisfaction when they perform challenging and complex jobs characterized by factors such as skills variety, autonomy, and feedback among others (Sims, Szilagyi & Keller, 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Mottaz (1987) found that unlike demographic characteristics, job characteristics such as job autonomy and skills variety had strong, positive
influence on organizational commitment and work satisfaction. Lambert (2003) found that job autonomy had positive effects on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment among correctional staff members. Autonomy in the academic profession is an important characteristic (Kim, Twombly & Wolf-Wendel, 2008). However, autonomy is increasingly under threat due to the global economic emphasis on efficiency and a stronger focus on income generation, which means that faculty members have less control over their work. Kim et al. (2008) utilized survey data from the National Study of Post Secondary Faculty, 2004 compiled by the National Centre for Education Studies, USA. In a study of 4664 faculty members, they found that academics who were more satisfied with their salary ($\beta = .035, p < 0.01$), fringe benefits ($\beta = .046, p < 0.001$) and teaching support ($\beta = .090, p < 0.001$) were more satisfied with their instructional autonomy. Further, academics who believed that teaching was rewarded at their institutions were more satisfied with their instructional autonomy (autonomy with teaching related decisions). Kim et al. (2008) concluded that policy makers and universities should guard the creativity and autonomy of their members. Al-Omari, Qablan and Khasawneh (2008) found that autonomy had a positive direct effect on academics intent to stay through job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.069, p < 0.05$) and organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.051, p < 0.05$). This suggests that a higher level of autonomy was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment which in turn yielded higher intention to stay. According to Al-Omari et al. (2008), autonomy may enhance faculty job satisfaction and organizational commitment because it provides academics with the professional freedom they expect from their jobs and enables them to employ their specialized knowledge in appropriate ways without extensive oversight. Supervisory and co-worker support have been found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Lambert, 2003; Dixon, Cunningham, Sagas, Turner & Kent, 2005). Employees are more likely to view their jobs and employing organizations in a more favorable light if they are provided with positive, support from their supervisors (Lambert, 2004; Lambert et al., 2007). Conversely, employees will be dissatisfied with their job and blame the organization for the negative situation if they are provided with poor, harsh and unhelpful supervision. Similarly, Mowday et al. (1982) noted that supervisors who allow their employees
greater autonomy over how they perform their work increase the employees feeling of responsibility. Joiner and Bakalis (2006), in a survey study of 72 Australian casual academics, found that job-related characteristics played an important role in their affective commitment. The study found that strong co-worker and supervisor supports both positively contributed to affective commitment. This suggests that a supervisor, usually the academic head of department, who offers support, shares concerns and provides useful job-related information, is likely to have a positive influence on academics’ organizational commitment. Likewise, academic co-workers who provide mutual support for one another in terms of providing information and assistance, increase their sense of connection and commitment with the university.

2.7 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Employees’ demographic characteristics are commonly used variables in context to constructs i.e. job satisfaction and organizational commitment. There are some studies that have found inconsistent results (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Al-Qarioti & Al-Enezi, 2004). Many studies have found that personal variables such as age, tenure, education, gender and marital status played a significant role in enhancing employees job satisfaction (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniaj & Alutto, 1972; Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1978). These variables are discussed below:

a) Age

Most of the studies have consistently found that age was positively correlated to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1981; Bateman and Strassser, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982; Cohen, 1993). Karsh, Bookse and Sainfort (2005) in their study of 6584 nursing home employees, found that unlike younger employees, older employees displayed higher continuance commitment and found it difficult to leave due to factors such as financial obligations to family among others. Price and Mueller (1981) found that younger employees were more likely to turnover than older
employees because they had the most routine jobs, participated less in the decision making process, lacked knowledge about their jobs, had fewer friends and received less pay. Sager and Johnson (1989) found that age was unrelated to a salesperson's organizational commitment. In terms of career commitment, older salespersons were likely to have reached the highest level of their careers and therefore become less committed to their careers as compared to younger salespersons. It is therefore expected that that older employees will be more committed to their universities, more satisfied with their jobs and less likely to turnover than younger employees. In a survey study of 263 administrators and sector managers, faculty and staff of a Caribbean university, Brown and Sargeant (2007) found that older workers, aged 46 years and above had higher levels of overall, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction and organizational commitment than their younger colleagues, aged 26 to 35 years. They suggest that universities should ensure that they provide opportunities for workers to develop their job satisfaction and organizational commitment by encouraging them to be part of the decision-making process of the institution. This approach would make these workers feel valued and respected and could translate into satisfied workers who would be committed to the organization because they were included in the decision making process.

b) Education

Various studies have shown that education is negatively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and positively related to turnover intentions (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Eskildsen, Kristensen & Westlund, 2004). Mowday et al., in (1982), reports that "this inverse relationship may result from the fact that more educated individuals have higher expectations that the organization may be unable to meet" resulting in the loss of commitment and lower satisfaction. Consequently, highly educated individuals were likely to become more committed to their professions than their organizations. Commitment levels and intentions to remain are likely to be lower for highly educated employees who have a greater number of job options (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).
c) Gender

Some studies on the relationship between gender and organizational commitment have found weak and inconsistent correlations (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bateman & Strasser; 1984; Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a weak correlation between gender and organizational commitment, with women being more committed to the organization than men. Since women have had to overcome more barriers to attain their positions in the organization, they may place greater value on their organizations and jobs than their male counterparts (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Morris, Wood & Yaacob, 2001).

d) Marital Status

Studies have found a positive relationship between marital status and job satisfaction and organizational commitment with married employees being more committed than single employees (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990). Married employees exhibited higher organizational commitment largely due to greater family obligations which constrain their opportunities to change employers (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Taormina, 1999; Cetin, 2006). Researchers also found that marital status was more related to continuance commitment, suggesting that married employees had more financial concerns.

e) Tenure

The organizational commitment-tenure relationship develops after the employee has spent some years in the organization and developed investments or side-bets which would be the deciding factor as to whether or not to continue membership with the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1993). Stevens et al., (1978) found that job tenure was a positive predictor of organizational commitment while positional tenure was a negative predictor. This is because side
bets build up with length of time in the organization whereas negative perceptions or costs develop as a result of career stagnation. Morris et al. (2001) observed that employees who had served the organization for longer periods of time and/or were better educated, were less committed to the organization. Because of the “push and pull” factor, senior Malaysian academics actively sought better employment opportunities, while the least qualified and the least experienced tended to demonstrate higher degrees of organizational commitment. Tenure consists of job and position tenure. Position tenure refers to the number of years spent in the same position while job tenure refers to the number of years spent working in the same profession.

g) University Sector

Studies have shown that public sector workers have lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment than private sector workers (Mulinge, 2000; Obeng & Ugboro, 2003). Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) found that positive reinforcement was weaker in public organizations as a result of greater role vagueness and specific measures which limited the connection between the manager’s effort and organizational effectiveness. They also found that private sector organizations placed greater emphasis on performance-based rewards which reflected positively on the commitment of managers. However, some studies have not found any sector differences in employee work attitudes (Kline & Peters, 1991).

2.8 CONSEQUENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Studies have shown that the consequences of job satisfaction and organizational commitment include absenteeism, tardiness and turnover (Mowday et al., 1982; Reichers, 1985; Lambert & Hogan, 2009). Employees with low commitment levels and who are dissatisfied with their jobs are expected to report high turnover rates, absenteeism and poor job performance. Employee
turnover is costly to organizations, in terms of recruitment and selection costs, training of new employees, loss of the performance and expertise of skilled employees, and difficulty in attracting new employees if the reasons for the departure of former employees are such as to make others reluctant to work for the organization (Tetty, 2006; Lambert & Hogan, 2009). As a result, the organization incurs the indirect costs of turnover which include increased use of inexperienced and/or tired staff, insufficient staffing resulting in decreased quality of services provided, decreased morale and loss of recruiting. On the other hand, employee turnover can also provide positive changes in the organization through the creation of promotion opportunities for existing employees and taking up of new people with new ideas.

Studies have found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are inversely related to turnover intentions (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Employees, who are highly committed to their organizations and identify with the goals of the organization, have little reason to want to leave. Similarly, employees who have rewarding, meaningful and enjoyable jobs are less likely to quit from as compared to employees who dislike their jobs. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that attitudinal commitment had a stronger negative correlation with intentions to leave. Researchers have also found that turnover intentions had strong negative correlations with organizational identification, intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. In a study of 139 academics from a Jordanian University, Al-Omari et al. (2008) found that job satisfaction ($\beta = .345, p < 0.05$) and organizational commitment ($\beta = .621, p < 0.05$), had significant positive effects on intent to stay. They suggest that efforts to improve faculty retention should focus on the work-related factors that affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In summary, it is expected that employees in Indian Universities who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their universities are less likely to intend to turnover.
2.9 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Although job satisfaction and organizational commitment are similar as attitudinal or affective constructs, several differences have been observed between the two constructs. First, job satisfaction refers to the extent to which individuals “like” or are “happy” with their work, while commitment refers to the extent of “attachment” or “loyalty” to the organization (Mottaz, 1987). Second, organizational commitment is a more global attitude which portrays an employee's attachment and identification with the goals and values of the organization as a whole, while job satisfaction represents an employee's attachment to the job (or certain aspects of one's job) which is part of the organization (Mowday et al., 1979, 1982).

Third, development of employees’ commitment towards the organization takes more time and effort as compared to the time required to build job satisfaction (Rifai, 2005). Whereas job satisfaction may be affected by day-to-day events in the workplace or tangible aspects of the work environment such as pay, supervision, working hours, promotions among others, commitment attitudes develop more slowly over time as employees evaluate their relationship with the organization and other aspects of working for the organization such as its goals and values (Porter et al., 1974). Mowday et al. (1982), stated that “although day-to-day events in the work place may affect an employee’s level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to re-evaluate seriously his or her attachment to the overall organization”. It is expected that any changes in the organization, for instance, plans for redundancies, unfair promotional procedures or poor pay may in the long run affect the employee's commitment to the organization. Porter et al., (1974) concluded from their study that “although we would expect commitment and satisfaction to be related, each construct appears to contribute unique information about the individual’s relationship to the organization”. Lambert (2004) in their study of 272 correctional facilities employees, found that job characteristics (i.e. job variety, autonomy and supervision) varied in how they affected job satisfaction and organizational
commitment, with these characteristics having stronger effects on job satisfaction than on organizational commitment. According to him, since job satisfaction is concerned with an individual’s job while organizational commitment with the bond to an overall organization, it is expected that job characteristics would have larger effects on job satisfaction than they would on organizational commitment. Despite these differences, studies have shown that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are positively correlated. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that organizational commitment had a strong positive relationship with overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with promotion, pay and supervision among others. Due to the differences between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, these two constructs will be examined separately as dependent variables.

2.10 JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXT

Higher education institutions across the world are facing several challenges resulting from globalization and the rapid pace at which new knowledge is being created and utilized which require reforms in the management and governance styles of these institutions (Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004). Consequently, the satisfaction and commitment of higher education faculties under such challenging work environments has become imperative. Although there is increasing interest in faculty satisfaction in higher education, majority of the theoretical and empirical work is concentrated in the affluent western European countries and North America where conditions are better, with limited studies from developing countries (Olsen, Maple & Stage, 1995; Oshagbemi, 1997; Lacy & Sheehan, 1997; Volkwein & Parmley, 2000; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002).
2.11 JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN UNIVERSITIES IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Oshagbemi (2000) investigated the extent to which UK academics were satisfied with their primary task of teaching, research and administration. In a survey study of 554 academics from 23 universities, he found that 80% of the academics were most satisfied with their task of teaching, followed by research (65%) and institutional management (40%). The study found that most UK academics were satisfied with the courses they taught and the freedom they had to choose the content of their courses, while some were dissatisfied with their class sizes and workload. Most of the respondents were dissatisfied with their administrative activities and protested that excessive paperwork demanded of them reduced the time left for research. Lacy and Sheehan (1997) using a sample of 12,599 respondents from eight nations (Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden, UK and USA) and examined aspects of academics satisfaction with their jobs. Academics across the eight nations reported general satisfaction with their colleagues, job security, opportunity to pursue their own ideas, and their job situation as a whole. However, 44.1% of the respondents were dissatisfied with their promotion prospects compared with 27.6% who indicated satisfaction. Academics from Israel and USA expressed the highest levels of job satisfaction with the courses they taught as compared to academics from Hong Kong, Sweden and Germany. With the exception of Israel and Mexico, there were significant gender differences across the nations, with male academics being more satisfied with most aspects of their jobs (i.e. job security, promotions, opportunity to pursue own ideas and overall job satisfaction) as compared to the females. With regard to overall job satisfaction, most of the academics from Sweden and USA were more satisfied with their jobs than their colleagues in Germany, Mexico, Australia and UK. Further studies by Lacy and Sheehan (1997) of 1,394 Australian academics; found that male academics were more satisfied than females with most aspects of their jobs. Academics in the lowest rank (i.e. tutors) were less satisfied with their jobs as compared to their professional colleagues. Academics indicated greatest satisfaction with the classes they teach (77%), relationships with colleagues (69%),
opportunity to pursue own ideas (65%) and job security (58%). However, they were most
dissatisfied with their promotion prospects (25%) and the way their institutions were managed
(18%). They concluded that if academic staff were to be encouraged to express higher levels of
job satisfaction and lower levels of dissatisfaction, attention must be paid to the environment in
which they work (i.e. faculty-administration relationship, faculty morale and intellectual
atmosphere). Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) in a survey study of 1,511 faculties from 10 public
universities in America found that the best predictors for academics morale were their
engagement in their work (i.e. enthusiasm and satisfaction with their work and intellectual
stimulation), their sense of institutional regard and their own personal morale. They concluded
from their study that morale was the primary factor in faculty members’ intention to leave their
positions, institutions and professions. Volkwein and Zhou (2003) in a survey study of 1,178
administrators from 122 American Universities found that intrinsic satisfaction was lower among
administrators who worked in a controlled work environment, had job insecurity, and
experienced interpersonal conflict. Extrinsic satisfaction was negatively inclined by job
insecurity, external regulation, job stress, and inadequate facilities. They suggested that
university presidents should respond to the intrinsic needs of their managers by creating
opportunities for them to be creative, to exercise their initiative and match their talents to their
job responsibilities. Similarly, Smerek and Peterson (2007) in a study of 1,987 non-academic
respondents from a public American university examined the relationship between employees’
personal characteristics, job characteristics, perceived work environments and job satisfaction.
Hagedorn (1996) examined the role of female/male wage differentials in job satisfaction. In a
survey study of 5,450 respondents from American Universities, he found that a significant
proportion of female faculty members received lower wages than their male colleagues resulting
in reduced levels of job satisfaction, increased stress and increased likelihood to leave the
academic profession. He concluded that gender-based discriminatory practices in higher
education, such as wage differences between men and women were costly as it led to the
turnover of qualified female academics. Since the study was exploratory in nature, Hagedorn
reported that some contextual factors that may have had significant effect on job satisfaction may
not have been captured. Wolverton, Montez, Guillory and Gmelch (2001) in a survey study of organizational commitment and turnover intentions among 822 Deans from 360 American Institutions, found that deans who were inside hires tended to be more committed and less likely to leave than deans brought from outside their institutions. Deans who had external opportunities exhibited lower organizational commitment and were more intent on leaving unlike deans who were satisfied with their jobs and believed that they worked in good institutions. Wolverton et al., (2001) conclude that universities should enhance the professional development and recognition of the institutional worth of their deans if they expect loyalty from them. The above studies show that intrinsic aspects of the job mainly shape the extent to which university academics are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their institutions.

2.12 JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN UNIVERSITIES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Limited studies have been conducted on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees in universities from developing or less developed countries. Küskü (2003) from a survey study of 191 academics and 100 administrative employees from a state university in Turkey found that academic employees had higher professional satisfaction and were satisfied with competition among colleagues than administrative employees. On the other hand, administrative employees were more satisfied with the relationship with their colleagues, their work environment and their salary as compared to academic employees. Poor compensation of academic employees is common in developing countries where financial and economic resources are limited thus challenging the ability of state universities to attract and retain qualified staff. Chughtai and Zafar (2006) in a survey study of 125 teachers from Pakistani universities, found that trust in management, satisfaction with actual work undertaken, job involvement and satisfaction with training opportunities were the strongest positive predictors of organizational commitment. According to the researchers, employees from third-world countries who struggle to make ends meet may be more interested in personal outcomes such as high pay rise than the
fairness of the procedures. Ssesanga (2003,2005) in a survey study, explored job satisfaction and dissatisfaction from a sample of 182 Ugandan academics. Consistent with studies from western contexts (Lacy & Sheehan, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1997) the study found that Ugandan academics derived satisfaction from interests shown by students in the courses they taught, autonomy of content taught, relationship with and respect by students, co-worker and supervisory support, job autonomy and freedom to research. On the hand, sources of dissatisfaction resulted from inadequate pay, lack of research funds, poor library facilities, undervaluing of teaching excellence as a promotion requirement and the relationship with their universities management. Similarly, Onen and Maicibi (2004) in a study of 267 non-academic staff respondents from a Ugandan university found that over 70% of the respondents were dissatisfied with their basic salary and other allowances, resulting in low motivation among the staff. The study also found that employees were dissatisfied with their promotional and training opportunities. According to the researchers, most of the faculties are still grappling to meet their daily basic needs which are not adequately met by the low basic salaries and allowances, and therefore have no additional funds for training. The above findings from developing countries indicate that universities are facing serious challenges in motivating and enhancing the commitment of their employees. Various factors such as inadequate and non-competitive salaries, poor physical working conditions, inadequate teaching and research resources, poor institutional governance among other factors are some the challenges that these universities face in terms of motivating their staff and containing high turnover rates. This is contrary to academics and administrative employees from developed countries who are generally satisfied with their jobs.
2.13 **SUMMARY**

## JOB SATISFACTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oshagbemi, T.</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>It was studied that teaching and research-related activities contribute significantly to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of university teachers. Also, several miscellaneous dimensions of the jobs of the workers, such as job security contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oshagbemi, T.</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Based on the sample from UK universities, the researchers found that academic rank is positively and very strongly correlated with the overall job satisfaction; length of service in higher education is negatively related; gender, age and length of service in present universities are not significantly associated directly with the overall job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santhapparaj, A. S. &amp; Alam, S. S.</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>A study conducted on 173 faculties in three private universities in Malaysia indicated that pay, promotion, working conditions and support for research have positive and significant effect on job satisfaction; female faculty was more satisfied than male faculty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toker, B.</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) based study conducted in 648 academicians working in the Universities of Turkey indicated that job satisfaction levels of academicians were moderately high, social status ranking the highest and compensation as lowest of the examined items; Professors reported higher job satisfaction compared to instructors and research assistants; age, length of service in present university and in higher education as a whole were significantly related to job satisfaction; marital status and gender were not significantly related to job satisfaction.</td>
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## AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

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<th>Author(s)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Meyer, J.P., Stanley, D.J., Herscovitch, L., &amp; Topolnytsky, L.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Using Meyer and Allen’s Three-Component Model, it was found that affective commitment related negatively to turnover, and had the strongest and most favorable correlations with stress and work–family conflict.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Data gathered from 33 universities in the three major cities of Pakistan indicate that the personal characteristics, facets of job satisfaction and two dimensions of organizational justice as a group were significantly related to organizational commitment of teachers. Individually, distributive justice and trust in management were found to be the strongest correlates of commitment. Commitment was found to be negatively related to turnover intentions.

### DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tu, L., Plaisent, M., Bernard, P. &amp; Maguiraga, L. (2005)</td>
<td>The data on job satisfaction obtained from 194 Taiwanese faculties and 211 Chinese faculties at college levels in one city indicated that there is no statistically significant differences for full-time Taiwanese and Chinese faculty in the overall job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabharwal, M. &amp; Corley, E. A. (2009)</td>
<td>The results show that, with a few exceptions, male faculty members in all disciplines have generally higher levels of job satisfaction than female faculty members. Satisfaction varies not only by gender, but also by discipline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyupoglua, S. Z. &amp; Sanerb, T. (2009)</td>
<td>Study conducted on 142 academicians in Northern Cyprus indicated that job satisfaction does not progressively increase with academic rank as might be expected. Out of the 20 aspects of the job examined, only 4 aspects, namely advancement, compensation, co-workers, and variety were statistically significant with academic rank.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nawab, S. &amp; Bhatti, K. K. (2011)</td>
<td>Results confirmed a significant correlation between Employee Compensation, Affective Commitment and Job Satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1: Summary Table for Review of Literature
2.14 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

We observe seven predictors of job satisfaction and demographic variables and their consequent impact on job satisfaction. Along with that, the relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment will be studied and their hypothesized consequences.

**Predictors**
- Salary
- Promotion
- Work Life Balance
- Support from Supervisor
- Support from Administration
- Recognition at Workplace
- Work Satisfaction

**Demographic Characteristics**
- Gender
- Age
- Marital Status
- University Type
- Educational Qualification
- Academic Rank
- Discipline
- Job Tenure
- Position Tenure
- Living Status
- Employment
- Income

**Job Satisfaction**

**Affective Commitment**

**Hypothesized Consequences**
- Job Performance
- Organizational Citizenship Behavior
- Employee Withdrawal
  - Turnover Intentions
  - Turnover
  - Absenteeism

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework
2.15 **RESEARCH HYPOTHESES**

Drawing on the existing conceptual and empirical framework, the present study attempts an empirical examination of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. The hypotheses framed for the study are:

H1: There is a significant difference in impact of predictors of job satisfaction and affective commitment on faculty members in private and government universities.

H2: There is a significant difference in impact of predictors of job satisfaction and affective commitment on male and female faculty members in private and government universities.

H3: Demographic factors have a significantly different impact on predictors of job satisfaction and affective commitment in private and government universities’ faculty members.

H4: There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.

2.16 **CONCLUSION**

This chapter has reviewed the different conceptual approaches in understanding job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The literature has shown that job satisfaction is a bi-dimensional construct consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Turnover intention, which is an outcome of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, has been found to be inversely related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Studies have found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were considerably high among employees in universities from developed countries. However, despite having better working environments than academics in developing countries, some academics have been shown to be dissatisfied with certain aspects of their jobs such as promotions and the way their universities are managed.