AN ASSESSMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA; THE EFFECTS OF PERSONAL DEMOGRAPHICS AND JOB-RELATED FACTORS ON FACULTY COMMITMENT

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

By

MOSHOBAB AYADH AL-KAHTANI
B.A. in Psychology, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 1992
M.A. in Psychology, University of Missouri at Kansas City, 1998
M.B.A., Virginia Commonwealth University, 2003

Director: DR. MICHAEL P. BROOKS
PROFESSOR OF URBAN PLANNING
L. DOUGLAS WILDER SCHOOL OF GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia
August 2004

CENTER FOR PUBLIC POLICY
VIRGINIA COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITY

PH.D. IN PUBLIC POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

This is to certify that the dissertation prepared by Moshobab A. Al-Kahtani, entitled:

An Assessment of the Organizational Commitment in the Institute of Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia; The Effects of Personal Demographics and Job Related Factors on Faculty Commitment

has been approved by his committee as satisfactory completion of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Ph.D. in Public Policy and Administration.

Michael P. Brooks

Michael P. Brooks, Ph. D., Chair

Deborah M. Brock, Ph. D.

Robert D. Holsworth

Robert D. Holsworth, Ph. D.

Wallace Stettinius

Wallace Stettinius, MBA

Michael D. Pratt

Michael D. Pratt, Ph.D., Interim Director, Ph.D. Program

Robert D. Holsworth

Robert D. Holsworth, Ph.D., Director, Center for Public Policy

F. Douglas Boudinot

F. Douglas Boudinot, Ph.D., Dean, School of Graduate Studies

DATE OF DISSERTATION DEFENSE: August 16, 2004

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ABSTRACT

AN ASSESSMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION; THE EFFECTS OF FACULTY'S DEMOGRAPHICS AND JOB-RELATED FACTORS ON THEIR COMMITMENT

By Moshobab A. Al-kahtani, Ph.D.

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Major Director: Michael P. Brooks, Professor of Urban Planning
L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs

Employees of today are more likely to trade their expertise for salary, and for the chance to develop their own identities and worth with their organizations. It is more a relationship of resource-exchange. This means the employee is committed to his/her organization only until a new opportunity comes along. To counter this type of attitude, organizations need to find out what factors develop a sense of commitment in their employees so they will feel more like developing their careers within the organization. By taking such action, organizations will help to reduce employee turnover and will also weave into their systems and routines the vast base of knowledge and skills brought to them by their associates and team members. This empirical study investigates the relationship between demographics, job-related factors and organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration faculty. The demographics include nationality, age, gender, and education. The job-related factors include occupational level and job type, as well as annual salary and organizational tenure. The study utilized the Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component model, which suggests that an employee simultaneously experiences attachment and loyalty to the organization based on continuance, affective, and normative commitment. Three hundred twenty-two questionnaires were completed and returned, which equals 71.5% of the questionnaires distributed and represents 55% of the entire faculty of the IPA. Hypotheses were tested using Pearson's chi square test statistics in the cross-tabulations, Pearson's correlation coefficients, and linear regression for continuance, affective, and normative commitment. Binary logistic regression was used to test each of the hypotheses of the overall commitment. The finding shows age, gender, occupational level, job type, annual salary, and organizational tenure correlate significantly with continuance, affective, normative, and overall commitment. Education was correlated significantly only with continuance commitment. Regression models indicate that age; gender, education, occupational level and job type were significant predictors of continuance commitment. Gender, education, and job type predict significantly affective, normative, and overall commitment.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

This empirical study seeks to discover whether demographics and job-related factors can predict the organizational commitment of faculty who work for the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) located in Riyadh City, Saudi Arabia. The demographics of faculty include nationality, age, gender and education while job-related factors include occupational level, type of job, job pay and organizational tenure. The Institute of Public Administration has a major influence on the performance levels of both the private sector and the government as relates to the fields involved in administrative development, such as training, documentation, research and consultations. The Institute of Public Administration conducts the following activities:

1) Training.

Training programs offered by the IPA vary in accordance with the program objectives and the target beneficiaries as follows: a) various programs directed at the holders of high school and university degrees to prepare and qualify them for posts in government and the private sector; (b) in-service training programs for the purpose of developing the abilities and skills of government and private sector employees and enriching their knowledge in all administrative domains; and (c) workshops and forums for upper-level administrative leaders to improve their skills. The IPA offers scholarships to the IPA staff for academic study to increase their efficiency in carrying out these training programs.

2) Administrative consultations.

The IPA provides administrative consultative services to government and semi-government bodies as well as to some private institutions in the Kingdom and the Gulf countries and to some Arab and Islamic organizations. The services are aimed at organizing the work of these organizations, improving their performance, and providing consultation on administrative problems.

3) Administrative studies and research.

Through this activity, the IPA spreads organizational thought and awareness by (a) conducting and promoting academic studies and research related to administrative subject areas; (b) facilitating available grants and royalties to encourage scientific research in administrative affairs; (c) supervising and directing administrative research studies done at the IPA in cooperation with officials of varying groups such as government organizations and ministries; (d) publishing the *Public Administration Journal*, which is a specialized periodical issued quarterly that publishes research, studies, and articles in the field of administration and related sciences; (e) exchanging research and administrative data with other pertinent organizations of the Kingdom as well as other Arab countries; and (c) holding symposiums, meetings, and conferences to discuss and solve administrative problems. For example, the IPA has been playing the role of leading conferences related to the Kingdom's public administration on all levels, local and regional, as well as attending and hosting other international ones.

4) Administrative documentation.

One of the main tasks of the IPA is to provide and make accessible information pertaining to IPA activities including tabulating, collecting, classifying, and keeping administrative government documents.

The IPA is responsible for preparing government civil servants to carry out their duties in a professional manner. The IPA has the authority to ensure that a high level of administration is in place in order to establish a strong support base for the development of the national economy. It is also involved when government agencies are reorganized, and helps when there are administrative problems that are brought forth by public organizations and various ministries.

The IPA headquarters and the women's branch (the Saudi educational system enforces separated gender programs at all levels) are located in Riyadh. There are two other branches located in Jeddah and Dammam. The IPA has expanded in order to offer services to as much of the country as possible; it has added personnel support, both in and out of the country, in order to carry out its activities. The IPA has also launched intensive efforts to attract qualified young Saudis in order to send them abroad to colleges, universities and training programs in order to achieve better administrative development. The distribution of IPA staff by nationality as of the completion of training in 2002-2003 is shown as follows:

Table 1: Distribution of faculty in the IPA by the end of training year 2002-2003[1]

Nationality	Saudi	Non-Saudi	Total	Saudis Percentage
Faculty	475	112	587	81%

(Source: IPA's Annual Report 2003).

Due to high demand for training, research and consulting services, Saudi Arabia has experienced high growth in this area. As one of the larger providers of these types of services in Saudi Arabia, the IPA requires a high degree of organizational commitment from those associated with it. However, it has done little to determine if there are any differences among its employees in their attitudes and behavior toward the organization.

When employees have high commitment levels there is a greater sense of involvement, higher productivity, greater personal investment in the goals and values of the organization, and also more attachment to it. It would follow that, given all these factors, an employee would feel a greater responsibility toward the organization as well. Putti, Aryee and Liang (1989) felt commitment to an organization is reflected in such work-related behaviors as employee performance, absenteeism, retention and turnover. Sussman and Vecchio (1982) felt that commitment is also linked to the intent to employ some of these work behaviors.

The Purpose of the Study

This empirical study aims to investigate the relationship between demographics, job-related factors and organizational commitment of the IPA faculty. The demographics

[1] The actual data for most of the demogrphics and job-related factors was not available at the population of the IPA.

include nationality (Saudi versus non-Saudi), age, gender, and education. The job-related factors include occupational level and job type (management versus non-management level), as well as salary and organizational tenure.

This study uses demographics and job-related variables (for example, nationality, age, gender, education, occupational level, type of job, job pay, and organizational tenure) to determine the commitment levels of faculty of the IPA.

Background of the Problem

Academic faculty members are, like most of us, dependent upon the salaries they receive for their livelihoods. The organizations of which they are a part are utilitarian in nature (Etzioni, 1975). Even though these are utilitarian organizations, they are also normative in nature due to the fact that the faculty members usually will internalize commands that are considered to be legitimate ones by the organization. That said, the faculty would also comply and become involved with the institution in varying degrees from high to low levels. They may also exhibit positive or negative attitudes, and feel committed or alienated within the institution. According to Etzioni (1961) they are the "middle ranks" (p. 41) of the institutions of high education. Etzioni's typology of organizations provides a framework for conceptualizing the value orientation of organizations (Shaw and Reyes, 1990). When looking at an organization in this way, one can look at the faculty members within their working environment on an affective and intercultural basis. The organization relies daily on its faculty members in order to achieve success.

According to Etzioni, it is faculty attitudes that greatly influence the attitudes of students. When faculty lead students in a positive way with concern for their well-being, better student performance is achieved. The outcomes achieved by students, as well as how they are assessed, have a direct bearing on the organizational commitment levels of the faculty. According to Astin (1993) there is also a direct correlation between faculty commitment and their relationship with the administrators and the resulting satisfaction with the quality of the organization's students. Employees who looked at their jobs from the standpoint of utilitarian values only were less satisfied with their jobs than were those who held more normative values toward their jobs, according to Reyes and Keller (1986). An organization that takes into account the essential role of the faculty also recognizes that those faculty members make a personal and professional choice to function as a part of the organization. The faculty cannot function in a mode of passivity by simply accepting the goals and standards of the organization. The basic requirement is not mere acceptance of goals and standards, but commitment. Such commitment is necessary not only with respect to the overall successful competition of the organization but also with respect to all the specific sub-goals associated with performance (McGregor, 1967). It is important to an organization that these kinds of relationships be heightened, in the hope that faculty members will be very committed to the purposes of the institution and its goals and practices. It is also important that administrators foster an atmosphere that contributes to the ability of the faculty to perform at their best levels (Dilenschnieder, 1992).

It is true that given an organization with highly involved employees, relationships can be formed and improved over time, and such "employee involvement... has been shown to have significant effects on organizational effectiveness" (Lawler, 1992, p.4). "Human response to information about performance varies with commitment to goals" (McGregor, 1967, p. 125). This kind of management has a far-reaching impact:

> Individuals in high-involvement organizations are asked to make substantial, even extraordinary commitments to the organization. They are expected to tailor their careers and aspirations in many ways to particular characteristics of the organization. It is hard to ask people for this commitment and unreasonable to expect it from them if in fact the organization is unwilling to commit to seeing that they remain as employees (Lawler, 1992, p.240).

Many of today's collegiate organizations are seeking positive ways to function more efficiently. The design of the organization is increasingly important as pressures mount to cut expenses and streamline departments throughout the institution. It is true that organizational design has also been established as an antecedent of commitment (Chiefoo, 1991). This becomes a way to build satisfaction and commitment through the creating of a vision and an organizational culture. However, organizational structure alone assures the development of no particular individual's commitments (Newman, 1993). In the enhancement of the relational structure of the organization to its employees, the faculty, it has also been established that individuals committed to a vision beyond their self-interest find they have energy not available when pursuing narrower goals (Senge, 1990). Institutions of higher learning still function under the goals set forth earlier by Taylor involving systematic thinking and efficiency behaviors. The things he believed in are part of today's educational structures. In order to achieve growth and to survive in today's competitive atmosphere there must be strong relationships between all academic levels of an institution and its faculty.

If an academic organization in higher education aims and drives toward a successful future, it needs somehow to promote the perception that individuals can benefit, can further their own interests by attaching to the organization (Beranare, 1984). Hodgkinson (1971) noted that William James in 1897 recognized the need for holistic, organic thinking and interrelationships within social organisms. In order to succeed there must be a perception that there are benefits to the people who join an academic organization and they must believe it is in their best interest to do so (Beranare, 1984). William James felt there was an important need for social organisms to have a holistic, interrelated existence as reported by Hodgkinson (1971). In a mutually dependent relationship of this type, there has to be trust and commitment between the participants such as between the faculty and the administration. The contributions of personal efforts, which constitute the energies of organizations, are yielded by individuals because of incentives (Barnard, 1968). The autocratic dean has little to commend him in terms of improving relationships between the administration and the faculty (Hodgkinson, 1971). Mutual empowerment of purpose and equality of commitment among colleagues are important to achievement. Any social structure is bound together by social cement, which consists of equal parts of reciprocity and trust (Barnard, 1968)

In the work of Blake and Mouton (1965), The Managerial Grid III, they addressed the needs of both people and production by stating, "The highest attainable level of integration is possible only through leadership that meets the mature needs of people to commit themselves to corporate objectives through contributions that are beyond the ordinary" (p. 82). Others feel that a strong organizational identification is related to the member's higher-order need satisfaction (Hall, 1970). Maslow's hierarchy of needs—security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-fulfillment—identifies some of these needs (Schultz, 1990).

An administrator must be knowledgeable about these needs and be able to create the relationships necessary to fulfill them. Administrators who fail to affirm others and who choose to be argumentative are unable to form positive relationships and will therefore be destructive of the levels of commitment within the organization (Hodgkinson, 1971).

A supervisor who is friendly and genuinely concerned for those who work for him or her is necessary for strong cohesive groups (Gorden, 1991), which may lead to strong relationships that will in turn strengthen commitment levels of all participants (Martin and O'Laughlin, 1984). According to Martin and O'Laughlin (1984), good communications on the job is also a strong influence on commitment levels. It is also important to involve faculty members in the decisions that affect them and the workplace when improved commitment levels are desired (Reyes, 1992). Top management, immediate supervisors, and co-workers all convey the sorts of information important to the organizational commitment process (Allen, 1992).

When an individual identifies himself with a group, a leader, or a cause, he is in effect saying that the goals and values associated with that cause have become his own. He then self-consciously directs his efforts toward those goals and gains intrinsic satisfaction through their achievement (McGregor, 1967). Likert (1967) believed that the greater the loyalty of the member of a group toward the group, the greater the motivation among the members to achieve the goals of the group, and the greater is the probability that the group will achieve its goals. Hall (1981) thought commitment to be the soul of work, the sense of purpose that guides one's activities, that justifies one's investment of self and that defines one's role and reason for being.

The correlation of job-related factors and faculty demographics in conjunction with the faculty's level of organizational commitment would offer institutions of higher learning a better self-knowledge and understanding if they were knowledgeable about the faculty's organizational commitment levels. According to Monroe and Denman (1991) knowledge of this kind can be called upon proactively to clarify faculty roles when engaging in self-management, renewal and analysis of the organization.

Statement of the Problem

There is no definitive view given in the literature of the faculty's organizational commitment in higher education in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, the literature offers very little in regard to the antecedents and correlates of that commitment. What is it that influences faculty commitment and compliance to the colleges and universities of their choice? What job-related factors and demographics are at play in their commitment? What are the influences on that commitment in place within the Institute of Public Administration, one of Saudi Arabia's examples of higher education?

The IPA faculty members are, for the most part, contracted on a daily basis to come to a certain location to offer their services to their students. Each day they perform duties such as training, working in committees, conducting research, consulting, curriculum revision, and even working within the community. But for the most part, within the IPA the emphasis is on training. The faculty that serves the IPA participates in varied committees and functions, thereby establishing certain cultures and subcultures within the institution.

These activities take place both formally and informally where students and faculty gather together. The faculty also socializes among themselves, and these events help to shape the perceptions and attitudes of the faculty about the institution and their function in it. The faculty and the institution have mutual, reciprocal needs of each other with naturally established boundaries and varying degrees of commitment. It has been shown in recent research that employees are more often taking charge of their own career choices (Hall, 1996). It is also true that the former traditional tendency toward job security in exchange for employee loyalty is no longer the case (Tansky and Cohen, 2001). Employees of today are more likely to trade their expertise for salary and for the chance to develop their own identities and worth with their organizations (Hall and Mirvis, 1995). It is more a relationship of resource-exchange (Blau, 1994). According to Capelli (1999), this means the employee is committed to his/her organization only until a new opportunity comes along. To counter this type of attitude, organizations need to find out what factors develop a sense of commitment in their employees so they will feel more like developing their careers within the organization. By taking such action, organizations will help to reduce employee turnover and will also weave into their systems and routines the vast base of knowledge and skills brought to them by their associates and team members (Nonaka, 1994).

The IPA has acted decisively to develop faculty through the offering of scholarships, training, and various kinds of studies, along with implementation of simpler forms and procedures, and by obtaining the necessary office equipment. It has actively involved itself in the formulation of rules and regulations, supervision of performance, and has been active in various regional and international Arab organizations and groups, as shown by the following breakdown of training and scholarships:

Table 2: Number of IPA faculty who received training during 2002

Profession	Number
Faculty	303

(Source: IPA's Annual Report 2003)

Table 3: Number of faculty who were offered scholarships and training, and who graduated between 1995- 2000

	Masters	Doctoral	Training
Number of scholarships offered	107	71	--
Number of graduated faculty	31	45	--
Number of training opportunities offered	--	--	1226
Number of faculty who attended training	--	--	1224

(Source: IPA's sixth five years plan)

Despite this, however, the human resources statistics show the IPA has a high turnover rate within the faculty, with losses of 152 members who have left in the past 10 years to work elsewhere. This number sums to 26 % of the total faculty members who currently work at the IPA. The following table shows the number of Saudi faculty and administrative personnel who have left IPA during the last ten years (1994-2003) based on the location and the degrees they hold:

Table 4: Number of IPA faculty and administrative personnel who left the IPA between 1994-2003, by branch

Location	Headquarter		Women's branch		Jeddah branch		Dammam branch	
Degree	Training staff	Non-training staff	Training staff	Non-training staff	Training staff	Non-training staff	Training staff	Non-training staff
PhD	26	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Masters	73	0	6	0	4		4	0
Bachelors	35	10	0	3	1	1	1	0
Total	134	10	8	3	5	1	5	0

(Source: IPA's personnel department records in 2003)

This has been costly to the IPA since they have invested millions of dollars in both training and scholarships, only to lose these trainees. According to the IPA's planning department, a three-year scholarship costs the IPA $105 per employee. The following table illustrates the IPA's budgeted plans for offered scholarships to its faculty from 2000 to 2004.

Table 5: IPA's budgets for scholarships between 2000-2004

	2000	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**Total**
Masters	24	26	28	30	32	140
Doctoral	11	13	15	16	16	71
Budget (Millions)	$2.56	$2.6	$3.1	$3.2	$3.5	$15.3

(Source: IPA's Seventh Five Years Plan)

Such losses have caused upper management to feel that the future of the organization would be in jeopardy should that level of loss continue. Due to this problem, upper management at IPA felt it necessary to impose stricter regulations before an employee could leave the IPA and this was initiated in 2000. One of the changes made was to require that the faculty member must work for the IPA for a period of time that is double the time it took to earn his or her degree under the scholarship.

Moreover, the literature indicated the organizational commitment as the level of personal affinity and involvement with an organization (Mowday et al. 1982). People are less likely to leave their organization as the age and tenure of employees increase (Hunt, Chonko and Wood, 1985). Other authors (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) pointed out that employees with higher levels of education show less commitment to their organization. In addition, job position, marital status, and length of service, salary, gender, and culture (i.e. collectivism versus individualism) also clearly influence employee commitment (Tsui and Cheng, 1999). The degree of employee commitment has been connected with the extent to which certain employee needs have been satisfied by the organization.

The literature, however, does not reveal a clear view of the organizational commitment among faculty in the IPA. All of this is taken into consideration as this study seeks to document the level of commitment among the IPA faculty members, and it will also be based on demographics and other factors that are job-related.

Research Questions and Hypotheses:

This study proposes to answer the following questions:

1- What is the relationship between demographics (nationality, age, gender, and education) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration's faculty?

2- What is the relationship between job-related factors (occupational level, type of job, job pay and organizational tenure) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration's faculty?

The study hypothesizes the following:

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between demographics (nationality, age, gender, and education) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public administration's faculty.

H1a: Saudis are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than non-Saudis.

H1b: Older faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than younger faculty.

H1c: Female faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than male faculty.

H1d: Less educated faculty are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than highly educated faculty.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between job-related factors (occupational level, type of job, job pay and organizational tenure) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration's faculty.

H2a: Faculty members in the higher occupational levels are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than faculty in the lower levels.

H2b: Faculty members in managerial jobs are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than faculty in non-managerial jobs.

H2c: High paid faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than low paid faculty.

H2d: Long tenure faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than short tenure faculty.

Significance of the Study

Having established the level of commitment to the organization, the data can then be used to develop strategies for hiring and interacting with faculty. The IPA's administration needs to be aware of faculty commitment to the organization so that procedures can be tailored to develop and enhance the desired levels of commitment to the organization. Organizations of higher learning depend upon commitment in order to function, and greater understanding improves relationships between the organization and the faculty. It will also improve the overall operation of the organization.

There is a lack of information about the antecedents and correlates in regard to faculty commitment in higher education. Demographics and job-related factors of the study are based upon the literature review, which showed infrequent and minimal use of faculty demographics and job characteristics. There were no prior studies on job-related elements found in the literature review. Other researchers suggest that larger approaches and studies of this type need to be done.

The results of this study will also allow management to use motivational methods in order to increase the levels of commitment of employees. It may also make the selection process more effective by focusing on the demographics and job-related variables as they affect organizational commitment levels. A reward system based on the levels of commitment of potential employees may be instituted. Organizations may also opt to retain committed employees regardless of their race or nationality because it has such an impact upon organizational effectiveness.

It is important to Saudi organizations for their managers to be able to engender commitment by overcoming the cultural barriers that may detrimentally affect the performance of international employees, and that may eventually lead them to leave the organization. Personnel recruiters for the organization will want to target their policies toward highly committed individuals, and this may involve pay scales commensurate with the employee's level of commitment and involvement with the organization.

The findings of this study may contribute significantly by identifying those who are able to accept and believe in such changes as are made to increase the effectiveness of the organization. Those who are committed are more likely to accept the necessary changes, made to increase effectiveness, than are those who are not as committed. By understanding the demographics of committed employees, management may be better able to appoint those employees to critical positions in order to facilitate the changes that need to be made.

Another benefit of this study may lie in the inclusion of strategic management. It may be that organizational planners can benefit by engaging highly committed individuals in the strategic planning and implementation process of the organization. Involvement in such planning may increase efficiency, which is vital to global competitiveness and helps to maintain the organization's position in the marketplace. Committed employees will offer a sustainable, competitive edge over others within the prevailing global market.

This study can be helpful in understanding cultural differences found in employees, which is important because it has a direct and major effect upon the employees' commitment to the organization. Hofstede (1981) felt that organizational policies in non-western countries were based on employee loyalty, while they were based on calculative more than moral aspects for the most part in Western countries. Since the success of an organization lies in its ability to produce, recruits should come from those individuals who are most committed to the organization, thus allowing for a high level of achievement.

The significance of this study is the contribution it will make to the body of literature available on comparative management and international management research. Such cross-national works will help make it possible to recruit workers, both foreign and domestic, with a better understanding of their levels of commitment to Saudi organizations. Commitment is important because it directly influences organizational effectiveness in its impact upon turnover rates, job performance, and overall involvement. This research will also be useful because human resource personnel management will have a better understanding of the attitudes and behaviors of both domestic and non-national employees within Saudi organizations. This research will also add to the knowledge regarding commitment levels and the understanding of why some have strong levels of commitment while it is absent in others (Scott, 1971). It is necessary to study cross-national differences, and the findings will help in predicting organizational commitment levels of employees.

This study may also offer the management at the IPA an overview that will allow them to determine which faculty members would be most likely to leave the organization.

Identifying this group based upon either demographics or job-related factors might enable management to see where the problems are and to then come up with solutions for the problems at hand. It would offer management some idea of who should be recruited and how to keep their commitment levels high after they have joined the organization. The study might also offer ways to determine faculty members' levels of involvement, attachment, productivity and their willingness to remain with the IPA. Employees must be able to accept the goals, values and responsibilities of the IPA, and the IPA, in return, must develop a commensurate reward and/or promotion system that recognizes the employees' acceptance and commitment as a member of the organization's team.

Definitions and Operationalization of Constructs

Organizational Commitment

For the purposes of this study the focus is upon the effects of attitudinal and behavioral aspects, with particular emphasis upon attitudes. The use of the attitudinal approach is simple and easy to apply to the study's purpose. Kalleberg and Berg (1987), DeCotiis and Summers (1987), Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), Steers (1977), and Yoon, Baker and Ko (1994), all indicated that employee commitment was the degree to which he or she identified with the goals and values of an organization and was willing to invest effort toward helping the organization to succeed. The investment of such effort in an organization involves intentional behaviors and attitudes that lead to the accomplishment of the organizational goals. Both the attitudinal and the behavioral approaches imply certain characteristics of committed employees and these are: 1) the internalization of the organization's values and goals, 2) involvement in an organizational role, 3) a willingness to put forth effort for the benefit of those organizational goals and values, 4) the wish to remain with the organization over a long period of time, and 5) a sense of loyalty to the organization.

McCaul, Hinz and McCaul (1995) said that organizational commitment might be defined as a global attitude of the employee toward an organization. As such it is more than just a passive type of loyalty. Such commitment is one in which a person identifies with his organization and its goals, and then wants to invest effort in achieving these goals. This type of employee will also put forth extra effort in order to contribute to the well-being of the organization. He or she sees him/herself as an effective member of the team.

Buchanan (1974) defined organizational commitment as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role as related to these goals and values, and to the organization for itself, separate from its purpose. According to Zaccaro and Dobbins (1989), most definitions of organizational commitment focused upon the psychological aspects that bound the employee to the organization.

In defining behavioral commitment Wiener and Gechman (1977) said that it was a set of behaviors that exceeded normal expectations in respect to the object of that commitment. According to Becker (1960), commitment was engaging in consistent activities that would result in the accumulation of "side bets" which were things that would be lost if the activities were no longer done. The side-bet proposition suggests that employees make side bets with the organization by which they are employed. Side bets refer to anything valuable the employee has invested in an organization that would be lost if he or she were to leave the organization. He said that side bets were the things in which one made a personal investment such as friendship, effort, time, tenure, promotions, careers and financial rewards. Commitment, according to Hrebiniak and Aluto (1972), was a structural phenomenon that was a result of individual-organizational transactions and side bets that were altered over a period of time. But Salanic (1977) thought commitment was what occurred when a person became bound by his or her actions, thus being fully involved in them, thereby sustaining them.

Ferris and Aranya (1993) felt that a commitment that develops morally required 1) identifying with the organization as seen in acceptance of its goals, 2) a high level of involvement in organizational activities, and 3) a sense of loyalty to the organization. At the same time they felt that behavioral variables were found in such things as 1) putting forth extra effort for the organization, and 2) wanting to stay within the organization. Redding, Norman and Schlander (1994) felt such commitment to be due to a relationship between the person and the organization that was psychological in nature.

Porter et al. (1974) said that organizational commitment could be identified as the strength with which someone identified with, and became involved with, an organization. It was felt that there were three main components to this type of commitment: 1) believing strongly in the organization's goals and values, 2) investing lots of effort on behalf of the organization, and 3) a strong identity with and wish to remain as part of the organization. In review of the literature as regards the definitions of organizational commitment, there are some consistent issues that are seen as part of such commitment: 1) effort above and beyond what is required, 2) a sense of pride in the organization, 3) internalizing of the goals and values of the organization, 4) the wish to remain as an active part of the organization, 5) loyalty to the organization, 6) willingness to work in any aspect of the organization in order to remain a part of it, and 7) the feeling that the organization of which one is a part is the very best.

As part of their research, Meyer and Allen (1991) developed a framework that was designed to measure three different types of organizational commitment. (a) Affective commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment stay with the organization because they want to. (b) Continuance commitment refers to employees' assessment of whether the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying. Employees who perceive that the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying remain because they need to. (c) Normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to the organization. Employees with high levels of normative commitment stay with the organization because they feel they ought to.

In arguing for their framework, Meyer and Allen (1991) contended that affective, continuance, and normative commitment were components rather than types because employees could have varying degrees of all three. "For example, one employee might feel both a strong attachment to an organization and a sense of obligation to remain. A second employee might enjoy working for the organization but also recognize that leaving would be very difficult from an economic standpoint. Finally, a third employee might experience a considerable degree of desire, need, and obligation to remain with the current employer" (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p.13). Even though the authors present this argument, they imply that there is a rationale for summing all the scales to obtain an overall score for organizational commitment.

For the purposes of this study, the definition and questionnaire (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) are used to determine the levels of employee commitment to the organization. Their questionnaire was chosen because it seems better related to the construct than do others available. It has also been used by a larger number of studies of commitment. The concept and operational aspects are organized as shown in the following table:

Table 6: Conceptualization and operationalization of organizational commitment

Type of organizational Commitment	Conceptualization	Operationalization
Affective	Wants to stay with the organization and feels emotionally attached	5 point Likert scale that expresses agreement or disagreement on six statements that measure affective commitment
Continuance	Needs to stay with the organization because the cost of leaving is too high	5 point Likert scale that expresses agreement or disagreement on six statements that measure continuance commitment
Normative	Feels obligated to stay with the organization because it is the moral and right thing to do	5 point Likert scale that expresses agreement or disagreement on six statements that measure normative commitment

Personal Demographics

There are varying personal demographics that are used to distinguish one person from another. These characteristics are brought to the organization when the person is hired by the organization; these demographics have more to do with the person than they do with the job itself. The personal demographics used in this study will include 1) nationality, 2) age, 3) gender, and 4) educational level.

Nationality is the citizenship that the person may hold. For the purposes of this study, citizenship is divided into two groups: Saudis and Non-Saudis. Non-Saudi faculty members are grouped in one group to serve the sampling procedure of this study since they came from different Arab and western countries. Age will refer to the actual age of the person at the time of participation in the survey. Gender is designated as male and female. Education is the highest degree the faculty has earned at the time of the study. The following table shows the conceptualization and the operationalization of demographic variables.

Table 7: Conceptualization and operationalization of demographics

Type of Personal Demographic	**Conceptualization**	**Operationalization**
Nationality	Country of citizenship	Non-Saudi = 0, Saudi = 1
Age	Age of participant	Actual number of years
Gender	Sex of participant	Male = 0, female = 1
Education	The highest degree the participant earned	Bachelor's = 0, masters degree = 1, Doctorate = 2

Job-related Factors

The job-related factors are those that are tied to the person's job itself. Included among these factors are: 1) occupational level, 2) type of job, 3) job pay, and 4) tenure within the organization. Occupational level refers to the rank the faculty has in the IPA's hierarchical system. According to the Saudi civil service system, occupational level is reflected by grades from 1, which represents the lowest grade, to 15, which represents the highest grade. Faculty members at the IPA are ranked from the seventh grade to the fifteenth. Also, the assistant faculty is equal to the tenth grade while associate faculty is equal to the twelfth grade. A full professor is equal to the thirteenth grade or above. Type of job refers to whether the job is managerial or non-managerial. Employees in non-managerial jobs include those who perform managerial support functions and/or technical support activities. Job pay is the annual salary earned by the participant. This study will use the actual amount of Saudi Riyals a participant receives as monthly pay for his/her job. Then, this number is multiplied by 12 and divided by 3.75 (one dollar equals to 3.75 Saudi Riyals) to obtain the annual salary in dollars. Tenure refers to the number of years a person has been employed at the IPA up until the time of participation in the survey. The following table shows the conceptualization and the operationalization of job-related variables.

Table 8: Conceptualization and operationalization of job-related factors

Type of Job-Related-Factors	Conceptualization	Operationalization
Occupational Level	Rank of faculty in the hierarchy	Seventh to eighth = 0, ninth to tenth and assistant faculty =1, eleventh to twelfth and Associate faculty = 2, thirteenth to fourteenth and full faculty = 3
Type of Job	Managerial or non-managerial job	Non-Managerial = 0, Managerial = 1
Job Pay	Annual salary	Annual amount of dollars participant receives for his/her job
Organizational Tenure	Length of time spent at the organization	Actual number of year's participant spent at the organization up to the time of the study.

Definition of Terms

The Institute of Public Administration: it is the premier governmental training organization that is responsible for the improvement of governmental and private sector work in Saudi Arabia through training, consultations, research, and documentations.

Organizational Commitment: it refers to "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. It can be categorized 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 strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Mowday et al., 1982, p.27).

Affective Commitment: it refers to "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so" (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 67).

Continuance Commitment: it refers to "an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so" (Meyer and Allen. 1991, p. 67).

Normative Commitment: it reflects "a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization" (Meyer and Allen, 1991. p. 67)

Demographics: the characteristics that have more to do with the individual than they do with the job itself. Demographics in this study are the characteristics the employee possesses when he/she is surveyed. They include nationality, age, gender, and education.

Job-related factors: those that are tied to the person's job itself, like job level, type of job, job pay, and organizational tenure.

Faculty: any person who is hired for a teaching job at the IPA during the time of the study.

Managerial: any person who holds a managerial position in the hierarchy of the IPA and supervises others at the time of the study.

Non-managerial: any person who performs supportive tasks within the IPA hierarchy and does not supervise others at the IPA during the time of the study.

Saudi: IPA employees who hold Saudi citizenship at the time of the study.

Non-Saudi: IPA employees who do not hold Saudi citizenship at the time of the study.

Organizational tenure: the length of time an employee has been with the IPA.

Job pay: the annual amount of dollars the employee receives in salary at the time of the study.

Organization of the Study

This study is arranged into six chapters. These are as follows:

Chapter one contains the introduction, problem statement, purpose of the study, significance, basic research design, study definitions, and study organization.

Chapter two will provide a description of the Institute of Public Administration. This will include its history, mission, objectives, organizational structure, and achievements.

Chapter three will provide a review of the relevant literature, and is divided into the following sections: (1) the definition of organizational commitment, (2) concept and development of organizational commitment, (3) types of organizational commitment, (4) the antecedents of organizational commitment, (5) the consequences of organizational commitment, (6) organizational commitment studies, (7) organizational commitment in higher education, (8) cross-national studies on commitment, (9) the relationships between demographics and commitment, (10) the relationships between job-related factors and commitment, and (11) the organizational commitment research model which will contain some of the theoretical model with focus on the study variables to explain the influence on organizational commitment.

Chapter four will describe the study's methodology, including the site of the study population and sample selection, data collection and measurement, instrumentation, validity and reliability, and data analysis tools.

Chapter five presents the findings of the study and their relationship with the expectations and hypotheses.

Chapter six discusses the study's conclusions, implications and recommendations, and limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II: INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

This chapter offers a comprehensive overview of the Institute of Public Administration's history, structure, responsibilities, activities, and accomplishments. It is organized in nine sections. The first section sheds some light on the development of administration in Saudi Arabia. The second section discusses the IPA's history. The third section covers the organizational structure of the IPA. The IPA's administration, as well as the IPA branches, are the focus of sections four and five. Section six presents the IPA's responsibilities. Section seven covers the IPA's activities and accomplishments. This section is divided into four sub-sections that each represents one of the IPA's main activities. These sub-sections are outlined as Training Activity, Research Activity, Consultation Activity, and Documentation Activity. Training Activity as a sub-section includes five headings: General Training Programs (In-Service), Special Training Programs (In-Service), General Preparatory Programs (Pre-Service), Special Preparatory Programs (Pre-Service), and Higher Administrative Development Programs. Section eight covers the concept of quality at the IPA. Finally, section nine discusses planning and development in the IPA.

Administrative Development in Saudi Arabia

There are two stages to administrative development prior to 1970. The first stage was the creation of the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, which occurred from 1902 to 1953. During this time different parts of the country were conquered and the first administrative centers were established in Najed, Al-Ahsa, and Asir, all with local government responsibilities. In comparison to other cities during this era, Al-Hijaz was more sophisticated in administrative capabilities than were other areas of the country that were part of the old regime's territory. Al-Hijaz already had a type of central governing body with ministries of the interior, health, finance, utilities, judicial, court systems, commercial, education and foreign affairs. It also had an elected council that served the people of the city.

Saudi Arabia's founder, King Abullaziz, used Al-Hijaz as a model for other areas of his newly founded country. He established six central ministries including defense, foreign affairs, finance, interior, education and health. Once the ministries in each of these areas were established, there were no experienced professionals to serve as administrators for these agencies. In order to solve this problem, administrators from other Arab countries were hired to provide in-service training for the Saudis who would run the agencies.

During the years 1953-1969 the second stage was formulated. This stage began with the establishment of three new ministries, which were education, commerce and agriculture. Administrative reform for all governmental bodies was tried at times during this time frame (Al-Tawail). It was also during this time period that the Saudi government had to seek help from several organizations due to a financial crisis. When the value of the Riyal dropped 3.75 to 6.25 per dollar, the Saudi government sought help from several sources, including the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and the United Nations.

There was a large deficit of trained nationals; therefore, its agencies were not as efficient or performing as well as they could be. Due to that realization the government asked for the assistance of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and of the Technical Assistance Committee of the United Nations, which recommended, after studying the matter, reorganizing governmental administrative bodies, the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration, that a central planning organization be set up, that government agencies simplify their procedures and activities, and that the study of public administration be encouraged (Alhamad, 1984).

Also of benefit to the government was the Ford Foundation which, after coming to the Kingdom in 1963, studied government agencies until 1969. Five teams were created by the Ford Foundation, including teams for public works, financial management, personnel, organization and management, and training. Because of the Ford studies, civil service regulations and a new administrative structure for government organizations were developed (Alshakawy, 1995).

Most of the recommendations of the Ford Foundation experts were adopted, resulting in the government establishing the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform in 1963. The following year the Council of Ministers sought to reorganize the General Personnel Bureau, giving it more responsibilities and greater authority.

The government took further steps in establishing more administrative development organizations. Among these organizations were Civil Service Board, the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform, the General Bureau of Civil Service, Committee for Training and Scholarship of Civil Service Employees, the Institute of Public Administration, and the Manpower Council.

It is the responsibility of the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform to establish and approve the administrative plans for each governmental organization. This committee also formulates and issues the instructions required to implement those plans. They also review all new by-laws and amendments of those already in place. The General Bureau of Civil Service is an executive bureau that serves as consultant and as a control factor. This organization researches and studies civil service issues involving personnel matters such as promotions, transfers, appointments and other such personnel related issues. It also functions as a control agency ensuring that rules and regulations pertaining to civil service matters are applied by the varying governmental bodies. It also makes sure that by-laws are followed. It also plays an executive role through enforcing other government agencies to follow rules and regulations involving personnel. The Committee for Training and Scholarship of Civil Service Employees is responsible for the kingdom's scholarship and all training and requirements involved with that both in and out of the kingdom. The setting of policies, along with the planning and research needed prior to policy enactment, lies within the duties of the Manpower Council. This is the agency that deals with foreign workers who provide the labor in the private sector of Saudi Arabia. Another agency that deals with civil service regulation is the Civil Service Board. This board provides a vital role of leadership for Saudi's civil service by developing official regulations and by-laws. It also functions to resolve problems related to civil service issues (Al-Shakawy, 1995).

The Institute of Public Administration

The Royal Decree Number 93 of 1961 resulted in the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration (IPA). The Institute was an autonomous corporation located in Riyadh. The IPA goal is to promote efficient government employees. Toward this aim, the IPA prepares government employees both academically and in a practical sense so as to ensure high quality in government administration and simultaneously provide the basis of support for the developing national economy. When invited by ministries, organizations, public agencies, and committees, the Institute also participates in the administrative organization of governmental bodies. It also offers technical advice on administrative problems when needed. Additionally, it conducts research involving administration and works to strengthen cultural relationships within public administration arenas (Alshakawy, 1995).

Organizational Structure of the Institute of Public Administration

The Board of Directors of the IPA is the supreme authority of the organizational structure. In addition to its other responsibilities, the Board of Directors is also responsible for:

- Determining general policies for the activities of the Institute.
- Granting approval for the annual and five-year plans.
- Setting internal regulations and determining the by-laws.
- Approving scholarship grants for employees of the Institute.
- Choosing executives to serve appointment to the IPA.

- Approving the budget of the Institute and the final accounting.

The Board of Directors of the IPA was selected based on a royal decree and it consists of the following officials:

- Minister of Civil Service (Chairman).
- Director General of IPA (Chairman and Board Member).
- Representative of the Ministry of Civil Service (Board Member).
- Representative of the Ministry of Education (Board Member).
- Representative of the Ministry of High Education (Board Member).
- Representative of the Ministry of Finance (Board Member).
- Representative of the General Organization of Technical Education and Vocational Training (Board Member).

Administration of the Institute of Public Administration

Founded by a royal decree on April 10, 1961, the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) was formed as an autonomous part of the Saudi Arabian Government. Its principal facilities are situated near the center of Riyadh, and it is funded solely by allocations and grants of the Saudi government. The Institute charges nothing for its services. A Board of Directors, headed by a Chairman who is the Minister of Civil Service, governs the Institute. The chief executive and academic officer is the Director General, also a ranking minister. The Director General has the assistance of two Deputy Director Generals as well as the directors of several other departments.

The IPA's Branches

To serve the government efficiently, there are agencies located in the both the Western and Eastern Provinces of the Kingdom. Branches of the Institute were established in Dammam (established in 1973) and in Jeddah (established in 1974). The staffs of both branches are supplemented when required by the headquarters in Riyadh. Rather than using the elaborate departmental structure of headquarters, the branches hire program coordinators to assist the Director of Programs in the administration of academic programs. These branches generally restrict their activities to mid-level management, training of clerical and supervisory staff, and consulting work.

The Women's Branch was opened in 1982 and is located in Riyadh. This branch is operated solely by women, and is for the training of women. The academics at the Women's Branch are multi-national in makeup but, for the most part, are Saudi. The women who attend the Women's Branch pursue programs much like the ones offered in other branches of the Institute.

Responsibilities of the Institute of Public Administration

So that it may achieve its general objectives, the following duties have been given to the IPA:

- Planning and carrying out various training programs and instruction for varying levels of employees.

- Conducting, directing, and supervising the scientific administrative research and studies at the Institute, cooperating with the executives of the ministries, government organizations, and their branches to carry out pertinent research that is required.
- Handling the collection, tabulation and classification of the Kingdom's documents.
- Conducting conferences pertaining to administrative development for executives of high-level government agencies.
- Hosting Arab, regional, and international conferences on matters of public administration in the Kingdom, and taking part in international conferences of a similar nature.
- Publishing research and exchanging administrative information with other organizations and agencies in the Kingdom as concerns dictate, as well as the rest of the Arab World, and in other countries.
- Allocating study grants and bonuses so as to encourage scientific research in administrative affairs.
- Promoting administrative efficiency of the Institute's staff through the offer of academic and training scholarships in administration.
- Offering study grants to select government employees of various Arab countries.

Activities of the Institute of Public Administration

In an ongoing endeavor to achieve better administrative performance, the IPA pursues four major activities: consulting, training, research and administrative documentation. The interaction of the varied activities forms a series of interconnections so that the output of one activity is the input of another, supporting the achievement of the Institute's goals.

Training Activities

Administrative training is the sole responsibility of the IPA. This is indicated in Article 7/34, which stipulates that: "for the establishment of training centers for employees, the approval of the Training Committee should be granted. Besides, no government organization is allowed to organize training sessions for its employees if similar training sessions are offered by a central training organization inside the kingdom" (Alshakawy, 1995).

According to the Ministry of Civil Service, the administrative training policy of the Kingdom seeks to accomplish these objectives: (1) providing the needed training or preparation of an employee so he can take over a vacant position or one held by a non-Saudi; (2) improving employee work habits and practices in order to increase productivity, or further develop the administrative environment of various governmental entities; (3) introducing new approaches and modern technology to governmental employees; and (4) retraining employees who must be transferred to new departments as dictated by current organizational interests or by employee circumstance.

The IPA training generally seeks to raise administrative efficiency of government employees by preparing them to assume responsibilities and implement tasks so as to ensure enhanced performance levels. The IPA, therefore, provides the following training activities.

General Training Programs (In-Service)

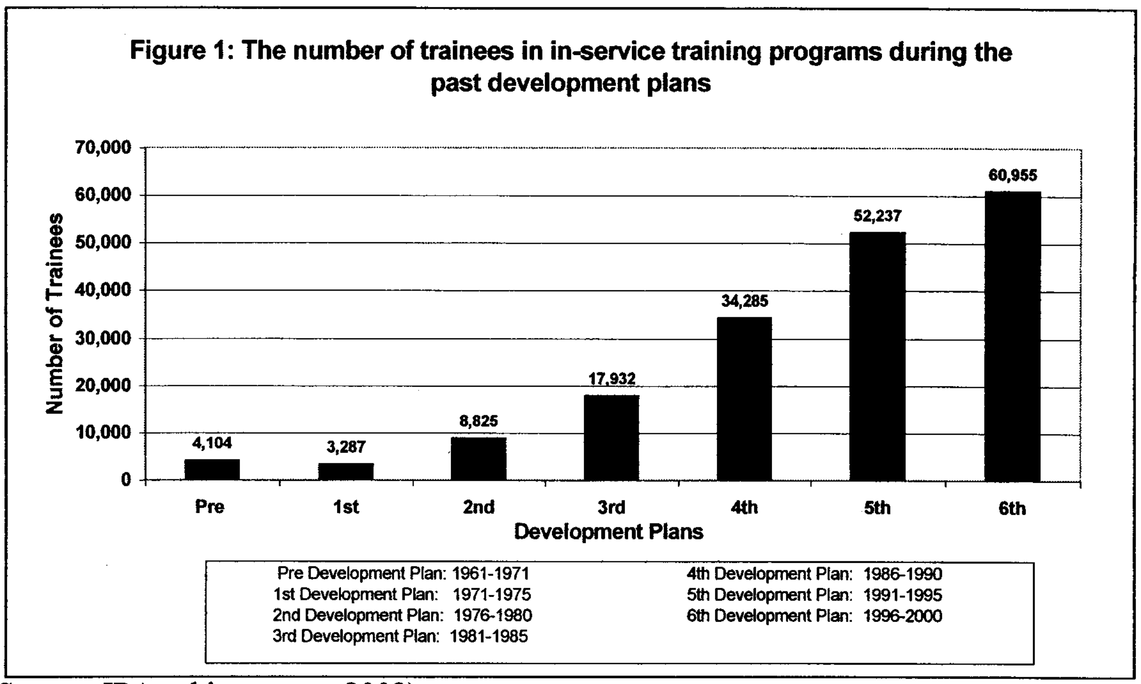
The IPA trains employees of government bodies to meet their training needs, to increase productivity and instill in them the required attitudes, knowledge and skills needed for improved administrative work and for carrying out administrative reform. The training programs include statistics, health administration, public administration, office management, projects management, economics and budgeting, computer training and education, organizational behavior, communication and public relations, law, accounting and finance, librarian and information technology, and personnel programs. For example, in 2003, under the health administration programs, the IPA offered two sessions of primary health care management with 180 training hours each. It also made available six sessions of health administration training with 600 training hours for each.

Table 9 shows the number of training programs and the number of trainees in General Training Programs (In-Service) during 2003. Also Figures 1 and 2 show the number of trainees during the past development plans, and during the past five training years, respectively.

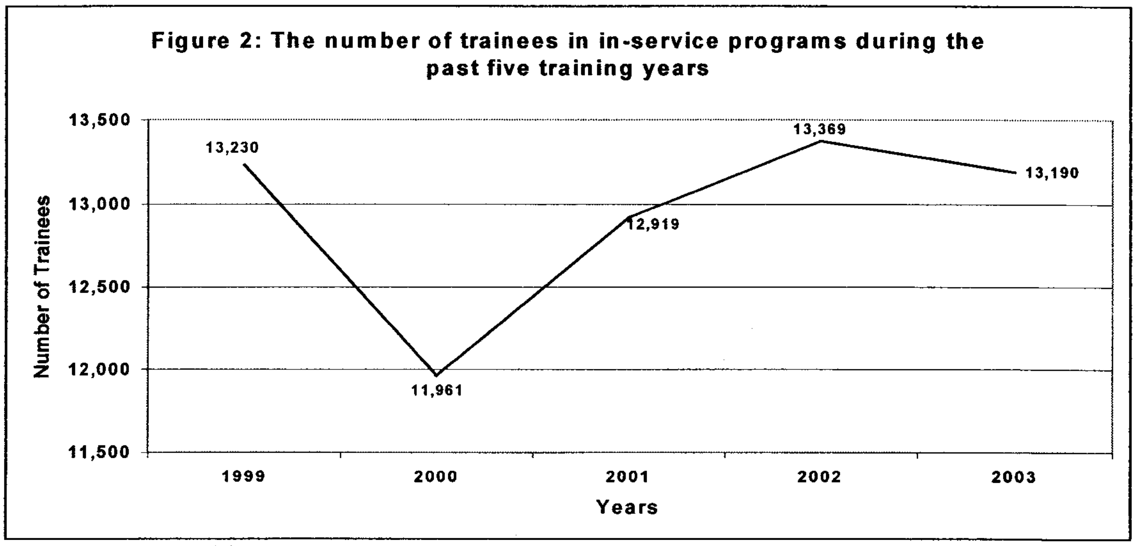
Table 9: Number of training programs and number of trainees in general training programs (in-service) during 2003.

Branch	Number of Programs	Trainees			
		Admitted	Enrolled	Passed	%
Headquarters in Riyadh	109	8827	7705	7688	60.6
Dammam	35	2888	2583	2557	17.4
Jeddah	41	2555	2185	2181	16.6
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	25	999	766	764	5.4
Total	210	15269	13239	13190	100.0

(Source: IPA's objectives and activities 2003).



(Source: IPA achievements 2002).



(Source: IPA's achievements 2003).

Special Training Programs (In-Service)

The objective of these programs is to fulfill special training needs in various governmental bodies by giving them the information and skills they need to carry out their appointed tasks and responsibilities.

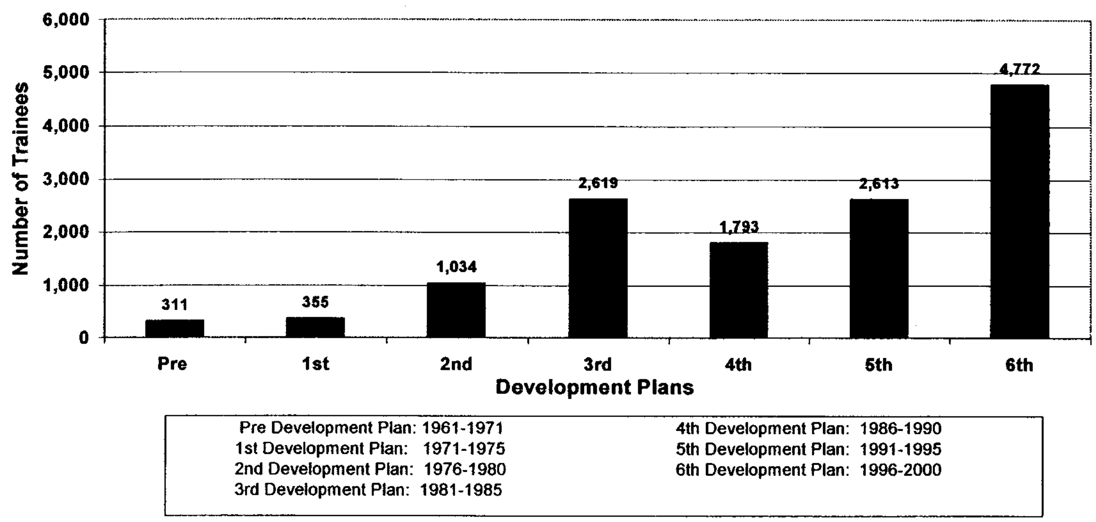
The IPA tailors special programs to meet the training needed by governmental employees. Special programs are designed and discussed with the benefiting institution to be sure the programs are beneficial. To that end, when preparing the annual training plan, the Department of Special Programs Co-ordination contacts all the various governmental bodies to determine their training needs. After collecting their responses, the Department studies them to determine feasibility and then establish the manner of execution. For example, in 2003, the IPA executed special 80-hour training programs called "Enhance the Skills of Emergency Centers' Directors" for the Ministry of Health employees who have similar duties. Also, it offered a program called "Population Census," with 112 training hours for employees of the public census organization. The following table indicates the number of trainees in Special Training Programs (at both headquarters and branches) for 2003. Figures 3 and 4 show the number of trainees during past development plans and for the last five years of training, respectively.

Table 10: Number of training programs and number of trainees in special training programs (in-service) during 2003.

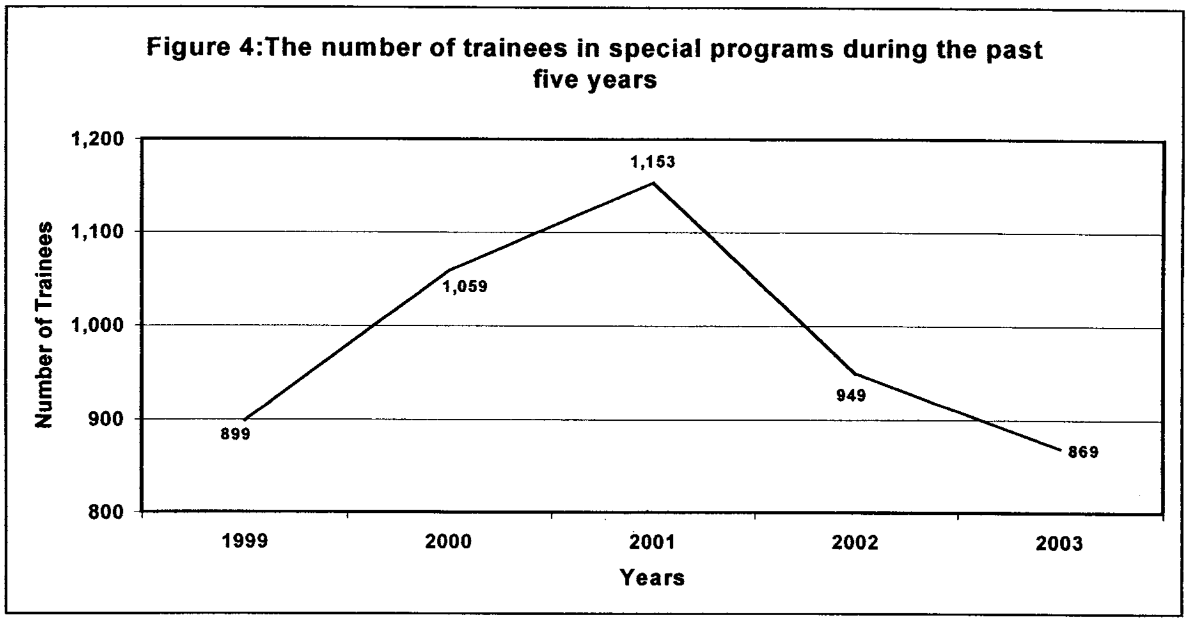
Place	Number of Programs	Trainees			
		Admitted	Enrolled	Passed	% by place
Headquarters in Riyadh	22	592	540	540	62
Dammam	6	150	142	142	16
Jeddah	6	177	162	162	19
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	1	40	27	27	3
Total	35	959	871	871	100

(Source: IPA Objectives and Activities 2003).

Figure 3: Tne number of trainees in special training programs during the past development plans



(Source: The IPA achievements 2002).



(Source: The IPA Achievements 2003).

General Preparatory Programs (Pre-Service)

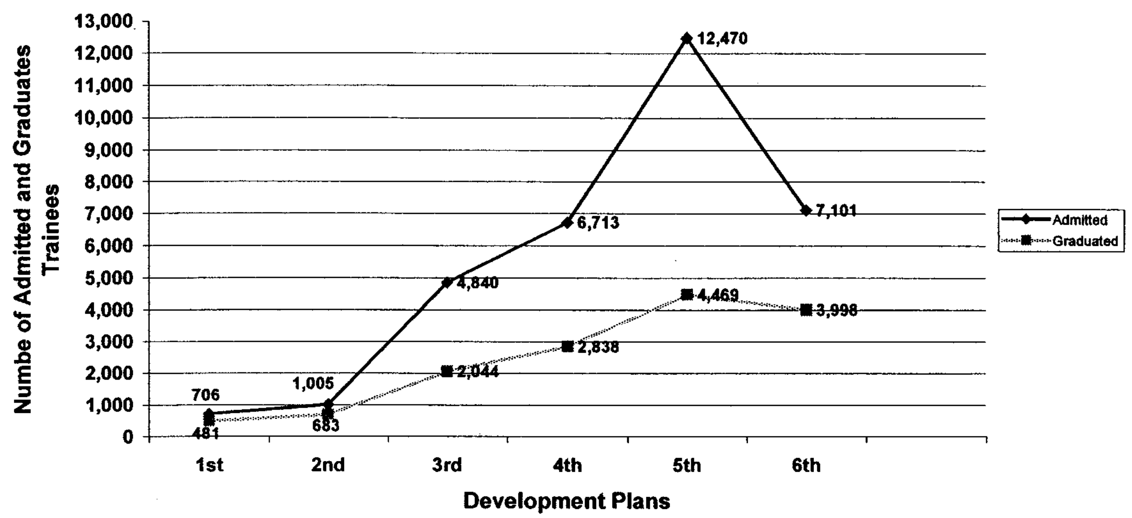
The General Preparatory Programs seek to train recent high school and college graduates in performing certain professional tasks needed in both the public and the private sector. These programs include different specialties, among which are Hospital Administration, Accounting, Law, Executive Secretary, Computer work, Marketing, Office Management Sales, Banking, and Hotel Management, as well as other areas of specialization. An ongoing effort is made to structure these programs in order to meet the needs of the country's development plans. Depending on the goal and character of each program, the length of each program may be from six months to as long as two and a half years. For example, the IPA offered a masters-level program in 2003 called "Marketing Management," with 510 training hours. Also, it offered that same year a masters-level program in law studies for law specialists with 984 training hours. The following table shows the total of students at the IPA who are in Preparatory Programs during 2003. Figure 5 indicates the total graduates and admitted from preparatory programs during the Development Plans of the past.

Table 11: Number of training programs and number of trainees in general preparatory training programs (pre-service) during 2003.

Place	Number of Programs	Trainees			
		Admitted	Enrolled	Passed	%
Headquarters in Riyadh	15	705	571	559	62
Dammam	5	164	122	120	16
Jeddah	6	150	131	130	19
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	6	180	157	154	3
Total	23	1199	981	964	100

(Source: IPA Objectives and Activities 2003).

Figure 5:The number of admitted trainees and graduates from preparatory programs during the past development plans



(Source: The IPA achievements 2002).

Special Preparatory Programs (In-Service)

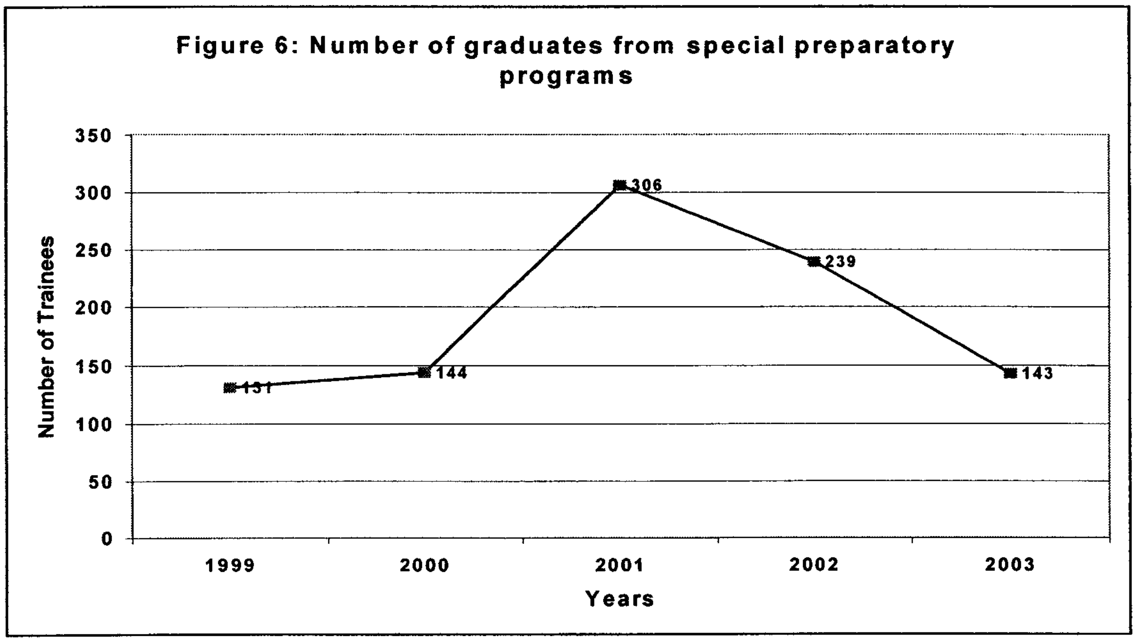
Because the objective of these programs is to fulfill training needs for the governing bodies, the program provides employees with the knowledge and skills they must have to meet their responsibilities. For example, in 2003 the IPA executed a masters-level training program for business education, particularly for teachers from General Organization of Technical Education and Vocational Training, with 550 training hours. The IPA also executed that same year an executive secretarial program for the Saudi Arabian Petrochemical Corporation, with 234 training hours. The following table shows the number of trainees in Special Preparatory Programs at the headquarters during 2003.

Figure 6 shows the number of graduates from Special Preparatory Programs during the last five training years.

Table 12: Distribution of graduates from special preparatory programs for 2003

Place	Number of Programs	Trainees Admitted	Trainees Enrolled	Trainees Passed
Headquarter	8	158	144	143

(Source: IPA Objectives and Activities 2003).



(Source: The IPA Achievements 2003).

<u>Higher Administrative Development Programs</u>

These programs attempt to enhance the abilities of employees who hold higher administrative positions, in both government and private sectors, by providing them with the latest information available in the field of administration. This information addresses the administrative problems they encounter, and offers solutions for those problems. These programs use methods such as seminars, applied workshops and symposiums to address problems and to explore new trends in administration.

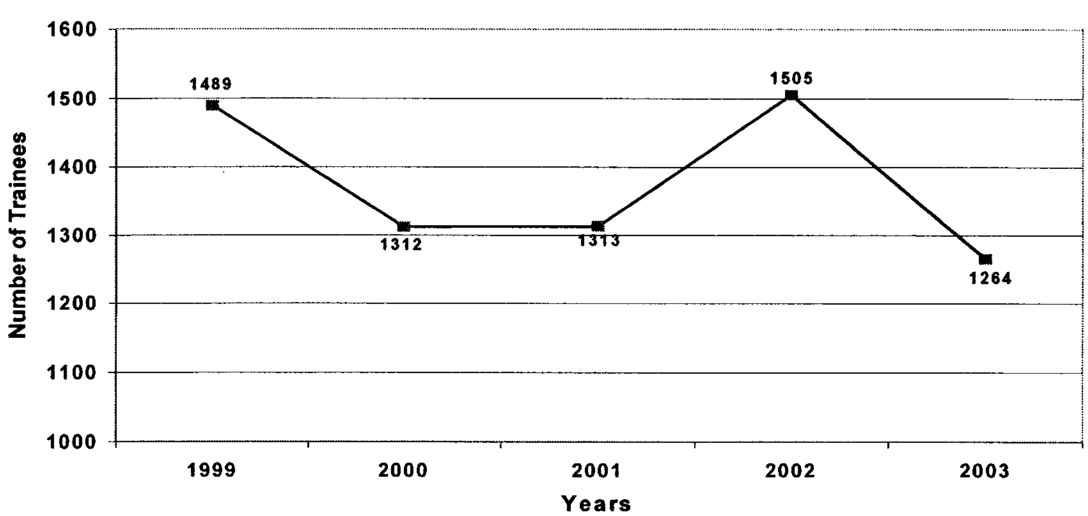
The IPA hosted half a dozen symposiums and meetings in 2003, with the number of participants attending totaling 1180. For higher administrators in the government, the IPA provides short-term workshops (three to five days in length), whose objective is to provide a pleasant atmosphere where employees can become familiar with new trends in modern administration, exchange viewpoints and proposals, and share expertise in their various fields. Current workshops total 60 per year and are expected to increase in number, due to the increasing demand for this type of training. For example, in 2003 the IPA made available many workshops in conflict management, time management, decision making, strategic planning, leadership and innovation, total quality management, international trade, work stress management, and information security, with a minimum of 18 training hours for each workshop. Listed in the following table are the number of Applied Workshops held, number of benefiting institutions, and the number of participants during training for 2003. Figure 7 indicates the number of participants in Applied Workshops during the last five training years.

Table 13: Number of workshops, beneficiaries, and participants in higher administrative development programs during 2003.

Place	Number of Applied Workshops	Number of Benefiting Institutions	Number of Participants
Headquarter in Riyadh	30	181	608
Dammam	17	82	299
Jeddah	12	52	180
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	10	10	177
Total	69	325	1264

(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

Figure 7: The number of participants in applied workshops in the past five training years



(Source: The IPA Achievements 2003).

Research Activity

Through scientific research involving administrative issues, the IPA attempts to diagnose problems and formulate appropriate solutions. To serve administrative development in the Kingdom, the Research Center publishes materials, augmenting the Saudi library and the general Arab library with books, translations, field research, administrative studies and expert scientific articles in the sphere of public administration and other pertinent areas, which include accounting, law, economics, health administration, and various administrative technologies. Specialized committees and bodies headed by the Deputy Director General for Research and Information supervise the research activities at the IPA. The Research Center has several functions; besides executing the decisions of its committees, it also provides technical and administrative support for researchers, authors and translators, following the trail of scientific works until their publication. These scientific works are produced not only by IPA training faculty, but also by a great number of academics and practitioners in scientific and educational institutions across the Arab states.

Full-time researchers at the Research Center conduct field projects dealing with general administrative research, as well as specialized administrative studies to aid specific government bodies. The Center also hires full-time translators who translate distinguished modern foreign publications in various administration fields. A group of specialists also provides technical support for researchers within the Center and without. The IPA's *Public Administration Journal* is a professionally edited quarterly renowned as a principal vehicle for publishing specialized research, scientific articles, and critiques of outstanding books and synopses composed by select researchers and practitioners inside the Kingdom and abroad.

In accordance with its pioneering role in administrative publishing, the IPA devotes its scientific publications to Arab institutions and research centers. The IPA promotes and adopts efficient methods for managing scientific research processes and the introduction of organizational culture characterized by distinct methodology and procedures, and makes this organizational methodology available to beneficiary bodies and individuals.

The Research Center seeks to promote the IPA's goals in scientific research by encouraging and supporting scientific research. It also fosters modern administrative thinking in the areas of administration and development throughout the Kingdom, and fulfills the needs of the general Arab administrative library. Such a task can only be achieved by undertaking a scientific study of administrative problems in governmental departments so as to discover scientific solutions, upgrade performance levels and enhance productivity levels. Conducting scientific research is also integral to the writing of books, the preparation of field studies, and the translation of newly discerned administrative thinking and theories into Arabic. Along with all these things scientific conferences, seminars and meetings must be activated.

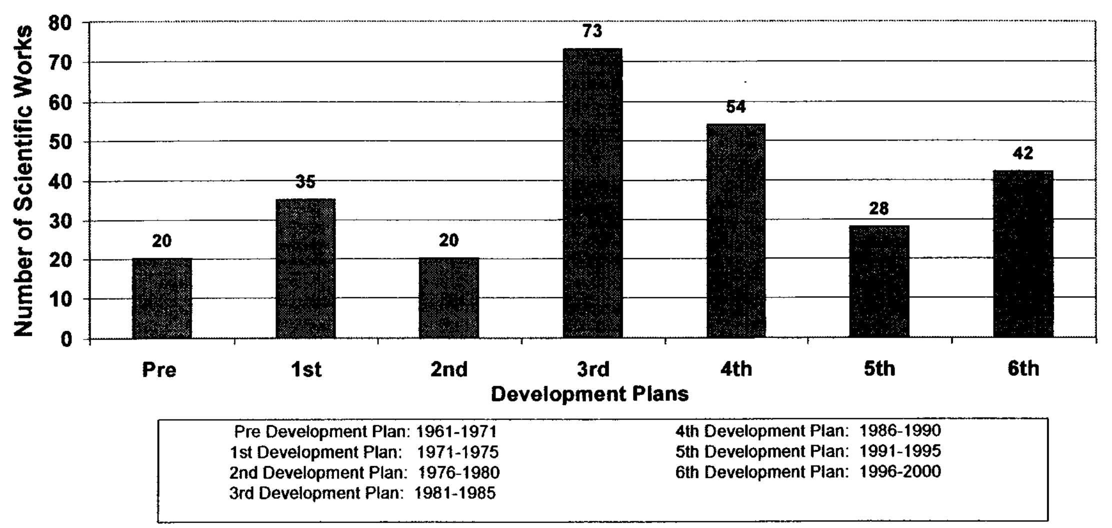
The IPA provides services such as library services, computer facilities, and technical consultations for the researchers in order to enhance the role of research and upgrade its competence. As previously mentioned, the Research Center also publishes *Public Administration Journal*, a professional quarterly journal dedicated to airing administrative articles, research and studies that address various administrative development issues. An example of IPA-published books during 2002 is *The Sources of Work Stress of Physicians in Riyadh's Public and Private Hospitals*, and *Current Saudi Book: A Descriptive and Analytical Approach.* A few titles of books translated during the same year are the *Society Beyond Capitalism; Achieving Total Quality Management In Health Care; Modern Organizations: Studies in Postmodern Organizations; Education: Its Principles and Applications*. The following table lists the Research Center's accomplishments during 2003. Figures 8 and 9 indicate the number of scientific works accomplished during the development plans and during the last five training years.

Table 14: Scientific works accomplished during the training year 2003

Type of work	Number
Books (writing)	3
Field research papers	5
Books translated	8
Administrative studies	1
Total	17
Articles published in the Public Administration Journal	20

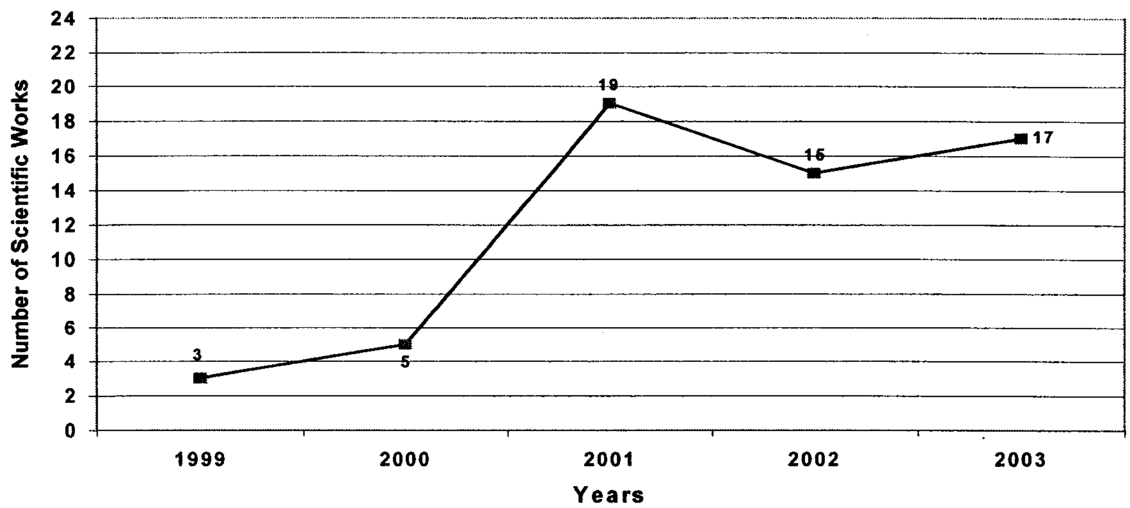
(Source: IPA's acheivments 2003).

Figure 8: Scientific works accomplished during the past development plans



(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

Figure 9: Scientific works accomplished during the past five training years



(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

Consultation Activities

Consultation activities at IPA can be approached from two directions: the administrative consultations prepared by the General Department for Consultations at IPA, and the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform.

The IPA's Administrative Consultations of the General Department for Consultations addresses problems that are faced by governmental agencies by:

1. Helping government agencies in promoting their structural build-up, so as to ensure proper performance of their assigned tasks and prevent any interference or duplication of implementing such tasks.

2. Helping government agencies in drawing up draft statutes needed for work performance.

3. Helping government agencies in modifying and promoting work procedures according to the modern practices in financial allocation, manpower, equipment and technologies.

4. Helping government agencies to select office equipment and technology appropriate to task nature, work sites and financial allocations.

In 1962, the IPA began providing its first consultation to beneficiary agencies; the number of consultations provided has ultimately totaled 1,300. The IPA's Department of Consultations provides adequately qualified consultants in (1) organizational structures and manuals, (2) in-house regulations, (3) procedures and models, (4) equipment and technology, (5) law, (6) computers, (7) administrative behavior, (8) manpower and personnel, (9) finance and accounting, (10) libraries, (11) and materials management.

When an agency wishes to obtain a consultant service, the beneficiary addresses a letter of request to IPA's Director General outlining its needs. The IPA then assigns a task team, which submits a report on the requested consultation. The role of IPA is not confined only to providing the consultation, but also extends to helping the beneficiary agencies apply solutions if it so desires.

As for the General Secretariat of the Senior Committee for Administrative Reform, it was founded by Decision Number 2, dated 1963, of the senior Committee for Administrative Reform, which stated that the Committee Secretariat office will include two IPA employees in addition to an IPA expert on public administration who works as an adviser at the Secretariat. The following tasks are responsibilities of the Secretariat:

- To take minutes of sessions and record remarks, to organize files and papers, and to perform all other secretarial tasks.
- To prepare documents, data and information relevant to the Committee.
- To contact ministry and departmental officials whom the Committee wishes to invite and/or inform about the purpose of a meeting.
- To prepare reports and studies submitted to the Senior and Preparatory Committees.
- To make field visits to ministries and government offices, with the purpose of collecting more data and acknowledging the viewpoints of specialists.
- To prepare decisions of the Senior Committee for Administrative Reform for submission to the Royal authorities.

Saudi specialists who are part of the IPA faculty also take part in other IPA activities and serve under the General Secretariat of the Senior Committee for Administrative Reform and its Preparatory Administrative Committee. This reform committee was formed in 1963 and has served to advance administrative reform within the Kingdom. To that end, the Secretariat conducted 387 studies as of the year 2000 during the Sixth Development Plan.

The General Secretariat submits its studies to the Senior and Preparatory Administrative Committees. The topics of these studies may originate from:

1. Directives of the Royal Authorities, the Cabinet of the General Committee.

2. Ministries and other government offices and organizations (the primary source of topics submitted for study).

3. The Deputy Head of the Senior Committee for Administrative Reform, Head of the Preparatory Administrative Committee, or by either the Senior or Preparatory Administrative Committees.

4. Citizens who wish to reform work procedures and methods.

The efforts made in the Saudi Kingdom toward administrative reforms were brought about by Royal Decree 7/b/6629, what would become known as the Ministerial Committee of Administrative Organization. This committee is headed by the Second Deputy Premier and is charged with the study of the Administrative Structure of State Institutions and Employees Statute. Their task is to study and keep track of job volume, employees and their needs, department sizes as related to the task they are given, and the grades and ranks within these departments.

The Ministerial Committee of Administrative Operation also works with a sub-ministerial committee directed by the Minister of Civil Service. It is charged with examining and making recommendations on any topic that is relevant to the authority of the Ministerial Committee.

The Director General of the IPA heads a committee, which studies all topics that are submitted by the General Secretariat, then, in turn, submits reports to the sub-ministerial committee. In 2001 the Ministerial Committee for Administrative Organization took on a nationwide project to regulate state organizations. The project is slated to run for three years and will deal with matters such as personnel, jobs, regulations, finance and privatization as strategic options.

To aid the Ministerial Committee, the Secretariat Committee outlined tasks of the Secretariat and the Secretary General, appointed a project manager, and created two teams to oversee project assignments and studies. One team oversees planning and follow-up, and the other team provides administrative support.

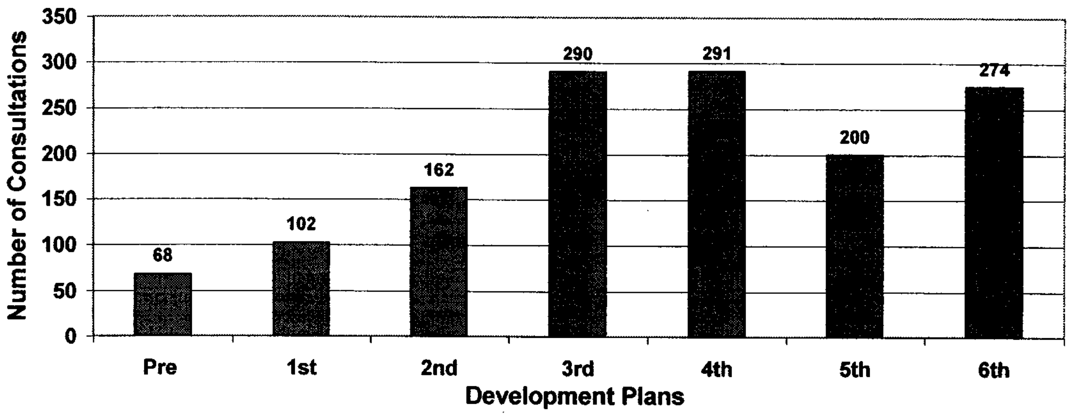
According to Article 2 of the IPA Statute, the Institute is responsible for developing and improving the government's administrative agencies, and it is the General Department of Consultations at IPA that offers specialized administrative consultations to ministries, public institutions, and corporations following their requests, so as to improve their performance and simplify their working procedures. These consultations involve various areas, ranging from law and statutes to organization, office management, computing, and microfilm. For example, the IPA during 2003 helped to reorganize the planning department at the King Fahad Academy for Security, and the IPA conducted a consultation for reorganizing the documentation department at the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs. The following table shows the IPA's achievements in Administrative Consultation Studies during 2003, while Figures 10 and 11 show the achievements during past Development Plans.

Table 15: Number of completed consultations and continuing consultations in 2003

Place	Number of studies achieved	Percent
Headquarters, Riyadh	23	30.2
Dammam	19	25.0
Jeddah	16	21.1
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	18	23.7
Total	76	100.0

(Source: The IPA objectives and activities 2003)

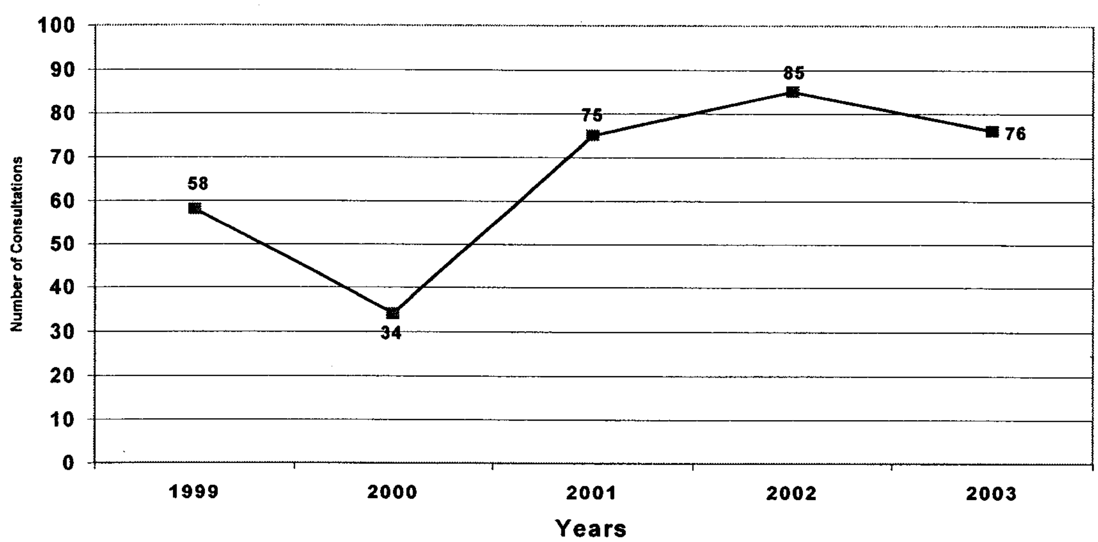
Figure 10: Number of consultations made during the past development plans



Pre Development Plan: 1961-1971	4th Development Plan: 1986-1990
1st Development Plan: 1971-1975	5th Development Plan: 1991-1995
2nd Development Plan: 1976-1980	6th Development Plan: 1996-2000
3rd Development Plan: 1981-1985	

(Source: The IPA Achievements 2002).

Figure 11: Number of consultations made during the past five training years



(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

Administrative Documentation Activities

The IPA has developed information and administrative documentation as a basis for administrative development in the Kingdom. The responsibility for this task is assumed by the Department for Libraries and Documents and related departments (Central Library, Documents and Archives Center, as well as branch libraries).

The IPA in Riyadh houses the Kingdom's largest library, the Central Library, which specializes in administrative science and other related topics. These subjects include such things as law, accounting, mass media, computing, economics, information, and libraries just to name a few. The services of this library are available to specialists and researchers and it offers Internet services and makes databases available to them. IPA employees can also use the support services that are available such as making copies, borrowing, and update services.

The Documents and Archives Center collects, organizes and records official administrative documents from inside or outside IPA, and provides the Saudi official Documents Database—the first Arab bibliography of official documents. This database is used by the IPA branches and a large number of government bodies Kingdom-wide. Documentation-particularly administrative documentation-is an important activity of IPA. Paragraph 3 of the IPA statute stipulates that a main concern of IPA is "to collect and categorize administrative documents in the Kingdom so as to be available to ministries and government departments as well as relevant experts and researchers."

Among the documentations of importance is the government's collection of documents. It was important that this collection be properly classified and maintained. It is also important that it be accessible. This collection of documents is processed by computer and on microfilm. The government collection contains: royal decrees, ministerial decisions, laws, Civil Service directives, recommendations of the Shura Council, decisions made by the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform, decisions and executive documents of governmental agencies, as well as regulations, treaties and regulations of the Saudi Kingdom. Government agencies can access this collection directly though the computerized documentation system. Table 16 shows the number of added items to the documentation center in 2003.

Table 16: Number of added items to the documentation center during 2003

Government Documents:	Number added
Council of Ministers Decisions	336
Royal Decrees and Directives	227
Resolutions and Circulars	168
Civil Service Decisions	13
Rules and Regulations	35
Total	779

(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

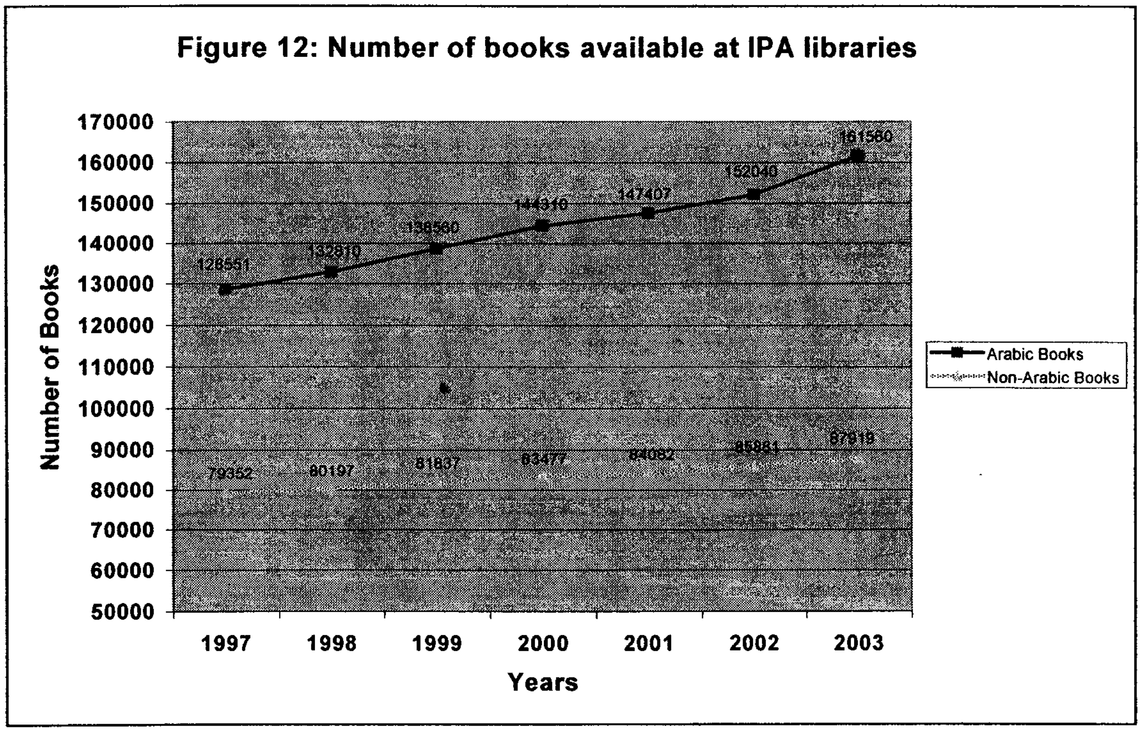
Libraries and Documentation

At both the headquarters and the branches, the IPA actively collects and classifies information in administrative and other relevant sciences, including law, economics, statistics, health, and education, among others. Reference books, general books, theses, booklets, periodicals, audio-visuals and microfilms are housed in these libraries. The following table shows the accessions to IPA libraries in 2003 in the headquarters and branches. Figure 12 shows the number of English and Arabic books that are available at the IPAs' libraries during the last seven years.

Table 17: Number of books and journals added to IPA libraries in 2003 in the headquarters and branches

Accessions/library	HQ Riyadh	Dammam	Jeddah	Women's Branch
Books (in Arabic)	6595	1041	1143	741
Books (in other languages)	900	405	411	322
Subscriptions in Arabic journals & periodicals	330	125	132	125
Subscriptions in non-Arabic journals & periodicals Hardcopy	30	8	8	5
Subscriptions in non-Arabic journals & periodicals CD	1616	0	0	0
Official Publications - Arabic	814	82	147	134
Official Publications Non-Arabic	137	0	0	0
Database on CDs	3	3	3	3
Database on Internet	5	5	5	5
Microfilms	195	195	195	195

(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).



(Source: The IPA objectives and activities 2003).

Quality at the Institute of Public Administration

In 1998, in order to meet modern standards of administrators regarding efficient and increased production, reduced costs, and increasing client satisfaction, in an integrated mistake-proof format, the IPA introduced a Quality Unit. This unit was intended to improve the quality of executive services through such things as seminars, workshops, conferences, consultation, research and documentation. They were also charged with following up on various activities to ensure that approved criteria and regulations were followed. The Quality Board, under the supervision of the IPA's Director General and various senior officials, was put in place to oversee quality programs and applications. Another of its duties is to help trainers to determine the effectiveness of their training programs. They are also in charge of creating an integrated system to assess the various programs, as well as evaluating the impact of the training on various agencies. This board also must follow up on program results regarding trainees and receiving agencies, and produce reports of the results.

Planning and Development in the Institute of Public Administration

It is the job of the Planning and Development Department to oversee any planning and/or development studies and their attendant activities. They are responsible for the various reports and statistics required and also for the follow-up on the IPA's annual and five-year plan. It is the job of this department to see that there is sufficient manpower available for the IPA's needs through the offer of scholarships and training. They are also charged with the duties of streamlining procedures and making sure the office has updated equipment as needed. It also functions as a sort of liaison between the IPA and other institutions at the local, regional and international levels and with other Arab organizations. Table 18 and 19 indicates the various training efforts and scholarships awarded in 2003. Both Figures 13 and 14 show that the total number of scholarships the IPA offered for its faculty up to the year 2003 equaled a total of 768 scholarships.

Table 18: Number of IPA staff trained during 2003

Profession	Number
Training staff	284
Administrators and Technicians	76
Total staff Trained	360

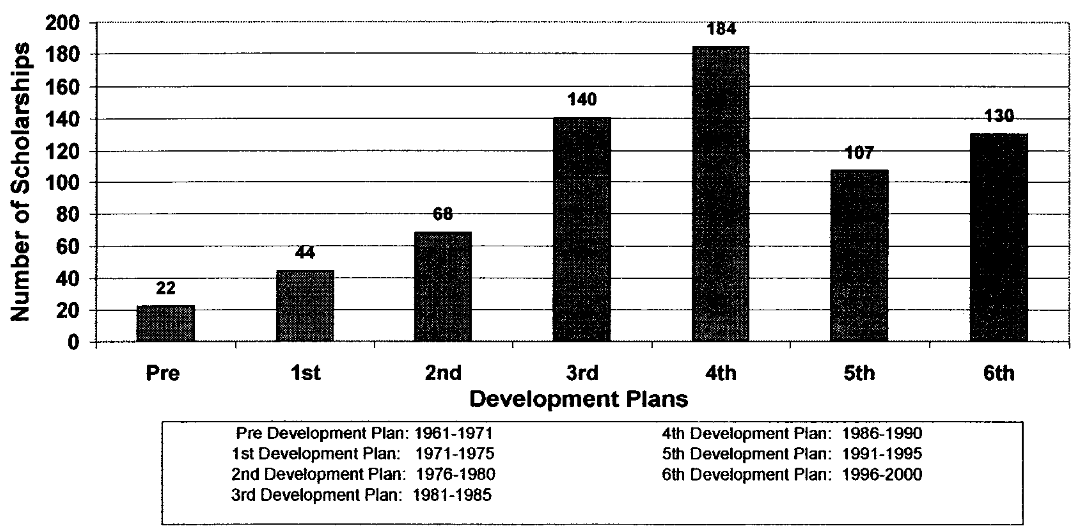
(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

Table 19: Number of faculty sent on scholarship to pursue postgraduate studies, number returned from scholarships and number appointed in 2003

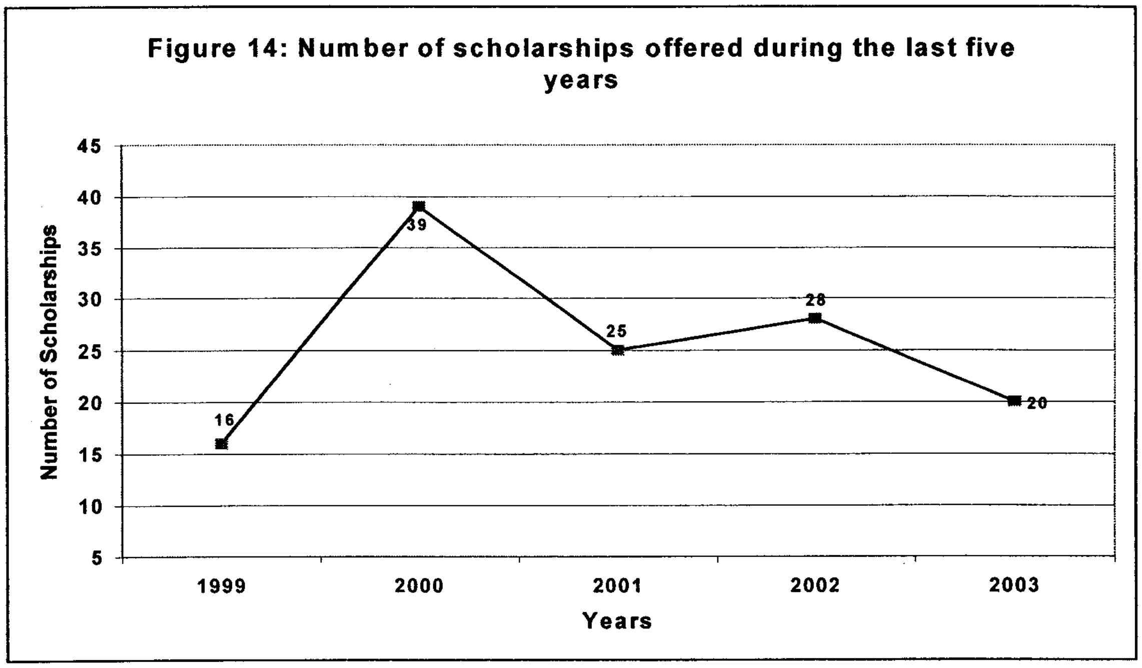
	Masters	PhD	Total
Dispatched to pursue graduate studies	17	3	20
Returned from Scholarships	22	5	27
Assistant Trainees appointed.	0	0	20

(Source: IPA's Objectives and Activities 2003).

Figure 2.13: Number of Scholarships Offered at the IPA before and during The last six Development Plans



(Source: IPA's Activities and Objectives 2002).



(Source: The IPA objectives and activities 2003).

The following table shows the number of faculty based on their affiliated training department at the IPA.

Table 20: Distribution of faculty according to their affiliated department in 2003

Number	Training Department	Saudis	Non-Saudis	Total
1	Public Administration	72	1	73
2	Accounting	41	2	43
3	Personnel Affairs	16	0	16
4	Material Management	13	0	13
5	Economics and Budgeting	10	5	15
6	Engineering and Project Management	14	2	16
7	Library and Information Management	22	4	26
8	Communication and Public Relations	14	5	19
9	Training and Educational Programs	10	4	14
10	Statistics	13	7	20
11	Law	20	6	26
12	Health Administration	20	3	23
13	Organizational Behavior	27	1	26
14	Office Management	98	0	98
15	Computer	45	17	62
16	English Language	17	53	70
17	Private Sector Programs	17	7	24
18	Special Programs	1	0	1
Total		470	117	587

(Source: IPA's Annual Report 2003).

Culture and Values in the IPA

The IPA is unique among other Saudi public institutions, which shows in the performance of the IPA. It has been monitoring its own performance and has created in its workers a sense of responsibility toward their own work ethic. They work hard to accomplish IPA goals within good time frames and with quality results. The core values in place throughout the IPA are shared through continuing enforcement by upper management of the IPA.

The IPA also has a reputation for being very careful and precise in its recruiting and hiring practices. The IPA is known to contact the best and the brightest administrative students in Saudi universities. The IPA also looks for the best staff and faculty it can find by searching for the best available both nationally and internationally. They look for depth of knowledge as well as personality, communication skills and other skills it deems critical to doing the best job possible.

One aspect of its organization is the fact that management duties are rotated among the faculty on a bi-annual basis. This practice creates a faculty with practical experience to back up their knowledge and helps them to feel invested in the organization, therefore offering stronger development possibilities.

The faculty also use teamwork in their decision making processes. Each team is charged with solving problems, whether of long-or short-term nature. Such teamwork is applied to the most important activities such as consultations, research, and training. One example of this type of teamwork is found when a team is formed to address a certain type of training that needs to be planned. This three-member team will be one that specializes in that type of program, and then another team of the same number will execute the program.

The IPA also uses evaluation as part of its development process. It is constantly evaluating its various activities to discover any negative factors and to replace them with positive elements. These practices allow the IPA to remain current as new challenges and changes come to the workplace in both government and in the private arena.

CHAPTER III REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The goal of this study is to assess the organizational commitment among faculty members in Saudi Arabia's Institute of Public Administration, and how it is related to their demographics and job-related factors. Therefore, this chapter provides a review of research on organizational commitment. The literature review is organized into twelve sections. The first section gives a description of organizational commitment and how it is separated from other concepts such as job satisfaction that deals with employee's attitudes and behaviors in an organization. The second section focuses on the development of organizational commitment. The study utilizes the Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative), which is described in section three. Organizational commitment has its antecedents and consequences, which are the focus of sections four and five, respectively. Section six provides a review of recent studies that used the three-component model. Since the IPA is an educational organization setting, section seven reviews the organizational commitment in higher educational settings. Furthermore, the IPA is considered a multinational organization since it employs faculty members who come from different countries. Therefore, section eight talks about organizational commitment in cross-national settings. Section nine gives a review of the literature on the demographic variables related to organizational commitment that are employed in this study (age, nationality, gender, and education). As in section ten, section eleven provides a review of the literature relevant to the job-related factors that are examined in this study. These factors are occupational level, type of job, salary, and organizational tenure. Finally, section twelve sheds light on the organizational commitment research model for this study.

The Definitions of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has received a great deal of attention from researchers attempting to understand employee behavior. They are paying particular attention to job performance, employee commitment and the factors that cause an employee to choose to stay with an organization. According to Mowday, Steer, and Porter (1979), the factor that is the strongest and most stable predictor of turnover and absenteeism among employees is organizational commitment. Surprisingly, it is an even stronger indicator than is job satisfaction. One thing that makes a difference in such stability is the fact that job commitment is less influenced by things that take place each day within the job arena, while job satisfaction is subject to things that occur during the work day among co-workers or between employees and supervisors.

Organizational commitment is also a much broader concept than is job satisfaction. When dealing with job satisfaction, one considers the work environment, the scope of the job, and the work group involved. When considering organizational commitment, those things also come into play, along with the added aspects of organizational beliefs and values (Meyer and Allen, 1997). An example of the difference between job satisfaction and organizational commitment can be found in instances when an employee changes jobs and/or departments but remains within the organization. When an employee chooses to stay with an organization his behavior is referred to as citizenship behavior (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment means that the values and goals of both the organization and its employees are in accord with one another (Brockner, Tyler and Cooper-Schneider, 1992). Commitment of employees is important to organizations because a stable workforce is essential to an organization's ability to function effectively. Most research on organizational commitment has focused on one main area, which is affective commitment, yet it is a component that has many facets to it (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990; Dunham, Grube and Castaneda, 1994; Ko, Price and Mueller, 1997; Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993; Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). A further look into the research that has been done is important, but first it is necessary to define the term "commitment" and to look at the historical background of organizational commitment. While making an argument for continued research on commitment, there will also be development of theories and measures to test these concepts, which will be discussed.

In an investigation into job satisfaction, which was done by Becker (1960), organizational commitment was discussed (Warner, 1996). Romzek (1990) found the employees who were thought to be committed to their organizations were ones who identified with their organization and felt a sense of loyalty to it. They felt that the organizational mission, goals, and values were important ones; they also felt that those meshed well with their own values and ethical principles. Nahavandi (2000) also stated that "commitment happens when followers welcome the influence process and accept it as reasonable and legitimate."

Chelladurai (1999) defined organizational commitment as "the extent to which workers in an organization are committed to the organization, its goals and values, and its processes." Buchanan (1974) called organizational commitment "…a partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to these goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth." The focus of this definition is on how the employee relates to the goals and values of the organization. According to Mowday et al. (1982), organizational commitment can be found in how strongly a person identifies with and becomes involved in an organization. This involvement can be summed up in 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 strong desire to maintain membership in the organization."

According to Mowday et al. (1982), employee commitment consists of some important social links to the organization; they felt that to be true not just for the individual, but for the whole of society as well. Some consequences may be negative and some positive; the negative ones may be such things as employee turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, theft, or low productivity. It may also include positive behaviors that contribute to the success of the organization (Newstorm and Davis, 1997). Tyree (1996) stated that strong linkages normally manifest themselves in care for the well-being of another entity which goes beyond a mere calculation of the expected benefits to be gained. This is found particularly in the concept of organizational commitment, a key element of this study.

Buchannan (in citing Salancik, 1977) calls commitment "an additive function of three things: organizational identification, job involvement, and organizational loyalty." Commitment is ultimately defined as a bond or intrinsic attachment one has for something outside of oneself (Firestone and Pennell, 1993).

According to Brantley (1993), commitment is vital to any good organization, but it is very important to any type of service organization such as is found in educational organizations. The reason that is so lies in the fact that employee performance is more difficult to monitor, but client perception can be greatly influenced by even small differences in performance. According to Firestone and Pennell (1993), there are many factors involved in the inspection and control of faculty work. Among the factors to be considered is the level of difficulty involved in control and tracking performance, as well as varied differences in the expected outcomes. These factors make employee commitment critical in such an organization. Such levels of commitment are also a critical link to educational success. Researchers such as Hatton (1997) and Armon (1995) found a strong link between the commitment of the teacher and student success. While Hatton's work studied the elementary level and Armon's study was in higher education, they both found teacher commitment to be one of the most important factors in students' educational successes.

In summary, there has been little consensus regarding what the term "organizational commitment" means. There has been a distinction between organizational commitment and other concepts such as job satisfaction. The next section discusses the development of organizational commitment both conceptually and operationally.

Concept and Development of Organizational Commitment

There have been many definitions of organizational commitment over the years, and they have referred to the same, as well as different, constructs (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997). These variances in labeling have made it difficult to study organizational commitment. Organizational commitment, though defined in many ways, tends to be put into two main categories (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). One of these categories is referred to as attitudinal commitment, which is more evaluative in context. In this type of commitment one identifies with an organization's values and goals and stays within the organization in order to facilitate the organization's goals (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). The other category is behavioral commitment, which is a type that overtly manifests commitment by focusing on behaviors. The kinds of behaviors that can be seen in this type of commitment are found when an individual chooses to stay late at work with no compensation expected, or volunteers to help with organization-sponsored events, or invests in the organization pension plan. These behaviors are investments in sunken costs (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997).

When considering organizational commitment, it is important to remember that it is to be differentiated from commitment to such things as union, job involvement, or work groups, all of which are domain specific. According to Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), the two commitments, organizational and occupational, offer independent contributions to the prediction of behavior at work and the level of professional activity. Additionally, components of occupational commitment were found to be differentially related to antecedents of organizational commitment (Irving, Coleman, and Cooper, 1997; and

Meyer et al., 1993). While researching the Protestant work ethic, Blau (1987) discovered that in using his model of person-environment fit, it was effective in the prediction of job involvement, but did not work well in predicting organizational involvement. Due to this result, he came to the conclusion that job involvement and organizational commitment can be considered as two distinct constructs. The reason Blau's distinction was important was because, historically, it has been difficult to define organizational commitment; and as a result, some have argued that organizational commitment is not a construct. It was considered to simply be commitment to the employee's immediate work group, or just simple job involvement.

However, as cited in Irving et al. (1997), this is clearly not the case since Becker (1992) proposed that there are different types of commitment, which include commitment to the organization, workgroup, supervisors and senior management. Fullagar and Barling (1991) also did studies about commitment to unions. Employees can be committed to one or to all of these different groups. Hunt and Morgan (1994) decided, following their study, that due to the complexity of relationships found between global and constituency specific commitments, a hybrid concept of organizational commitment may be what is needed. We have come to have a better understanding of organizational commitment as a construct because of these and other such studies. The understanding gained allows us to be able to differentiate such commitment from other constructs that may be in some way related.

Most of the early research on organizational commitment was one dimensional in the way it conceptualized and measured the concept. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that most studies up until that time concentrated on one dimension, mostly due to the instruments used for measurement. This study will focus on two of several methods of measurement because they are the two most commonly employed in research relevant to the topic.

In an attempt to measure organizational commitment, Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). This questionnaire has been predominantly used since its inception with a high reliability coefficient of from .84 to .92 (Angle and Perry, 1981; Cooke, 1997; Elloy and Flynn, 1998; Hutchinson, 1997; Mowday, Steers, andPorter 1979; Naurman, 1993; Tett and Meyer, 1993; Verdi, 1994). This OQC is problematic in that it measures only one type of organizational commitment, mainly affective commitment (Dunham, 1994). It is possible that inferences made may be of a limited nature. Since the OCQ addresses affective commitment, it has no capability for discovering or confirming any type of commitment other than affective commitment. This limitation inherent in the QCQ may limit the ability of the researchers to portray the whole scope of one's commitment to an organization.

One example of this may be found in studies involving male and female managers. There is evidence that female managers exhibit lower levels of organizational commitment than do male managers; they are more likely to leave an organization as a result (Rosin and Korabik, 1991; 1995). Due to the OQC limitations, it is possible that the sampled women may exhibit other types of organizational commitment which the OQC could not effectively measure. Such things as family situations, varied demographics, and alternatives available were not looked at as part of the studies by Rosin and Korabik (1991; 1995). It is suggested that these types of variables may be related to a type of commitment called continuance commitment, one of the three types recently identified (Dunham, et al., 1994, Price and Mueller, 1997; Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Through the years, there has been much research on the subject of organizational commitment, but there is still debate regarding how that commitment should be defined. Some researchers, such as O'Reilly and Chatman (1996), feel that, given commitment to an organization, which is a psychological bond between employee and the organization, there can be differences in the nature of that bond. Such bonding can take place in three distinct ways: internalization, identification, and compliance. Internalization occurs when a person has attitudes and behaviors that harmonize with those of the organization. Identification occurs when one accepts the influence of the organization and is interested in remaining in a relationship with the organization. In this type of commitment, though there is respect given to the values of the organization, there is no wish by the person to make those values his/her own. The third type, compliance, occurs when an individual adopts the same attitudes and behaviors to obtain certain rewards.

Some researchers felt that the psychological attachment of employees to their organizations was made up of different elements, which was shown by Meyer and Allen (1991) when they sided with the earlier study done by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). Meyer and Allen also felt that different types of commitment resulted in varying behavioral consequences. To test their theory, Allen and Meyer (1990) created the Work Preference Inventory in order to look into the construct validity of different types of commitment. In their work they found three components of organizational commitment: continuance, affective, and normative. The affective component of Allen and Meyer and the normative component of Caldwell and his associates (1990) correspond with each other. Different labels were used to denote the different psychological states given in other definitions of commitment categories (Meyer and Allen, 1997). At this point, this study will address the forms of commitment according to the labels applied by Allen and Meyer.

In summary, the concept of organizational commitment was introduced in the fifties and developed throughout the following decades. The development of the concept was parallel with a development in how the concept was put into operation. Porter, Modway, and Steers developed the first widely used Organizational Commitment Questionnaire in the mid seventies. This scale was limited to measuring only the attitudinal side of organizational commitment, which encouraged Meyer and Allen (1991) to develop a three-component model of organizational commitment. This model includes both attitudinal and behavioral aspects of commitment. The next section describes Meyer and Allen's three-component model.

Components and Types of Organizational Commitment

Research by a number of scholars has offered varied definitions of organizational commitment, which are usually categorized so as to more clearly understand what organizational commitment means.

Another set of categories was set forth in the research of Reichers (1985). He divided the concept of organizational commitment into three categories: side-bets, attributions, and individual/organization goal congruence. In side-bets, commitment is a function of the reward and cost related to organizational members; that is, commitment increases as tenure increases. In the category of attributions, commitment is a combination of individuality and behavior in a volitional, explicit, and irrevocable manner. In the category of individual/organizational goal congruence, commitment occurs when an individual recognizes and exerts effort toward achieving that goal. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), developed by Porter and his colleagues, is the primary application of this definition (Reicher, 1985).

In the work of Johnston et al. (1990) organizational commitment was divided into concepts of behavior and attitude. In one viewpoint, commitment "is viewed primarily as a function of individual behavior and individuals are postulated to become committed to the organization through their actions and choices over time." Another viewpoint says that commitment "is thought to develop when people begin to identify with an organization and are willing to exert effort toward organizational goals and values. Stated differently, commitment is viewed as a more active and positive attitude toward the organization."

In their research, Meyer and Allen (1997) separated organizational commitment into three categories, which they referred to as affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment was said to refer to an "employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization." In other words, an employee has a deep commitment to the organization because it is what they desire. They said that continuance commitment was an "awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization." This type of commitment is maintained because it meets a need. The third type, normative commitment, exists when there is a "feeling of obligation to continue employment." In other words, employees feel they should stay with the organization.

The three-component model of Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991) will be used for this study of organizational commitment. It is their position that commitments are experienced simultaneously and are due to emotion (affective), cost (continuance commitment), or obligation (normative commitment). They felt that the study of organizational commitment should look at all three types simultaneously (1997).

Researchers disagreed with the premise of Meyer and Allen, however, and felt that the three different concepts of commitment developed from different causes. Based on these concepts, researchers used the measures developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), and for the most part confirmed that there are differences in the backgrounds and/or outcomes of the component construct (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Dunham, Grube, and Castenada, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993; Randal, Fedor, and Longnecker, 1990).

Affective Commitment

As stated above, "affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so" (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The existing characteristics that influence the development of affective commitment are personal and organizational characteristics, as well as work experiences. Some support has been found for the influence of organizational variables on affective commitment. Dunham and his colleagues (1994) used the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter et al., 1974) and Allen and Meyer's

(1990) Work Preference Inventory to investigate antecedents of the different types of commitment and found that affective commitment was positively correlated with participatory management practices, organizational dependability, and the five job dimensions (autonomy, feedback, task identity, task significance and task variety) represented in the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). Meyer and Allen (1995) supported these findings with findings from their own study indicating that employees' perceptions of work characteristics were related to their affective reactions to the organization.

Normative Commitment

"Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization" (Meyer and Allen, 1991 p. 67). Though there has been no adequate identification of the antecedents of normative commitment, the feeling of obligation that an employee feels seems to come about as a result of things done for the employee by the organization. The things that have been done are ones seen as difficult to reciprocate, and thus create a sense of obligation to the organization. Examples of this are support at a time of need, tuition that is reimbursed and other types of support offered. Though it is suggested that socialization in one's organization may have some influence on normative commitment, there has been no support for the antecedents studied (Dunham, Grube and Castaneda, 1994). Among the antecedents in the study were intent to stay with the organization and a commitment to one's co-workers, but none appeared appropriate to normative commitment. The consequences of normative commitment and affective commitment have paralleled each other in that both show a positive relationship to self-reported performance measures (Meyer and Allen, 1997). The measurement of normative commitment is problematic due to the high degree of correlation with affective commitment (Dunham, Grube and Castaneda, 1994).

Continuance Commitment

"Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so" (Meyer and Allen. 1991, p. 67). An employee stands to lose such things as tenure and retirement plans, as well as other things such as psychological investments made within the company.

When Meyer and Allen (1984) studied the side-bet theory of motivation put forth by Becker (1960), they came to the conclusion that studies had not been adequate because only the affective component of commitment had been studied. In looking at side-bets, it was determined that employees engage in these with their organization, and that side-bets consists of any item valued by the employee that would be lost upon quitting the organization. Side-bets can include money, time and effort, but their relationship to commitment has not been adequately explored. As demonstrated with Becker's theory, only affective commitment had been measured. It is thought that with continuance commitment, employees stay with an organization so they won't lose the investments they have made; thus there will be a higher level of continuance commitment according to the number of side-bets. Along with side-bets, there is also a lack of alternatives that is a factor of continuance commitment.

In summary, Meyer and Allen's three-component model will be utilized in this study because it measures the three types of organizational commitment. The next section reviews the antecedents of organizational commitment.

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

When researchers reviewed the literature, they found there are four kinds of organizational commitment antecedents. These antecedents are: job characteristics, personal demographics/characteristics, work experiences, and organizational characteristics. The focus was on personal demographics and job-related factors as antecedents of organizational commitment (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990; Dunham, Grube and Castaneda, 1994; Ko, Price and Mueller, 1997; Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993; Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). Steers (1977), when looking at antecedents and outcomes involving organizational commitment, determined that personal characteristics were made up of variables that define one demographically. His explanation for the relationship between commitment and demographic variables was that commitment was an exchange. Personal characteristics are related to organizational commitment in a very significant way. The more common personal characteristics are education, tenure, pay, age, gender, and education levels.

Steers (1977) argued that given the ability of analyzing the findings of other studies, it can be inferred that the variables may be fairly stable antecedents of organizational commitment. Employee age and organizational commitment levels were found to be positively related (Al-Meer, 1989; Chohen, 1993; Cohen and Gattiker, 1992; DeCotiss and Summers, 1987; Hunt and Morgan, 1994; Oliver, 1990; Salanick, 1977; and Steers, 1977). The explanation for this, according to Becker (1960), is that as employees age, they have also invested in their organizations; therefore they must carefully calculate the cost of staying or leaving the organization and what each would mean to them. March and Simon (1958) said that, given increasing age, opportunities become less and less, resulting in limited options and alternatives. This decreases the employee's ability to look for alternatives, which in turn increases his or her psychological attachment to the employing organization.

The findings of Angle and Perry (1983), Glisson and Durick (1988), Mottaz (1989), and Sager and Johnston (1989) showed a negative relationship between the level of education and the organizational commitment of employees. Ritzer and Trice (1996), however, provided a logical explanation for the negative relationship between the level of education of employees and their commitment: they believed that employees with a low level of education have fewer opportunities outside their organizations and, therefore, tend to stay with their current organizations, with their levels of commitment eventually increasing. Employees with a high level of education have many employment alternatives that can influence their psychological attachment to the organization, and their intentions to leave the organization eventually increase. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) provided another explanation by stating that more highly educated employees have expectations that the organization may be unable to fulfill, and therefore they leave it.

Job pay is one of the most investigated antecedents of organizational commitment; Cogen and Gattiker (1994) and Sager (1991) found that pay is a predictor of an employee's commitment. Many researchers agreed that a difference in an employee's pay translates to a difference in the level of his/her organizational commitment. Employees with high pay may demonstrate higher levels of organizational commitment than employees with low pay. According to Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, pay is viewed as a personal investment by an employee; thus, high-pay employees tend to have a greater intention to stay with their organization than low-pay employees. To maintain and increase their high-pay status, employees remain with their organizations.

The difference in tenure is associated with the attachment variables (Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly, 1992), and may influence employees' levels of organizational commitment. The greater the tenure, the more the individual becomes psychologically committed to his or her organization; the length of service of an employee has influence on his or her intention to stay with the organization. In short, the difference in tenure of employees can influence the difference in their level of organizational commitment.

Shore (1995) found that the antecedents of organizational commitment were distinguished from organizational citizenship, demographic characteristics and job performance. They discovered a negative correlation between manager-rated continuance commitment and education. They also found a positive correlation between manager-rated continuance commitment and both job and organizational tenure, as well as age. They felt that there might be a higher level of occupational continuance commitment given greater levels of education because that may be seen as an investment in the occupation. The investment in education may lead to better skills that are of greater value to the organization.

Buchko et al. (1998) found that antecedents of organizational commitment included demographic variables of age, education, tenure, and job level. They concluded that age and tenure were significant and positively correlated with organizational commitment but that education and job level were not significantly correlated with organizational commitment.

The findings of Lee, Ashford, Walsh, and Mowday (1992) and Randall (1993) supported the premise that the personal characteristics individuals bring to organizations help shape subsequent work attitudes and behaviors during organizational entry, and they explained how personal demographics affect subsequent work attitudes and behaviors; the difference in job-based variables of employees also plays a major role in their levels of commitment to their organization.

In summary, the findings of all of the studies reviewed above supported the notion that both demographics and job-related factors help shape subsequent work attitudes and behaviors during organizational entry. They explain how the variation in those variables plays a major role in the employee level of commitment to an organization. The next section explains the consequences of organizational commitment and how it is related to the outcomes of an organization.

The Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that organizational commitment does not have much influence on performance. In considering withdrawal, they discovered a greater correlation between commitment and two intentions: (a) the intent to look for other job alternatives and (b) the intent to quit one's job. Hochwater et al. (1999) concluded that turnover intent increased with a decrease in organizational commitment. He also showed that when commitment increases, this tends to diminish the relationship between organizational politics and turnover intentions.

Buchko et al. (1998) studied the consequences of organizational commitment, with emphasis on performance outcomes and withdrawal behavior. Not surprisingly, they found a significant negative correlation between turnover intent and organizational commitment, suggesting that the workers they studied who had high levels of organizational commitment were more likely to remain with an organization. However, high unemployment and limited job opportunities in the area where the study was conducted (Russia) did create more turnover intention but did not necessarily lead to organizational exit. Lester et al. (2000) pointed out that the larger the gap between supervisors and their subordinates, the less organizational commitment to their organization existed. Mathieu and Kohler (1990) examined drivers' organizational commitment and found that among drivers with low organizational commitment and high job involvement, personal absences were the greatest factor.

It is recognized that an employee's commitment to an organization can be expressed in three particular ways: affective, continuance, and normative (Herscovitch, 2002). Each type of commitment ties to some degree the individual to the organization; however, each has a different impact on the manner in which the employee conducts him/herself in the workplace. For example, an employee with an affective commitment will often go above and beyond what is required of his/her position so that he/she may assist the organization in meeting its goals. These employees also tend to be absent from work less frequently and display a higher work motivation and organizational citizenship (McShane, 2001). Continuance commitment, however, is negatively related to performance; these employees tend to do only what is required of them, and they have higher rates of absenteeism and low motivation (Johns and Saks, 1996).

As a consequence of organizational commitment, absenteeism is negatively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment of employees; the higher the level of commitment of employees to their work organization, the less they are absent from their work (Clegg, 1983; Cotton and Tuttle,1986). Moreover, a high level of commitment is more likely to reduce turnover (Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1991; Bluedorn, 1982; Halaby and Weakliem, 1989; Price and Mueller, 1986). This is why some researchers, including Koch and Steers (1978) and Steers (1977), believed that organizational commitment is a better predictor of the turnover of employees than is job satisfaction. Clearly and consistently, the findings of Porter et al. (1974) revealed that the organizational commitment of employees decreases prior to their turnover.

Somers (1995) indicated that there is a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and both turnover and absenteeism. Commitment is strongly related to leaving the organization and withdrawal intentions. These findings are consistent with prior studies such as those of Jaros et al., (1993); Mathieu and Zajac, (1990); and Randall, (1990). Other outcomes of organizational commitment are attendance, participation, quality and quantity of work, tardiness, effort, hours worked, organizational effectiveness, and even operating expenses (Perry, 1981; Blau, 1986; Chelte and Tausky, 1986; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Jenner, 1984; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Zahra, 1984).

Angle and Perry (1981) found a significant positive relationship between overall organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. In their study, they measured organizational effectiveness using operating expenses as an indicator of effectiveness. They also argued that organizational commitment is significantly and positively related to organizational adaptability. Verma and McKersie's (1987) study showed a strong relationship between organizational commitment and employees' productivity improvement; that is, employees' high levels of organizational commitment increase their organizational productivity.

Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) found that employees who are effectively committed to the organization perform at a higher level than those who are not. Some investigators, such as Mathiew and Zajac (1990) and Randall (1990), discovered a significant linkage between organizational commitment and the performance of employees and, according to Angle and Perry (1981) and Blau (1986), tardiness is negatively correlated with commitment. Chow (1984) suggested that commitment leads to the desire to stay in the organization, a reduction in absenteeism, an increase in performance, an increase in organizational membership and identity, and the intention to be involved in the organization. Consistently, researchers found that organizational commitment is a reliable predictor of the work outcomes of turnover, absenteeism, and performance.

Walton (1999) suggested that many manufacturing companies, especially in the United States, have shifted from the traditional approach in managing their workforce to a commitment-strategy approach, which focuses on a broader job design that enhances the employees' commitment to the organization. Teamwork and participation by employees in the planning and implementation of organizational strategy are encouraged by top management, in an effort to connect employees to their organizations. Walton concluded that hierarchical levels have been removed or reduced in some successful companies, which also adopted the relatively new approaches of stock ownership and profit sharing of their economic gains with their employees. These new trends are structured so as to augment employees' commitment to the organization.

A low turnover of employees, reduction in operating and support personnel costs, and the development of human skills and individual self-esteem demonstrate the benefits of the commitment-oriented approach (Walton, 1999). Elliot and Hall (1994) suggested another way to improve employees' commitment to the organization through the formalization of work activities, including rules, procedures, and policies, so that the company's mission, goals, and values are clearly explicit. They hypothesized that management should effectively define, communicate, institutionalize, and reward employees' organizational ethical values and desirable work behaviors.

Some researchers have suggested the integration of organizational commitment into the organization's culture, because the employees' culture(s) can influence their attitudes and behaviors toward organizational culture and their commitment to their organizations. With this approach, experts on organizational development must be able to predict certain attitudes and behaviors based on the patterns of organizational cultures, so that attitudes and behaviors that identify employees with their organization can be enhanced through organizational culture. This can be achieved by making the desirable attitudes and behaviors the core principle in the business mission of an organization (Lahiry, 1994).

Caldwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly (1990), Kanter (1968), Pascale (1985), and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) believed that commitment to an organization may be affected positively by specific socialization practices. These researchers agree that socialization processes could foster better understanding of organizational values, norms, and objectives and, subsequently, increase commitment. Pascale (1985) provided a useful approach by incorporating both recruitment and socialization issues into the content and process issues, arguing that organizations with effective recruitment and socialization programs should use a specific set of techniques, because organizational commitment is greatly influenced by recruitment and socialization.

Buchanan (1974) proposed that the social interaction of an employee with coworkers and superiors is important to building their commitment to the organization. He identified years of service in the organization and social interaction with peers or superiors as crucially relevant to commitment, and that managers have a great responsibility for enhancing the level of commitment of employees through different motivational methods.

He advocated the commitment of managers, which is essential for the survival and effectiveness of large work organizations because the fundamental responsibility of management is the maintenance of the organization in a healthy state.

In the matter of attendance, there is a positive though modest correlation between organizational commitment and attendance (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1990; Steers, 1977). However, it must be noted that some studies fail to differentiate between voluntary absenteeism and absenteeism that is beyond the employee's control; highly committed employees are less likely than marginally committed employees to be absent for reasons that they can control (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

"Turnover" researchers have consistently found an inverse relationship between affective organizational commitment and employee turnover (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986; McCaul, Hinsz, and McCaul, 1995). In a meta analysis involving 26 studies and 8197 subjects, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported a mean weighted correlation of -.283 between turnover and organizational commitment.

In summary, these studies showed that organizational commitment of employees is positively and strongly associated with their performance, output quantity and quality, and organizational membership and identity, but negatively and just as strongly associated with voluntary turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness. Clearly, organizational commitment affects many organizational outcomes. The next section discusses relevant studies that used Meyers and Allen's three-component model.

Organizational Commitment Studies

Armstrong-Stassen, Cameron, Mantler, and Horsburgh (2001) carried out a five-year longitudinal study to look at the reactions of nurses in the case of a merger between two hospitals. They studied the reactions in both the acquiring hospital and the acquired hospital. The data were collected from 146 nurses who were employed in the same hospital in 1997 as they were in 1992. The data were analyzed with ANCOVA. Nurses in both hospitals were found to have a significant amount of dissatisfaction after the merger, as compared to pre-merger satisfaction levels. There were decreases in levels of organizational commitment, organizational trust, and job satisfaction. A significant increase in turnover intent was also found. Nurses in the acquiring hospitals showed a deeper level of deterioration in attitudes toward their jobs in comparison to nurses in the acquired hospitals. Except for levels of organizational commitment, this deterioration also showed an increase in intent to leave.

Bartlett (2001) compared the relationship between different attitudes of employees concerning training and organizational commitment. Social change was the basic theory used to study this relationship. Data was collected from 337 registered nurses from five public hospitals. The sources were three large hospitals located in large cities and two small hospitals serving predominantly rural communities. The data were analyzed using bivariate correlations and stepwise multiple regression analysis. This research strongly indicated that when an employee knows he has access to training programs, along with social support, with motivation for education and rewards gleaned from these elements, there is a positive attitude to organizational involvement and commitment.

In studying organizational commitment and its three-component model, it appears that the commitment relationships are the strongest with the affective form. Given the perception of access to training, there is moderation of the relationship between the affective form of organizational commitment due to job satisfaction; however, that is not the case with job involvement. There is a significant and positive relationship to affective commitment with training participation, but there is a negative relationship to continuance commitment. There is a positive relationship with training participation and its frequency only with affective commitment, which is measured by frequency, duration and organizational commitment.

Caron, Carson, Yallapragada, and Roe (2001) attempted to determine how important cooperation, both within-teams and across-departments, was to outcomes in the workplace. The sample consisted of 175 nursing department employees in a small rural hospital in a southeastern state. Other variables measured in this study were: across-department cooperation, justice, roles, job satisfaction, and workplace tension. The data were analyzed using Pearson's correlations and hierarchical regression analysis. There was more support across-departments than within-teams. Across-department cooperation was shown to have a positive association with procedural and interpersonal justice, as well as supervisor feedback and rating. It was also positive in connection with organizational commitment and job satisfaction, more than was found for within-team cooperation. There was a more negative association with across-department cooperation and ambiguity, conflict, and role overload. There was also a negative association with job tension and intent to withdraw from a job; however the correlation difference for distributive justice and for politics was insignificant.

Liao-Troth (2001) conducted a study to address the extension of research on paid employees to volunteer employees. Data were collected from 208 paid and volunteer workers in similar jobs in a single hospital setting to assess their job attitudes along the dimensions of the psychological contract, organizational commitment, and organizational justice. The data were analyzed with hierarchical regression analysis. With the exception of the age control variable, no significance was found to predict transactional or relational psychological contracts, fairness in dealing with each other, good faith, promises dealing with organizational working conditions, job characteristics intrinsic to the organization, and organizational promises. There is a significant relationship between organizational promises and the control variables of age, other paid jobs and race. Given the effects of control variables, benefits and being a paid employee showed a significantly high relationship. There was no significance shown that predicts affective commitment, with the exception of the age variable and having another volunteer job; but continuance organizational commitment showed a significant relationship to age and having another volunteer position. With the effect of control variables, there is still a significant relationship between continuance and being a paid employee.

Luchak and Gellatly (2001) examined employee organizational commitment and the incentive effects of employee final-earnings pension plans were investigated. Data were collected from 427 full-time employees in a large, unionized public utility company in the province of Ontario. Other variables in the study were pension accruals and alternative workplace practices. The data were analyzed using regression analysis. They showed there was an increase in continuance commitment with higher accruals within the pension plan, but there was reduction of affective commitment. The higher the pension accruals, the greater the commitment to the organization, which was due to the high cost leaving the organization would entail, rather than a strong identification with the organization. Other things that affected commitment were seniority, job satisfaction, premium wages, training received, and the effectiveness of alternate solutions.

The organizational commitment of staff nurses was the subject of a study by Spence, Laschinger, Finegan, and Shamian (2001), which looked at the impact of both organizational trust and empowering within the workplace and their levels of satisfaction in regard to organizational commitment. The sample consisted of 412 male and female registered nurses. Other variables in the study were perceptions of access to work empowerment structures, perception of formal power within the work environment, and perception of informal power within the work environment, and interpersonal trust at work. Structural equation modeling techniques were utilized to analyze the data. The study showed that such empowerment did influence nurses' trust of management, their job satisfaction and affective commitment levels. It also had an effect on their acceptance of the organization's values and goals, and the efforts they put forth. It also impacted their willingness to remain with an organization, i.e., affective commitment levels.

In a study exploring the relationship between organizational commitment, personal values and organizational values done by Finegan (2000), the degree of person-organizational fit and how that predicts commitment was investigated. Data were collected from 191 employees from a subsidiary plant of a large petrochemical company. The data were analyzed using principle component factor analysis and hierarchical regression analysis. The other variable in the study was values. The study found that how an employee views organizational values predicted the employee's commitment. When measured based on the bottom-line values, there was no prediction of affective commitment found. Given the values of vision and humanity, there was a prediction of normative commitment found. Employees showed more normative commitment the more an organization was seen to adopt these values. There was no significance found on bottom-line values for any of the predictors. It seemed that the more an employee placed a high value on being cautious, obedient, and having a degree of formality, the more he or she was likely to have normative commitment. Though humanity and vision were factors predicting both affective and normative commitment, it did not hold true for continuance commitment. The predictors for continuance commitment were found to be in adhering to bottom-line factors and convention, which showed a significant effect. The more an employee felt the organization clung to these two factors, the greater the continuance commitment levels. These employees stayed within an organization because they felt they had little or no choice but to stay.

Hartmann and Bambacas (2000) examined the extent of three types of organizational commitment among women professional staff and the usefulness of the Meyer and Allen (1990) Scales for employees. Data were collected from 168 women academic staff in an Australian tertiary education organization. The methodology utilized was regression analysis with path analysis. They found a correlation between the length of time the employee had been with the organization and their intent to leave the organization. Their study was a better fit with the organizational commitment model of three factors, including the factors of continuance commitment.

Klein and Weaver (2000) looked at the impact of voluntary attendance at an organizational new employee orientation and training session on socialization within the organization. Data were collected from 216 new employees in a variety of occupations in a large educational institution. The data were analyzed using ANOVA and ANCOVA. They found that those who attended the orientation sessions showed a greater level of socialization regarding values, goals, people and history, than did non-attendees. Attending employees also demonstrated higher levels of affective commitment than those who did not attend.

Meyer and Smith (2000) studied the mechanisms involved in the relations between employee commitment and human resource management practices (HRM) regarding performance, training, benefits and career development. Sample I consisted of 94 individuals from 30 different organizations representing 47 different occupations. Data obtained from these participants were used in preliminary analyses to evaluate the measures, particularly those developed for this research. No major problems were identified and, therefore, an identical survey was used in data collection from a second set of employees recruited through contracts with five small organizations. Four of the five organizations were involved primarily in manufacturing and distribution; the fifth provided financial services. One hundred eighty seven non-managerial employees participated in sample 2. Other variables in the study were performance appraisal, benefits, training, career development, organizational support and procedural justice. The data were analyzed using ANOVA. They found that the relationship between the way an employee evaluates HRM practices and levels of affective or normative commitment has to do with the employee's perception of support and fairness of procedures within the organization. There was a significant level of correlation between affective and normative commitment and all HRM evaluative measures and support and justice of the organization. Continuance commitment did not show the same significance with any of the measures, nor with organizational support or procedural fairness. It should be noted, however, that there was a strong correlation with the three demographic variables of tenure, age, and sex. The correlations of the evaluative HRM measures all seemed positive and significant in nature.

A cross-cultural study was done by Taormina and Bauer (2000) to determine if the socialization content of an organization was applicable across the board. Data were gathered from 324 US and 198 Hong Kong employees who completed a questionnaire assessing four socialization content domains, five measures of job satisfaction, and three measures of organizational commitment. These socialization measures were stronger predictors than a varied number of demographic measures. Based on the merged data from the two cultures, all four socialization domains played a significant role in predicting satisfaction and commitment. These socialization measures were somewhat different in their relative strengths when the data were analyzed separately for each culture. The overall results support the idea that the socialization content areas tested were applicable across cultures.

Whitney and Lindell (2000) studied member commitment and participation levels in local emergency planning committees. The data were obtained from 57 local emergency planning committees in Michigan. Other variables in the study were leader behaviors, role stress, role ambiguity, perceived rewards of participation and self-efficacy. Factor analysis and path analysis were used to analyze the data. The study found that the kind of leadership in the organization was very important in promoting organizational commitment and in its effectiveness. Specifically, leadership that incorporates a high degree of communication, coordination, and initiating structure was positively related to affective commitment. More importantly, leadership exerts a significant influence on two of the three variables found to influence local emergency planning committees.

Abdulla and Shaw (1990) examined the relationships between personal factors and continuance and affective organizational commitment. Data were collected from a sample of 187 employees from the Ministry of Health in the United Arab Emirates. Other variables in the study were personal characteristics. The data were analyzed using zero-order and partial correlations and hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Results indicated that there were significant relationships between personal characteristics and both continuance and affective commitment. Gender, marital status, and headquarters/branch were the strongest predictors of continuance commitment. Marital status, age, and tenure were the strongest predictors of affective commitment. Nationality interacts significantly with personal characteristics in predicting continuance and affective commitment.

Chang (1999) looked at career commitment and its moderating role on the relationship between how employees perceive company practices and organizational commitment and also between turnover intentions. Data were collected from 225 researchers in eight business-related research institutes in Korea. The data were analyzed using factor analysis, moderated regression analysis and hierarchical regression analysis. Overall results indicate that career commitment was perceived as different from the dimension of organizational commitment. There was a moderating effect on employee perception in regard to supervisory support and affective commitment and turnover intent.

Family and work-related factors in conjunction with organizational commitment were studied in research by Chiu and Ng (1999). They also looked at the levels of organizational "friendliness to women" and organizational commitment. Data were collected from 258 individuals, who attended part-time diploma courses in management jointly organized by the Hong Kong Polytechnic University and the Hong Kong Management Association. The data was analyzed using multiple regression analysis. The study found that the majority of organizational policies were not women-friendly. They also determined that when policies indicate concern for employees, they are, in turn, more likely to become more psychologically attached to the organization than those who feel less valued according to the policies that govern their work environment.

Nyhan (1999) examined the relationship between trust and affective commitment. Study group I consisted of 327 employees of an engineering division in a county government organization. Study group 2 consisted of 182 employees of a middle-sized city government. Study group 3 consisted of 100 employees from a community services organization. The data were analyzed using correlation analysis and one-way ANOVA. There was a significant correlation between two types of trust—systems trust and interpersonal trust—and affective commitment. There was a high level of inter-correlation between the two types of trust. Statistically, the only significant correlate of affective commitment was supervisory trust, given controls for systems trust. As a correlate for affective commitment, interpersonal trust was the strongest by far. According to the study results, building trust from the bottom up via intervention strategies will be more likely to have a positive effect in increasing affective commitment than will those with a trust-building objective.

Levels of market orientation in the public sector and its effect on organizational commitment were studied by Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing (1997). Data were collected from 134 heads of state government departments in Australia. The data were analyzed using stepwise regression analysis. The other variable in the study was market orientation. Indications were that it had a direct effect on organizational commitment levels. Organization size did not appear to be significant to organizational commitment according to upper level executives that were questioned. The dimensions of response in market orientation did have an effect on affective commitment as a component of organizational commitment. There were no other market orientation dimensions that showed an effect on organizational commitment.

Ngo and Tsang (1998) examined the effects of work flexibility and firm internal labor markets on affective and continuance organizational commitment. Additionally, the study examined whether such effects were gender-specific. Data were collected from 772 business executives in Hong Kong. The data were analyzed using hierarchical regression analysis. Results indicated that although the two employment practices had significant and positive effects on both affective and continuance organizational commitment, they were not affected by gender. Other variables in the study were firm internal labor markets, organizational tenure, work experience, salary, career achievement and demographics. Results indicated that work flexibility and firm internal labor markets have an important impact upon the affective organizational commitment of business executives in Hong Kong. Additionally, the presence of firm internal labor markets also enhances the respondents' continuance commitment to their organizations. The provision of clear career development opportunities by local firms seems to be an effective means of building their members' organizational commitment. On the other hand, no evidence was found to support the hypothesis that gender moderates the above relationships. The effects of these employment practices on organizational commitment were not affected by the respondents' gender.

Wahn (1998) conducted a study to assess the relationship of continuance commitment to gender. Data were collected from 192 male and 347 female human resource professionals. These individuals were members of four associations of human resource professionals in the Canadian provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. The other variables in this study were organizational tenure and hierarchical level. The data was analyzed using multiple regression analysis. Results indicated that women reported significantly higher continuance commitment than did their male counterparts. There was a significant effect for sex where women might feel more tied to an organization than men because of their feelings such as a need to stay. Furthermore, education level and one's level in the organization's hierarchy were both negatively related to continuance commitment whereas tenure within the organization was positively related to continuance commitment. Age was not significantly related to continuance commitment.

In summary, the results also confirmed the relationship between sex and continuance commitment and revealed a positive relationship between tenure and continuance commitment and a negative relationship between two other variables, education level and level in the hierarchy, and continuance commitment.

Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing (1997) conducted a study to determine the level of market orientation in the public sector and what effect, if any, this had on organizational commitment. Data were collected from 134 heads of state government departments in Australia. The data were analyzed using stepwise regression analysis. The other variable in the study was market orientation. Results indicated that market orientation had a direct effect on organizational commitment. There appeared to be no significant relationship between public organization size and the organizational commitment expressed by senior executives. Additionally, results indicated that only the responsiveness dimensions in market orientation had an effect on the affective commitment component in organizational commitment. None of the other market orientation dimensions had an effect on the other dimensions of organizational commitment.

Liou and Nyhan (1994) examined the relationship between employee tenure, supervisory position and professional classification on both affective and continuance commitment in public organization. Data were collected from 344 county government employees in a southeast state. The data were analyzed using varimax rotational factor analysis, two-tailed t-test analyses, and multivariate analysis. The study confirmed the multidimensional nature of public employee motives and commitment. Additionally, the empirical results supported the importance of affective commitment in the public organization. While identifying the existence of the continuance commitment, the study did not find significant correlations between continuance commitment and employee tenure and supervisory position as suggested by some researchers. Finally, the study revealed that commitment of public employees might differ as a consequence of professional or nonprofessional status.

Allen and Meyer (1990) conducted two studies to test aspects of a three-component model of commitment, which incorporates the various ways organizational commitment has been conceptualized and measured. The affective component of organizational commitment, proposed by the model, refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. The continuance commitment component refers to commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization. Finally, the normative component refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. In study I, scales were developed to measure these components. Data were collected from 256 full-time non-unionized employees in three organizations: two manufacturing firms and a university. Relationships among the components of commitment and the variables considered their antecedents were examined in study 2. Data were collected from 337 full-time, non-unionized employees in three organizations: a retail department store, a hospital and a university library. Results of a canonical correlation analysis suggested that, as predicted by the model, the affective and continuance components of organizational commitment were empirically distinguishable constructs with different correlates. The affective and normative components, although distinguishable, appeared to be somewhat related.

In summary, these studies show the wide use of Meyer and Allen's three-component model, in both private and public organizations. The next section focuses on the organizational commitment in higher education settings. The IPA, the site of this study, is considered a higher education public institution.

Organizational Commitment in Higher Education

While there are many studies that address organizational commitment in the business sector, fewer resources exist which address organizational commitment in higher education settings. The research that does exist suggests that modern faculty identify more with their discipline and less with their institution (Fjortoft, 1993). This academic lack of attention to organizational commitment has become the focus of significant concern (Ormsby and Watts, 1989). In commenting on the lack of such research and the clear need for meaningful work in this area, Harshbarger (1998) stated that "Higher education has much to gain from the enhancement of institutional commitment on the part of faculty members" (p.6).

The first use of the terms "locals" and "cosmopolitans" to designate faculty commitment may have been the work of Gouldner, as early as 1957. He used the term "locals" for any faculty who identified primarily with the institutions in which they were employed. On the other hand, those faculty who identified primarily with a national network of colleagues within their discipline were designated by Gouldner as "cosmopolitans." He believed that cosmopolitans tended to have low degrees of loyalty to their employer and high commitment to their discipline, and that the reverse was true for locals. Gouldner hypothesized that both types of faculty are necessary, believing that cosmopolitans brought expertise to the institution, while the locals provided loyalty and commitment.

Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus (1970) discovered that faculty members who identify primarily with the institution rather than with their discipline or department tend to be the driving force in fostering the institution's social or public service role, as well as the force instilling emphasis on undergraduate teaching and curricular reform.

Fjortoft (1993) differentiated between organizational commitment and career commitment, since organizational commitment links the employee to the goals and values of the organization, not the profession. He further clarified that organization commitment differs from job satisfaction, since organizational commitment is more global, encompassing attitudes toward the organization as a whole, and he stated that these attitudes only develop over time. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, can fluctuate from time to time, incorporating extrinsic as well as intrinsic factors. Yet, while research has established the relationship between job satisfaction and performance (Angle and Perry, 1981; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson, 1989; Porter et al., 1974), it is important to remember that one may be highly committed both to the profession and to the organization and still have low job satisfaction at a given moment in time. An individual may also feel high job satisfaction and high commitment to the profession, but have a lesser commitment to the organization.

Researchers have traditionally focused on the employees' attachment to the institution (Mowday et al., 1982). But in several more recent studies, researchers have shifted the focus to employees' perception of the institution's commitment to them (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986; Hutchison, 1997). This view is based on social exchange theory, which is the idea that the individual employee's organizational commitment is based on the employee's perception of the institution's commitment to the employee. Etzioni (1961), Becker (1960) and Kanter (1968) all posited similar concepts, that favors or positive treatment from the organization resulted in a form of reciprocity, because the employees' perceptions of the institutional commitment to them is an antecedent to their commitment to the organization.

Compared to a corporation, the organizational structure of a college or university is an inherent obstacle that limits the usefulness of a corporate or business model (Brock and Harvey, 1993). However, despite differences between corporations and colleges and universities, there exist basic principles that are common to both types of organizational structures, including the need for strong leadership and vision that inspire organizational-wide commitment (Chan 1988). Yet these same qualities were found to be less effective in academic than in corporate settings, because the concept of shared governance in higher education is fundamentally different than organizational structures found in corporations (Bing and Dye, 1992; Mason, 1972).

Ormsby and Watts (1989) conducted a longitudinal study of the effect of unionization on organizational commitment. They concluded that collective bargaining has no impact on the level of faculty commitment. They maintained that union members have dual commitments to the union and to the organization, and that union membership had no effect on organizational commitment. While this study was limited to one college, and the results may or may not pertain to all institutions, their findings do bolster the opinion of Reichers (1985), who believed that employees could have multiple commitment, that the presence of a union is simply one more commitment, and is not necessarily in conflict with the mission and vision of the leaders of the institution.

Prior research also reveals that high levels of organizational commitment tend to be associated with positive personal attitudes, such as feelings of belonging and security efficacy. Tarr, Ciriello, and Convey (1993) examined the potential relationships between employees' commitment and their personal lives, and concluded that people with the highest levels of organizational involvement also reported the most life satisfaction, as well as greater satisfaction in their careers. This also applied to teachers.

There does appear to be a direct relationship between training received and the commitment of a workforce (Sonnenberg, 1994). Both in North America (Armon, 1995) and in Asia (Aquino, 1993), organizational commitment among university faculty was correlated positively with professional growth opportunities, implying that when an institution and its leaders take a personal interest in faculty members, particularly in areas of growth needs, caring relationships develop, and employees are likely to reciprocate with a growing commitment to the institution.

In educational settings, a number of institutional factors have been found to correspond with faculty commitment. Harshbarger (1989) concluded that faculty-university value congruence was one of the principal factors affecting faculty commitment.

Other studies reported that communication satisfaction, a sense of autonomy, and an internal locus of control contribute to the organizational commitment of faculty, while external control is apparently a negative factor (Allen, 1992; Armon, 1995; Graham, 1996; and Kawakubo, 1998). It is notable that these findings are congruent with those from non-educational settings (Chalmers, 1997; Dale, 1997; Fiedler, 1993; Gunter, 1997; Guzley, 1992; Potvin, 1992).

In summary, these studies show that a higher education organization is similar to any other organization in their reliance on high commitment levels of their faculty in order to achieve their goals. The next section focuses on reviewing the literature of organizational commitment in cross-national settings. Twenty percent of the IPA faculty members are from different countries, making it a multinational organization.

Organizational Commitment in Cross-National Settings

Because of its vital role in the world economy and peace stability in the last two decades, many researchers, both Arabs and non-Arabs, have become interested in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia has also gained the attention of both individuals seeking employment and international investors looking for business opportunities. However, scholars have paid little attention to organizational behavior research in Saudi Arabia, particularly organizational commitment; commitment studies have been limited to traditional variables, such as age, education, and tenure.

The study of Ali (1989) regarding the managerial beliefs of both Saudi Arabia and Iraq, and the study done by Ali and AlShkis (1985) on Saudi management values, along with the comparison of organizational commitment and job satisfaction among Saudi and expatriate management personnel done by Yavas, Luqmani, and Quraeshi (1990), all had limitations as discussed above

Twaijri (1989) investigated and compared the managerial values of American and Saudi employees in U.S-related firms in Saudi Arabia. Because the organization's nationality or ownership may influence the managerial values of domestic and expatriate managers toward it, the study did not include employees from Saudi-owned organizations. This means that both the nationality of an employee and the nationality of an organization may influence his or her level of commitment to it. It is notable that Arab nationalities working in Saudi companies and U.S. firms are absent in at-Twaijri's study.

Al-Meer (1989) made a similar examination of the levels of organizational commitment of Saudis, Asians, and Westerners, based on a limited number of personal variables such as education, age and tenure. In Al-Meer's study, there was no investigation of any other Arab nationality within Saudi organizations, but the suggestion was made that that might be considered in a future investigation. The study made use of cultures as though representative of nationalities, focusing on the Saudi, Western and Asian populations.

In Al-Meer's 1989 study, only Saudi employees can be categorized as a nationality group; the term "Asian workers" includes Koreans, Filipinos, Thai, and other Asian nationalities. Classifying one ethnic group, such as Asians, under one nationality would be misleading in the final analysis of the study if it was meant to investigate nationality as a variable in the investigation of organizational commitment differences among different nationalities. Arabs as an ethic term also includes many nationalities, such as Egyptians, Jordanians, Lebanese, Saudis, Sudanese, Palestinians, et cetera.

Yavas, Luqmani, and Quraeshi (1990) examined and compared the levels of commitment between Saudi and expatriate managers, including general managers, assistant general managers, and department heads working in Saudi organizations. (Since the term "expatriates" fails to identify who they are, one can see that nationality and ethnicity are not examined in their study. Therefore, they have used "expatriates" as a generic term that includes all foreign labor in Saudi Arabia, and so their findings may not give sufficiently accurate information about the level of organizational commitment of any specific nationality.

Ignoring nationality, in cross-national studies, as a predictor of organizational commitment is one of the major mistakes made by researchers; researchers interested in cross-national organizational commitment studies will include expatriates by country of origin, nationality, and ethnicity if they are trying to investigate the differences between domestic and international employees. Similarly, ethnicity and place of birth, type of position, and an employee's type of employment can influence his or her level of commitment to his/her organization. These variables and others are thoroughly discussed in the theoretical framework section. Some of these variables have been neglected by researchers who conducted commitment studies in Saudi organizations. Two important job-based factors, type of job and type of employment, as new predictors of organizational commitment in Saudi organizations may also influence employees' commitment to those organizations.

After reviewing the literature of organizational commitment in a cross-national setting, the next two sections discuss the relationships between organizational commitment and the personal demographics of employees and their job-related factors.

Personal Demographics and Organizational Commitment

Personal demographics play a role in organizational commitment. Not only do age and length of service appear to have positive relationships with organizational commitment (Rivera, 1994; Salancik, 1997), but also gender (Mowday et al., 1982), with women as a group showing more commitment than men. Although findings are at times inconsistent, there seem to be significant relationships between organizational commitment and educational level achieved, as well as with employment status (Armon, 1995; Mottaz, 1986).

Personal demographics of employees are better predictors of their organizational commitment than are organizational characteristics (Banai and Reisel, 1993; Ferris and Aranya, 1983; Glisson and Durick, 1988; Lee, 1971; Luthans et al., 1985; Meyer and Allen, 1984; Meyer et al., 1989; Putti et al., 1989; Sheldon, 1971; Wetzel and Gallgaher, 1990). Furthermore, studies focusing on commitment found that the characteristics of employees, including personal demographics, have played a significant role in their levels of commitment to their organizations. Assuming that characteristics of employees are linked to their feelings and beliefs about the organization, these studies also support the premise that such beliefs and feelings may account for more variation in commitment than do organizational variables and experiences in the job setting (Glisson and Durick, 1988;

Porter et al., 1974; Sager, 1991). Ferris and Aranya (1983) concluded that most major studies support the significant relationship between at least some personal demographic variables and organizational commitment.

The influence of personal characteristics on organizational attitudes has been investigated by Chapman (1989), Jones (1983), and Van Maaned and Schein (1979), who are consistent in their agreement that the personal characteristics of employees influence their attitudes and behavior toward the organization that employs them. In comparison with organizational characteristics, Kock and Steers in 1978 and Mottaz a decade later found that personal demographics of employees are reliable predictors of their commitment to the organizations. The findings of Pierce and Dunham (1987) also showed that demographics and personality accounted for 36 percent of the variance in organizational commitment propensity and that demographic variables alone produced an R of .55, while the personality variables produced an R of .34. Schreiber (1979) noted that the relationship between demographic variables and employees' attitudes has been studied in industrial and organizational psychology.

There are a number of leading investigators on organizational commitment and its predictors: Angle and Perry (1983), Kock and Steers (1978), Mowday et al. (1982), Pierce and Dunham (1987), Porter et al. (1974), and Steers (1977), and they identify personal demographics as a strong and significant influence on employees' commitment. Putti, Aryee, and Laing (1989) stated that demographic variables are presumed to cause commitment because, through an employee's actions, he or she makes some penaltyproducing arrangements. Hence, Becker (1960) believed that the results of such actions leave the employee committed to the organization.

One who is demographically different from other employees in the organization means they are also attitudinally and behaviorally different. Rosseau's (1978) findings on the relationship between the attitudes of employees toward the organization and the characteristics of departments, positions, and individuals showed that demographics of individuals are the best predictors of their behaviors toward the organization. Indeed, Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992) and Pierce and Dunharn (1987) expected demographic variables to have direct effects on work-related attitudes, such as organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Waldman and Avolio (1996) agreed that demographic characteristics such as age, education, and race have been related to the work-related outcome of performance, which is also influenced by commitment. Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) added that these demographic characteristics also influence an employee's turnover. The Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) findings showed that a low level of organizational attachment is one of many possible outcomes of demographic heterogeneity. DeCotiis and Summers (1987) and Lee et al. (1992) focused on personal demographics as a predictor of organizational commitment; they stated that employees bring their individual differences with them to the organization or that, at the least, these differences are developed independent of their membership in any organization.

Others have argued that personnel selection can benefit from the use of biodata measures, which predict a variety of job-related criteria such as turnover, which is linked to commitment (Barge and Hough, 1988; Drakeley and Herriot, 1988; Rothstein, Schmidt, Envin, Owens, and Sparks, 1990). Fogarty (1994) advocated involving the recruiting process, for he believed that because demographic variables are of greater importance to organizational commitment, the action focus for practitioners and the agenda for researchers must involve the recruiting process.

In summary, these findings show the importance and significance of personal characteristics variables, particularly demographic variables, in predicting employees' organizational commitment. Personal demographics of employees are better predictors of their commitment to the organization than organizational characteristics variables. Also, personal demographics differentiate between stayers and leavers, committed and non-committed employees.

Age

Banai and Reisel (1993) found that loyalty to and involvement in the organization are two major factors in organizational commitment. This study focused on one underlying construct: organizational commitment. Loyalty and involvement are some of the items that measure commitment and are useful in explaining the development of commitment because, in most situations, loyalty and involvement come prior to commitment. If employees express their loyalty and involvement in the organization, it may be said that they are intentionally committed to it. It may also be somewhat true that those employees who are loyal to the organization, and involved in its activities, intend to remain with it and to maintain its continuity and membership.

As people age, they become occupationally stable and career-oriented. Employees become limited by their efforts, promotions, and other investments in the organization, so they settle into a career and close other career options (Colarelli and Bishop, 1990; Gottfredson, 1977). The results of Al-Meer's 1989 study demonstrated a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and the age of Saudi and Western employees working for Saudi organizations. Banai and Reisel (1993) decided that the age of an expatriate manager was a major antecedent of organizational commitment; age was correlated positively with the overall items of organizational commitment.

Employee age has consistently resulted in positive correlation with commitment. In a meta-analysis involving 41 samples, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported a positive mean correlation. Allen and Meyer (1993) also studied the relationship between age and organizational commitment and obtained a positive mean correlation of .36 ($p < .05$) between age and organizational commitment. This is consistent with the finding by Angle and Perry (1981) who conducted an organizational commitment study involving 24 organizations that operated fixed-route bus services in the western United States; the results from this study also indicated a positive correlation of age with commitment.

Researchers reported differences in the level of organizational commitment based on career stages that were defined by employee age range in a study conducted by Morrow and McElroy (1987), in contrast to the findings of Alluto, Hrebiniak, and Alonso (1973), who conducted a study in which they discovered a curvilinear relationship between age and employee organizational commitment. In a more recent study in 1993, Meyer and Allen indicated that analyses of organizational tenure generally showed a mild curvilinear relationship whereby middle tenure employees possessed less measured commitment than new or senior level (by age) employees.

Shin and Reyes (1991) studied the organizational commitment of school administrators. They selected 162 public school and private school (Catholic) administrators, and obtained a positive correlation (r=.09) between organizational commitment and age; however, this correlation was not significant at the .01 or the .05 level.

Gender

In the matter of gender and organizational commitment, some ambiguity exists because of the varied manner with which gender has been studied. As a topic in organizational commitment literature, gender has been approached from both the gender-model and the job-model (Aven, Parker, and McEvoy, 1993). The gender approach to the study of women and organizational commitment was based on the belief that women accept family roles as a chief source of their identity and fulfillment, leading to a different orientation to work from men, for whom work is paramount. In contrast, advocates of the job-model view concerning organizational commitment and women indicated that there were no differences in the work attitudes of women and men, and that work attitudes of both sexes developed in similar ways (Loscocco, 1990).

Parker and McEvoy (1993) completed a meta-analysis of studies of the relationship between gender and organizational commitment. After completing a comprehensive search procedure, these researchers identified 26 studies with 27 samples that concerned organizational commitment, and the overall results negated the argument that there are gender differences with respect to organizational commitment. They concluded that a similar commitment could be coaxed from both males and females when an organization treated all its employees fairly.

In another meta-analytic study, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) discovered a correlation that indicated a stronger (although still weak) advantage for female employees in the matter of organizational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac reviewed 14 studies involving gender and organizational commitment, with a total of 7,420 subjects involved, and they obtained a mean uncorrected correlation of -.089 for organizational commitment and gender. The mean weighted correlation was -.145 after corrections were made for attenuation. Correction for attenuation allows a researcher to estimate what a correlation between variables might be if the instruments used to measure the variables had perfect reliability (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996). Ratings for males were coded with higher values.

Aranya, Kushmir, and Valency (1986) tested the commitment level of women in a male-dominated profession, and the female accountants in this study demonstrated less organizational commitment than male accountants. The Pearson correlation between organizational commitment and gender was -.13 ($p < .01$. Male accountants in their study were older than the female accountants, and the males tended to rank higher in the organizational hierarchy than the females. However, when the study's results were analyzed by controlling for age and organizational level, male accountants still ranked higher than females with respect to organizational commitment.

Kushman (1992) used the job-model research approach in a study that involved urban elementary and middle school teachers. In this approach, one assumes that gender is not a determinant of commitment and, indeed, results indicated that gender was not a factor that influenced organizational commitment. Neither was there a statistically significant relationship between sex and organizational commitment for subjects in the 63 schools included in the sample for this study.

Ngo and Tsang (1998) examined the effects of work flexibility and firm internal labor markets on affective and continuance organizational commitment. The study also examined whether such effects were gender-specific. Results indicated that work flexibility and firm internal labor markets do have an important impact upon the affective organizational commitment of business executives in Hong Kong. Additionally, the presence of firm internal labor markets also seemed to enhance the respondents' continuance commitment to their organizations. Providing clear career development opportunities by local firms seemed to be an effective means of building their members' organizational commitment. On the other hand, no evidence was found to support the hypothesis that gender moderates the above relationships; the effects of these employment practices on organizational commitment were not affected by the respondents' gender.

A meta-analytic study conducted by Aven, Parker, and McEvoy (1993) examined gender and affective commitment, and their results showed that gender and affective commitment are unrelated. However, Wahn (1998) examined the relationship between gender and continuance commitment, and discovered that women supported a higher continuance commitment than men.

Nationality

The difference in employees' nationalities is an influential factor in their level of commitment to their organization. Hofstede (1983) believed that nationality is important to management for at least three reasons: (1) nations are political units; (2) nationality has a symbolic meaning to nationals; and (3) nationality is important for psychological reasons. In a study to investigate managerial roles in cross-cultural settings, Torbiorn (1993) discovered that the national identity of expatriate managers is enhanced by cultural attachments and shared social relationships that create a sense of belonging and eventually commitment to the employing organization of their native country. Near (1989) indicated the importance of nationality and emphasized that the use of a cross-national comparison does allow for comparison of differences and similarities by nationality.

Bhagat and McQuaid (1982) argued that culture has frequently served as a synonym for a nation, so that national differences found in the characteristics of organizations or their members have been viewed as cultural differences. The researchers assumed that national differences among members of a particular country also represent cultural differences. Moreover, nationality has become the identity as well as the cultural personality of a nation. Some researchers, such as Laurent in 1981, discovered that organizational culture fails to reduce the influence of national culture differences, but that organizational culture rather maintained and enhanced national culture.

Surprisingly, Cole (1979) and Luthans, McCaul, and Dodd (1985) found that Japanese employees as a homogeneous nationality exhibit lower levels of commitment than their American counterparts. The more recent study showed that Korean nationals also had lower levels of organizational commitment than did their American counterparts, while Japanese and Korean employees scored similar levels of commitment to their organizations. However, the Japanese and Korean cultures are more similar to each other than different in the family structure and homogeneity of their societies.

In Saudi Arabia, Al-Meer (1989) decided that Saudi nationals differ significantly in their level of commitment from the Asian nationalities included in his study; the Asian employees demonstrated a higher level of commitment than did Saudi or Western employees. Al-Meer explained that (1) most of the workers come from poor countries, and their pay in Saudi organizations is six to eight times higher than that for counterparts in their native countries; and (2) the majority of Asian workers are Moslems, who deem employment in Saudi Arabia as a great opportunity to visit the holy places.

Given similar work in another organization, Saudi nationals feel a sense of flexibility and mobility, which has a direct affect on their levels of commitment to an organization (Yavas, Luqmani, and Quraeshi, 1990). On the other hand, expatriates did not feel the same way, because of contractual obligations; the two groups of employees had different levels of commitment to Saudi organizations. This difference in the levels of commitment to IPA may be the result of the nationality of the employers and/or the ownership of the employing companies.

Education

In a study done by O'Reilly and Caldwell (1981) there was indication that the more highly educated the worker, the more their beliefs about work alternatives strengthened their commitment levels. Research also indicated that the more educated a worker, the more likely they were to leave one organization for another. Such an employee may look for another job if his expectations are not met. Another factor is the fact that highly educated employees are more in demand than are less educated ones; this may be encouragement for the better educated to seek other jobs. Those who have achieved higher levels of education have made an investment in themselves and will seek better returns for that investment; this may cause them to move from one organization to another seeking to fill varying needs. Conversely, Morris and Sherman (1981) found less educated employees to have a greater level of commitment to their organizations than their counterparts. It seemed that the less educated employees had fewer opportunities available to them; therefore, they tended to stay with their organizations.

In some cross-national studies in less industrialized countries such as Al-Meer's (1989) study done in Saudi Arabia and Alvi and Ahmed's (1987) study in Pakistan, there was a significant negative relationship between the education of Asian employees and their levels of commitment. This relationship may be due to the fact that the manual labor they do does not have higher education requirements. There was a significant and positive relationship found with the levels of education and organizational commitment for Western employees (Al-Meer, 1989). However, there was no indication of the same significance for Saudi employees in the same study.

It was found that there was no consistent relationship between education levels and affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). However, given the likelihood of fewer job opportunities being available, those less educated are more likely to stay with an employer (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1981).

Job-Related Factors and Organizational Commitment

Job-related variables are ones that are tied to the organization and one's job in it. These variables are: occupational level, type of job (managerial or non-managerial), salary, and organizational tenure. Another name for these variables is job-based factors. These variables are also tied to an employee's work attitudes and behaviors, including commitment. Chelte and Tausky (1986) and Hrebiniak and Aluto (1972) felt that these job-related factors greatly influenced an employee's organizational commitment. Becker's (1960) side-bet theory offers a good way to understand one of the most important predictors of employee commitment to an organization, which is the type of job they fulfill for the organization. His theory is that the more invested an employee is in the organization, the more likely he/she is to stay.

Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) suggested that commitment is an exchange and accrual phenomenon, dependent on an employee's side bets in the employing organization. One of these investments is length of service in the organization. Therefore, organizational tenure is a personal investment that influences employees' commitment to remain in the organization, comply with its policies, and serve its goals. Personal investments accumulate with the length of organizational tenure. Employees have different lengths of service in their organization, which may influence their levels of commitment to it.

Pay is another factor that can have an influence on the level of commitment an employee has to the organization. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) felt that pay was an important reason that employees stayed with an organization. Pay, one of Becker's (1960) side-bets, is also an important cause of personal investment due to increases as employees gain either tenure or promotions. This is another investment where differences make for differences in levels of commitment. A study by Salanick (1977) concluded that when work-related rewards are noticeable, there is a reduction in the responsibility the employee feels, which also reduces the level of commitment. In this vein, Lawler (1990) said that it was necessary for pay objectives to be clear to employees in order to achieve the hoped-for behavioral commitment to the job and the organization. Given employee expectations, it was shown that employee commitment can be influenced in a major way, either positively or negatively, by the company's reward system.

Occupational Level and Type of Jobs

The organizational characteristic that most profoundly affects employees in an organization is the hierarchy within the organization (Tannenbaum, 1996). This may result from the view of employees toward managerial and non-managerial positions, given that managerial positions most often pay more than non-managerial ones. It is also true that managers have a psychological affect in that they are given a sense of greater prestige by those in non-managerial positions, as well as others outside the organization. These differences may engender commitment-based attitudes toward the organization, which will in turn have an affect on their intent to leave the organization. Tannenbaum (1996) felt that a manager was more likely, than those reporting to him, to identify with and support the organization psychologically. Inclusive in such support is acceptance of policies dealing with the organization's productivity standards. This researcher also felt that it was these differences that caused some employees to be more intensely involved with the organization.

Organizational rank is thought to be a personal investment (Mottaz, 1987) and, as stated in the side-bet theory of Becker (1960), it was due to the limitations it placed on the employee's options, therefore binding them to the organization. Managers and highly ranked employees tend to have made greater personal investments within their organizations than those who rank below them, and have more to lose should they make the choice to leave the company. One such investment made by employees is job type. Those managerial positions make commitments to the organization in order to keep their job status, thus bringing about different levels of commitment than those in non-management positions. This status factor was also found by researchers Grusky (1996) and Wiener and Vardi (1980) who said that managers tended to show greater commitment than non-managers due to the prestige of their jobs and the high pay they received.

Cohen and Gattiker (1994) argued that the supervisory positions were considered rewards by organizations, which gave those who attained the positions a greater sense of autonomy and a better quality of life. They considered the reward to be important as possible determinants of organizational commitment for those in non-managerial positions because the pay and status are lower than those of managers. Salanick (1977) came to the conclusion that there are some positions that have a greater burden of responsibility; therefore managerial employees tend to be more committed to the organization as a result.

As reported by Abboushi (1990) all Arab employees had a preference for managerial positions rather than non-managerial ones. The Arab employees also exhibited a greater level of organizational commitment when in managerial positions than did those who held non-managerial jobs.

Salary

In the work of Ritzer and Trice (1969) employee pay was used as an antecedent of organizational commitment. The reason behind this inclusion was that more highly paid employees stand to lose more; therefore, they will be more likely to stay with the organization. The work of Angle and Perry (1983) and Baba and Knoop (1987) stated with consistency an expectation that employees who are better paid have different levels of commitment than do those of lower pay.

Other studies, such as those by Byington and Johnson (1991), Cohen and Gattiker (1994), Sager (1991), and Summer and Hendrix (1991), showed there was a significantly positive relationship in the levels of pay and organizational commitment. It was determined that the higher the pay levels, the more committed the employee was to the organization. Gattiker (1994) determined that pay is a predictor of the level an employee will become committed to an organization, and wide differences in pay resulted in wide differences in commitment levels.

In the work done in Saudi Arabia by Al-Meer (1989), trying to explain why there was a greater level of commitment among Asian employees who received low pay than was found among Saudi or Western employees who received higher pay, he failed to provide empirical support for his statements. He stated that the high commitment level of Asians stemmed from the Saudi Arabia earning levels as compared to what they would receive in their native countries for the same work. There is a tendency for employees to compare pay received from their own organizations with those of other organizations. Adam's equity theory (1963) was that the perception of pay inequity creates tension in employees; therefore, there may be varying commitment levels between those who receive low pay as compared to the higher paid ones.

Organizational Tenure

Organizational tenure, according to Aranya, Kushnir, and Valency (1986), is just a measure of the length of time a person has been part of an organization. However, studies done by Igbaria and Guimaraes (1993), Luthans, McCaul, and Dodd (1985), and Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) indicated that tenure within an organization reliably predicted an employee's organizational commitment. They felt that employee longevity contributed to the level of commitment and made it more likely that the employee would remain a member of the organization. Personal investments made by employees to their organizations are what contributed to this commitment, according to Becker (1960).

The personal investment factor was supported in a study by Igbaria and Siegel (1992) that showed a negative correlation between the intention to leave an organization and organizational tenure. The negative correlation shows, once again, that the longer an employee remains in an organization, the less he is likely to leave it. Given an increased length of service to an organization, an employee also increases personal investment in it, thus strengthening his/her commitment to the organization.

In a study of Saudi organizations done by Al-Meer (1989) there was a strong positive relationship between Western and Saudi employee levels of organizational commitment and tenure. The study did not find the same correlation among Asian employees.

In one study Mathieu and Zajac (1990) looked at 38 samples among 12,290 subjects and found an overall mean weighted correlation of .17 ($p<.01$). In an earlier study by Shoemaker, Snizek, and Bryant (1977) on organizational tenure involving forest rangers from both federal and state levels, a positive correlation between organizational tenure and commitment was found between both subject groups. A correlation of .22 ($p<.05$) was obtained for Federal rangers.

Available literature supports the idea of a positive correlation between organizational tenure and organizational commitment (Kushman, 1992; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Sheldon, 1971). This may indicate, as thought by Meyer and Allen (1997), that employees have to gain some degree of experience within an organization in order to develop a strong attachment to it. They also postulated that it may also be due to the fact that long-term employees form an affective attachment to their organization.

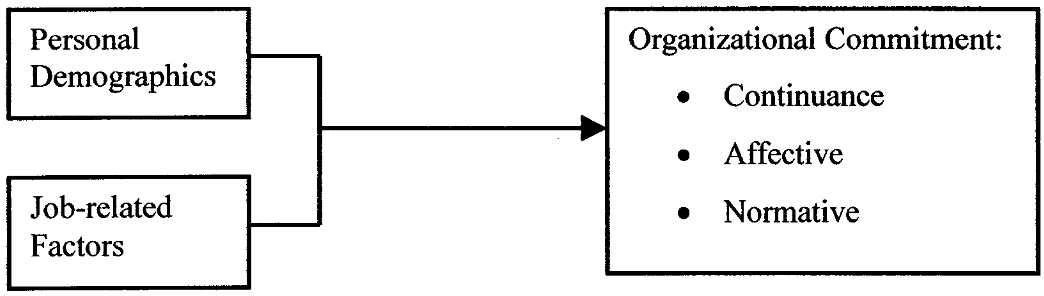
Gregersen (1993) conducted a study of non-management workers such as secretaries, nurses, clerks, radiologists and other specialists. In this study there was a positive correlation between organizational commitment and the length of time served in the organization. He used a modified version of the Occupational Commitment Questionnaire to obtain his study data.

The studies done on tenure and continuance commitment have given mixed results (Alutto, Hrebininak, and Alonso, 1973; Ferris and Aranya, 1983). In these studies it was shown that there are employees who feel that when tenure is gained within the organization it means the cost of leaving the organization will be greater accordingly. Workers who have been with the company longer, particularly older ones who have achieved high tenure levels, feel tied to the organization. This is especially true given extensive pension fund contributions. Another factor for them may lie in how company-specific their training has been (Meyer and Allen, 1996). On the other hand, there are others who feel the cost to be minimal to them if the new organization they go to is perceived to value their skills and experience more than was previously the case.

Research Model

The model that Meyer and Allen (1991) developed was the one chosen for this study's model. The model offers explanations for the influence of antecedents upon organizational commitment, and is theoretically grounded. To add to this base, the antecedent framework in the work of Steers (1977) is also supported by the work of Meyer and Allen (1996) and the OCQ (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire) they developed. The figure below gives the research model for this study.

Figure 15: Research model for the study



The manner in which commitment is influenced by antecedents is shown in this model, and then has influence on work-related outcomes. This model shows organizational commitment to be made up of three main groups consisting of personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences (Steers, 1977).

In the course of the study, each variable within a component was examined for a link to organizational commitment. An example of this is age, found within the personal demographics component. Another antecedent was the type of employment.

It was found in the research model that personal demographics and job-related issues seemed to have some influence on the organizational commitment of the faculty members. The degree of influence seemed to be dependent upon the degree of differences in the variables considered in the demographics and job-related components. There were also differences in organizational commitment levels according to the varying cultures of the employees. According to Steers (1977) the variables in the model are fairly stable antecedents of organizational commitment.

CHAPTER IV RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter consists of nine sections. Section one discusses the research design used in this study. Section two covers the model and the operational definition of the study's variables. Section three focuses on the instrument used in this study, while section four describes the translation and back translation procedure of the instrument. Sections five and six discuss the pilot study and content validity. Section seven covers the population and sampling employed in the study. Section eight explains the data-collection process. The final section highlights the methods, for data analysis and statistical tests, which have been employed in the study.

Research Design

In this study, selection of the "case" is done purposefully rather than randomly, that is, the Institute of Public Administration is selected because it has the characteristics that are of interest to the study. The independent variables are the demographics and job-related factors and the dependent variable is going to be the employees' commitment.

This study is quantitative in nature and is based on a mail survey. The individual (IPA faculty member) is the unit for analysis in this survey. The cross-sectional survey is used as it provides a venue for description as well as a way to determine the relationships of variables during the study. This design is good for descriptive research by providing data on several variables, perceptions and attitudes, and behavior. The design allows for determination of the continuation, scale, and patterns of relationships among demographics, job related factors, and organizational commitment. Also, this design could be used to investigate the differences among various groups regarding their commitment to the IPA. In addition, this type of survey is the most appropriate for this study because data is collected on related variables from a selected sample at a given point in order to describe a larger population at that point in time.

The choice of research design is dependent upon the sensitivity of the question and the hypothesis the researcher is testing. According to Schwenck (1982) it is the overall field or laboratory setting, as well as the question itself and the purpose of the research that determine the appropriate research methodology.

Due to the sensitivity of some subjects, this experimental design may not work in the all studies of the relationship of the variables involved. Ellsworth (1977) felt that it might be impossible to test hypotheses involving social desirability in a laboratory setting without the bias of subject, which is concomitant in research questions that involve sensitive issues. He felt that the laboratory was not appropriate for a study that involved strong feelings or highly arousing events. He felt it would influence the subject to give only positive things about themselves rather than offering the truth about a particular phenomenon.

In experimental design, the identities of employees may be less confidential than in a mail survey, causing employees to be less than honest about their real negative feelings about the organization they work for due to fear of retaliation or threat to their jobs. They may also respond in ways that will give only positive images about themselves. Subjects tend to give more real answers in a real field setting where they are not under experimental controls, because they are not under undue pressure. It may also be the case that real responses may also be obtained in mail surveys that are relatively free from social desirability bias. Kidder and Judd (1986) felt that mail questionnaires offered anonymity where sensitive issues were involved.

This study includes a mail survey questionnaire consisting of Meyer and Allen's (1991) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), demographics and job-related questions. Anonymity of subjects and confidentiality of all responses were assured to all participants, which is important in obtaining the cooperation of employees and obtaining a high response rate, as well as honest responses.

Ganster, Henssesy, and Luthans (1983) felt that social desirability was the tendency of an individual to present him or herself favorably regarding culturally derived norms and standards. Fisher (1993), however, felt social desirability to be illustrated when a respondent was not willing to answer accurately due to ego-defensive or impression management reasons. Ganster et al. (1983) stated, however, that such contamination effects from social desirability are not widespread. Fisher (1993) argued that social desirability does not always deform self-reporting of personal outcomes due to the fact that this type of outcome is based on internalized values that are independent of social considerations. The use of mail research can reduce the threat of social desirability by insuring confidentiality and anonymity to all employees, and that is the intent of this study.

The major limitations, however, of the cross section design of this study are the lack of ability to set up cause and effect, the inability to control the independent variables, and the difficulty in banning rival hypotheses. Another limitation is common to self-report interview questionnaires, and that is common method variance/instrument reactivity. This is where the attitudes towards IPA may show a consistency that does not have a bearing on the reality of the group situation and therefore is considered a threat to the generalization of the study (Creswell, 2002).

Model and Operational Definition of Major Variables

Babbie (1998) provides four levels of measurement: nominal (the lowest level at which the properties of objects in any given category are identical and mutually exclusive for all its cases); ordinal (all sets of observations generate a complete ranking of objects from most to least, although the distances between the ranks cannot be precisely measured); interval (the distances between observations are exact and can be precisely measured in constant units); and ratio (appropriate for variables having natural zero point; allows for use of the most precise measuring instruments).

The following model was used to test the set of hypotheses regarding the relation among the demographic, job-related factors, and organizational commitment variables:

$$COM = \beta_0 + \beta_1\,NAT + \beta_2\,AGE + \beta_3\,GEN + \beta_4\,EDU + \beta_5\,LOO + \beta_6\,TOJ + \beta_7\,ANS + \beta_8\,ORT + \varepsilon$$

The variables were assigned values and coded as follows.

Organizational Commitment (COM)

Organizational Commitment was measured using the organizational commitment three-component model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). This instrument was designed to measure the relative strength of an individual's commitment to a particular organization. It was defined as the faculty's organizational commitment to the IPA.

Nationality (NAT)

This variable was defined as the nationality of the participant. It was classified as a dichotomous variable where it is assigned a value of zero for non-Saudi and a value of one for Saudi. Nationality was measured by asking the respondent to select the category that indicated his/her nationality.

Age (AGE)

This variable was defined as the actual age in years of the respondent. It was classified as a ratio continuous variable. Age was measured by asking the respondent his/her actual age.

Gender (GEN)

This variable was defined as the sex of the respondent. It was classified as a dichotomous variable where it is assigned a value of zero for male and one for female. Gender was measured by asking the respondent to select the category that indicated his/her sex.

Education (EDU)

This variable was defined as the highest degree the faculty has earned up to the time of the study. Level of education of the respondent is classified as a categorical variable assigned the following values: zero for faculty with a bachelor's, 1 for faculty with masters, 2 for faculty with a doctorate degree. Education was measured by asking the respondent to select the category that indicated his/her educational level.

Occupational Level (LOO)

This variable was defined as the rank the faculty has in the IPA's hierarchal system. This variable was classified as a categorical variable assigned the following values: zero for seventh to eighth grades, 1 for ninth to tenth and assistant faculty, 2 for eleventh to twelfth and associate faculty, and 3 for thirteenth to fourteenth and full faculty. Occupational level was measured by asking the respondent to select the category that indicated his/her category.

Type of Job (TOJ)

Type of job was defined as whether the faculty member holds a managerial position at the time of the study. This variable was classified as a dichotomous variable where it is assigned a value of zero for non-managerial and a value of one for managerial. Type of job was measured by asking the respondent to select the category that indicated his/her situation.

Salary (ANS)

Salary was defined as the actual amount in dollars of an employee's annual job salary and is classified as a ratio continuous variable. This was measured by asking the respondent to report their monthly salary. Salaries in the IPA are paid in the Saudi Riyal (SR) currency; therefore, the salary was measured using the Saudi Riyal. Each US dollar equals 3.75 Saudi Riyals.

Organizational Tenure (ORT)

Organizational Tenure was defined as the actual number of years the faculty member has spent at the IPA up to the time of the study. This variable was classified as a ratio continuance variable. Organizational tenure was measured by asking the respondent to report how many years he/she has been working for the IPA.

The following table lists the dependent and independent variables that are part of this study. The demographics and job-related factors will serve as the independent variables for the purpose of this study. Three separate measures of organizational commitment will be used as dependent variables. These measures are the affective commitment scale, continuance commitment scale, and normative commitment scale of the Organizational Commitment Three-Component Model. The following table summarizes the characteristics of the study variables:

Table 21: Classification of the study variables

Instrument	Variables	Level	Category	Subcategory	Dichotomous
Independent Variables					
Demographic Questionnaire	Nationality	Nominal	Categorical-unordered	Discrete	Yes
	Age	Ratio	Numerical	Continuous	No
	Gender	Nominal	Categorical-unordered	Discrete	Yes
	Education	Nominal	Categorical-unordered	Discrete	No
Job-Related Factors	Occupational Level	Nominal	Categorical-unordered	Discrete	No
	Type of Job	Nominal	Categorical-unordered	Discrete	Yes
	Salary	Ratio	Numerical	Continuous	No
	Organizational Tenure	Ratio	Numerical	Continuous	No
Dependent Variable					
OCQ	Organizational Commitment	Ordinal	Categorical-ordered	Discrete	Yes

Instrument

Demographic and job-related factors questions were asked at the end of the questionnaire. The areas that were covered by the questions are nationality, age, gender, level of education, job level, type of job, job pay, and organizational tenure.

Before the selection of Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Three-Component Model, another questionnaire was considered as a measure of organizational commitment, which was developed by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974).

Porter's et al. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) OCQ is a 15-item instrument designed to measure the level of employee satisfaction and involvement in the organization. An examination of the psychometric properties of the OCQ by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) showed an internal consistency of items, a test-retest reliability, as well as evidence of the predictive validity of the instrument. The authors did issue caution to the researchers, among which was the fact that respondents could easily manipulate scores. They also said that the internal consistency of a 9-item scale was "generally equal to the full instrument" (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979, p. 244).

These comments caused concern about the OCQ's usefulness as a measure of organizational commitment. With the Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) OCQ there is also no clear delineation between the types of organizational commitment. Due to these factors, the Meyer and Allen (1997) OCQ was chosen as the measure of organizational commitment for this study.

Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Meyer and Allen (1987,1991) developed a model of commitment; this subsequently let to the development of the Organizational Commitment Scales. Research outlined the three approaches of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative. Given the conceptual differences among the components, previous researchers have suggested that each of the three components of commitment develop somewhat independently of the others as a function of different antecedents (Allen and Meyer, 1990, 1996; Armstrong-Stassen, 1988, 2002; Ashforth and Saks, 2000; Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990; Jacobsen, 2000; Morrison, 1997; Orpen, 1997). Specifically, the variables of affective, continuance and normative commitment are best viewed as distinguishable components.

Previous research has indicated that affective commitment refers to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization; it has been related to personal characteristics, organizational structures, and work experiences--for example pay, supervision, role clarity, and skill variety. Some researchers have suggested that the antecedents of affective attachment to the organization fall into four categories: personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experience and structural characteristics (Abdulla and Shaw, 1999; Allen and Meyer, 1990, 1996; Armstrong-Stassen, Cameron, Mantler, and Horsburgh, 2001; Bartlett, 2001; Day and Schoenrade, 1997; Hartmann and Bambacas, 2000; Klein and Weaver, 2000; Meyer and Allen, 1984, 1991). As Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991) pointed out, however, the strongest evidence has been provided for work experience antecedents, most notably those experiences that fulfill employees' psychological needs to feel comfortable within the organization and competent in the work role. They concluded that how commitment increases and why it should affect behavior is uncertain, but that it is likely that affective commitment reflects equity and expectancy considerations in a general psychological orientation.

Continuance commitment relates to perceived costs of leaving, both financial and non-financial, and perceived lack of alternatives. In the past, organizations have developed arrangements such as promotion based on tenure, accrued pensions and sick leave, which penalize those who leave the organization prematurely. Other potential costs of leaving include lost effort if skills or systems are non-transferable; disruption associated with changes in family arrangements; and loss of valued, future opportunities. Alternatives reflect the availability and suitability of other work opportunities, but whereas perceptions of few alternatives may have a negative effect on the commitment of those who are dissatisfied with their present work situation, it may have a positive effect for those who are satisfied. Neither costs nor alternatives alone determine high or low commitment. It is proposed that the continuance component of organizational commitment will also develop based on two factors: the magnitude and/or number of investments (or side-bets) individuals make, and the perceived lack of alternatives. Individuals make side-bets when they take an action that increases the costs associated with discontinuing another, related action. The likelihood that employees will stay with the organization will be positively related to the magnitude and number of side-bets they recognize. Additionally, the fewer viable alternatives employees believe are available, the stronger will be their continuance commitment to their current employer (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Becker, 1960; Caruana, Ramaseham and Ewing, 1997; Chiu and Ng, 1999; Hartmann and Bambacas, 2000; Liou and Nyhan, 1994; Luchak and Gellatly, 2001; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Wahn, 1998).

Normative commitment includes a moral component since it refers to the employees' feelings of obligation or responsibility to remain within the organization. This aspect indicates that individuals will show certain behaviors because they believe it is the right and moral thing to do. It is proposed that the normative component of organizational commitment will be influenced by the individual's experiences both prior to (familial/cultural socialization) and following (organizational socialization) entry into the organization. With respect to organizational socialization, it is proposed that those employees who have been led to believe--via various organizational practices--that the organization expects their loyalty would be most likely to have strong normative commitment to it (Allen and Meyer, 1990, 1996; Chang, 1999; Meyer and Allen, 1984,1991; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Spence, Laschinger, Finegan, and Shamian, 2001; Taormina and Bauer, 2000).

Empirical studies that utilized that Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) have demonstrated good internal consistency reliabilities (e.g. Allen and Meyer, 1990; Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing, 1997; Chiu and Ng, 1999; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Hartmann and Bambacas, 2000). Specifically, these scales have median reliabilities (assessed using coefficient alphas) across many studies of .85 for affective commitment, .73 for normative commitment and .79 for continuance commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1996). The validity of the three commitment scales was assessed by Allen and Meyer (1990). They reported that canonical correlation demonstrated both discriminate and convergent validity for each of the three scales, so that the three components are conceptually and empirically distinct. Additionally, Allen and Meyer (1995) summarized reliabilities (i.e. coefficient alpha). The results are presented in the following table:

Table 22: Internal consistency reliabilities for affective (ACS), continuance (CCS), and normative commitment scales (NCS)

ACS	CCS	NCS	Reference/Sample
			Allen and Meyer (1990)
.87	.75	.79	Sample 1
.86	.82	.73	Sample 2
.82	.81	.74	Allen and Smith (1987
.79	.69	.65	Cohen (1993)
			Hackett et al. (1994)
.86	.79	.73	Sample 1
.84	.75	.73	Sample 2
.89	.75	---	Konovsky and Carpanzano (1993)
.88	.70	---	McGee and Ford (1987)
.82	.74	.83	Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)
.74	.69	---	Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jacson (1989)
.88	.83	.52	Randall, fedor and Longenecker (1990)
.84	.80	.76	Reilly and Orsak (1991)
.81	.74	.71	Sommers (1993)

(Source: Allen and Meyer, 1995)

Initially, Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed making distinctions between two types of commitment: affective commitment and continuance commitment. Affective commitment showed an emotional attachment and a sense of belonging to the organization. Continuance commitment, however, showed that there was the perception of cost in leaving the organization.

There was a third element of commitment introduced, according to Allen and Meyer (1990), which was normative commitment, and it reflected a perceived obligation to remain with the organization. Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) later revised the normative commitment scale to offer a clarification of the distinction between affective commitment and normative commitment.

Earlier versions (Meyer and Allen, 1984, 1991; Allen and Meyer, 1990) of the OCQ contained 24 items (8 items for each scale), but the later version by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) and Meyer and Allen (1997) held only 18 items (6 items for each scale). The change affected, for the most part, the normative scale, but not the affective and continuance scales (Meyer et al. 1999).

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) is a self-scoring questionnaire. The 6 item responses are rated based on a 5-point Likert scale with anchors labeled: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

Allen and Meyer (1990) showed the relationships between the commitment scales revealed the continuance commitment scale to be relatively independent: affective ($p < .001$, $r = .06$) and normative ($p < .001$, $r = .14$). The correlations between the affective and normative scales were statistically significant and relatively strong ($p < .001$, $r = .51$). Cohen (1996) obtained similar findings: normative and affective (non-significant, $r = .06$), and continuance and affective (non-significant, $r = .02$).

Several studies have examined the reliability (alphas) of the OCQ. Allen and Meyer (1997) reported .87 for affective commitment scale (ACS) (items 3, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16), .75 for continuance commitment scale (CCS) (items 1, 4, 7, 9, 14, 17), and .79 for normative commitment scale (NCS) (items 2, 5, 11, 13, 15, 18). Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) found alpha ranges of .74 to .87 for affective, .73 to .81 for continuance, and .7 to .78 for normative. Cohen (1996) discovered alphas of .79 for affective, .69 for continuance, and .65 for normative.

Meyer et al. (1999) performed a meta-analysis of studies using both the 6-item and 8-item OCQ by collecting data from those who had asked permission to use the OCQ over the last 15 years. They also used information from computer databases dating back to 1985. The mean reliability from all the studies was .82 for affective, .73 for continuance, and .76 for normative.

Examples of items from the OCQ questionnaire include: (a) affective commitment – I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization; (b) continuance commitment – it would be difficult to leave the organization at this time, even if I wanted to; and normative commitment – this organization deserves my loyalty.

Translation and Back Translation

For this study, the instrument was translated into Arabic from its original English version. To overcome naturally occurring translation problems, in this study, the researcher used the "back translation" method. This technique is considered an effective method in helping to ensure a valid translation. Hofstede (1981) recommended such procedures of back translation and content validation for cross-national research instruments into another language.

Three faculty members and researchers in a Saudi University were asked to translate the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire into Arabic. In order to avoid any threats to validity that might occur, those involved in the translation were not made aware of the back translation of the Arabic version into English when given the first version of the instrument. In order make comparisons and look for any differences in meaning in the instrument, the Arabic version was gathered from faculty and researchers.

One week later, the researcher asked the translators to back translate the Arabic version to English. This request was done by the researcher with full awareness of reasonable time allowances between the translation and back translation so that possible contamination could be avoided. A comparison was made of the English and Arabic versions of the questionnaire, which was then corrected so that the two versions matched each other.

During a pilot study a pretest was conducted to determine if the instrument was valid and reliable. The study also allowed for any adjustments or changes that were needed. The study pretested several things, among which were wording, format, length, layout, and coverage. By doing this the researcher made corrections that might have an effect on the validity and reliability of the instrument prior to conducting a survey of the IPA faculty members.

The Pilot Study

This study utilized a test-retest method to assess the reliability of the questionnaire. In order to achieve that, a pilot study was carried out in which the researcher chose a group of twenty members of IPA's faculty. They were given the questionnaire in its Arabic version. Following completion of these questionnaires, they were collected immediately. After one week, the group was given the questionnaires for the second time.

In order to examine the reliability of the Arabic version of the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on the responses of the group in the two times. The group's Chronbach's alpha the first time was .867 with item means of 3.27 and item variances of (1.57). The mean for the scale at the test stage was 59.6 with a variance of 146.4 and a standard deviation of (12.12). For the second time (retest), the group achieved a Chronbach's alpha of .878 with item means of 3.32 and item variance of (1.33). The mean for the scale at the retest stage was 58.4 with a variance of 144.4 and a standard deviation of (12.01).

Content Validity

According to Kerlinger (1986), how representative or adequate as a sample the content of an instrument of measurement is defined as content validity. The content validity is dependent upon the level at which an experiential measurement is reflective of a specific area of content. It is important that adequate coverage by the instrument of measurement be given to the most vital features of the concept being studied according to Churchill (1988). Therefore, the level of content validity of the instrument is dependent upon the scope of its coverage. An instrument of measurement that fails to measure the contents of the construct under investigation has no content validity. According to Kerlinger (1986) content validity is judgmental in nature. The researcher looked at the content validity of both the Arabic and English versions of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire by seeking four experts to give their evaluations of the content of both translations.

The Population of the Study

The population of the study was the Institute of Public Administration's faculty who work full time, and who are subjected to the civil service laws and regulations. The official number of those faculty is 587. The following table shows the number of faculty at both headquarter and the IPA's branches.

Table 23: Distribution of the IPA's faculty by branche

	Headquarter	Women's Branch	Jeddah Branch	Dammam Branch	Total
Faculty	412 70%	67 12%	55 9%	53 9%	587 100%

(IPA's Annual Reports, 2003)

The Jeddah and Dammam branches were excluded in this study because they represent only 21 % of the whole IPA population with only 18% of the total faculty population. On the other hand, the headquarters and women's branch represent 79% of the whole IPA population and 82% of the faculty population. The women's branch was kept to serve the purpose of the study as it represents the gender factor, in order to measure its effect on organizational commitment based on the gender variable. Also, this branch is located in Riyadh, which will help save time for the researcher.

Furthermore, the time limitation on the researcher put some constraints on including those two branches. Additionally, the IPA's headquarters and the three branches are very similar in many ways. The same management directs them. They are budgeted and financed by Saudi government subsidization. All have the same hierarchy of structure and the same levels of jobs. The job description for each level is the same for headquarter and all branches. Moreover, all of them have the same personnel system, thus faculty members who are in the same level either in the headquarter or in the branches are equal in promotions, payments, vacations, and retirement. They form one organization (IPA), which makes them seek to accomplish the same objectives and activities, which are the training, consultations, research, and documentation. Work environment settings in the IPA's headquarter and branches are very similar in terms of facilities, equipment, labs, training rooms, conference rooms, and office space and sports gym. Finally, this study does not intend to assess the effect of geographic location on organizational commitment.

A total of 479 faculty members (the number of the IPA headquarters and women's branch faculty) at the Institute of Public Administration comprised the sampling frame for this study. Of the IPA populations, 74% are Saudis while non-Saudis compose 26%. Saudi faculty form 80 % of the training workforce at the IPA while non-faculty Saudis form only 67% of the non-faculty population. Female faculty members represent only 9% of all IPA's faculty and 11.5 % of the sampling frame. Faculty members represent 49 % of the whole IPA population.

Sample Selection

All faculty members in the headquarters and women's branch were selected as the study sample to avoid selection bias. The sample group for the study numbered 479 with 450 of the questionnaires distributed in both the headquarters and the women's branch of the IPA. The questionnaires were given to those who were in the initial consenting group of participants. Of the 450 that were distributed, only 322 were completed and returned, which equals 71.5% of the questionnaires distributed and represents 67% of the faculty members in the headquarters and the women's branch. This percentage represents 55% of the entire faculty of the IPA.

Data Collection Procedure

Each participant was given a package that included the cover letter, instrument questionnaire (OCQ), a demographic and job-related factors questionnaire, a 4 x 6 card and a self-addressed envelope for returns. This was mailed out through the IPA internal mail system using faculty name control lists for distribution. There were no identifiers or codes on the questionnaires. The employee mailroom at both headquarters, and at the women's branch, contained a sealed collection box for the return of completed questionnaires. A separate collection box was also in place for the signed 4 x 6 cards. Respondents were asked to complete and return their surveys within a week of receiving the package, then to sign and return the 4 x 6 card to its box 48 hours after depositing the questionnaire.

At the end of the two-week period these cards were used to compare to the IPA faculty lists for any follow-up or to make a secondary distribution of questionnaires. This method of collection was chosen in order to reduce collection time and the risk of loss of the items. Two weeks after the first distribution of survey items, a second and final request, identical to the first, was made. The second request was sent only to those who had signed the consent form, but had not returned the questionnaire in the first request.

The study was conducted during the working hours in the middle of the spring semester in 2004, which helped ensure that most of the subjects were not on vacation. The data collection procedure took about five weeks in total.

The cover letters emphasized that the reason for conducting this study was to measure faculty's organizational commitment for further improvement in the IPA. Also, the letter emphasized that it is very important to take answering the questionnaire seriously. Moreover, the letter expressed that the identity of subjects and the information that they put in the questionnaire would be treated with a high level of confidentiality. Finally, subjects were asked to sign the 4 x 6 cards and return them to the card collection box 48 hours after depositing the questionnaire to avoid the necessity of making further requests (a copy of the OCQ and the cover letter are included in Appendix B).

Data Analysis

Before the data was analyzed in this study several steps were taken for analysis. First, the level of significance for this study was set to be .05 (alpha level) = .05; Ho will be rejected if $p<.05$. This level of significance helps in controlling the balance between Type I and Type II errors; the significance level was fixed at a=.05 (Hair, 1998).

Second, the size effect was set to be .20 considering the sample size and power desired for the study (Cohen, 1988). The third step was the determination of the level of power desired. For this study a minimum power level was set at .80 (Cohen, 1988). Fourth, the data was prepared by checking the missing data and outliers. The manner of handling missing data and outliers was recognized since data had to be prepared before data analysis could be done (Trochim, 2002). Finally, the data was compiled by using version 12 of SPSS.

Statistical Tests

Several tests were conducted to obtain the research objectives. The first was a test of normality. These techniques include checking the Box plot for each variable (the normal range is between 25% and 75%); z scores (must be 3-4 with the study sample size); P- Plot and Scatterplot (sloping left up at a 45-degree); Skewness (skewed if out of the range of – 1 to + 1); and Kurtosis (z kurtosis = kurtosis/square root of 24/N). The second step was to test relationships through the Pearson correlation coefficient. The null hypothesis was rejected if the correlation value differed from 0 (Optimal correlation is between ± .60 and ± 1.0). Pearson's Correlation Coefficient indicates the strength of the association between any two metric variables. Third, descriptive statistics were used such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation, variance, and crosstabs. Fourth, simple individual regression analysis was utilized to assess the relationship between the dependent variable (organization commitment) and each of the selected independent variables. Fifth, this study used logistic regression, which is the appropriate statistical technique when the dependent variable is non-metric (dichotomous or categorical) and the independent variables are metric. Finally, several statistical tests were used in testing hypotheses such as Chi-square, unstandardized beta coefficients, and Wald statistic.

CHAPTER V RESULTS

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section defines the statistical power and the level of significance used in this study. The second section discusses the procedures used for data examination. The third section presents the respondents' characteristics across each of the variables used in this study. The final section discusses the hypothesis testing.

Statistical Power and Statistical Significance

Before examining data, the study established certain acceptable levels and statistical errors that determine the interpretation of the inferential statistics of the population. These are Type I error and Type II error, effect size, power and sample size (Huck, 2000).

Type I error (α) is the probability of rejecting a true hypothesis. It is defined as the level of significance; thus, this study employed the (.05) level of significance. Type II error (β) is the probability of accepting a false hypothesis. This study employed the (.95) level as the base for determining Type II error.

The effect size (ES) is an estimate of the degree to which there are correlations or differences in means between the sample and the population. This study specified .20 as the effect size.

Power ($1-\beta$) is the probability of accepting a true hypothesis. This study specified .80 as the least desired power level (Cohen, 1988). The minimum sample size is 200 given

$\alpha = .05$, $\beta = .95$, ES=.20 and power = .80. The sample size for this study was 322, 122 cases above the minimum specified sample size.

Data Examination

The data were checked for outliers, which are identified as being more than 1.5 box lengths from the 75th percentile, where the box length represents the values of the middle 50% of the cases. Outlier values were examined and a decision was made to keep them for the analysis. Normality of data was checked and all z-scores were <3 for all variables, which indicates relative standing in a distribution without regard to the unit of measurement in the original raw scores. Skewness is frequency distribution whose shape is asymmetrical. When frequencies are high for high score values and tail off in the direction of low score values, the distribution is described as negatively skewed. When frequencies tail off in the direction of higher score values, the distribution is described as positively skewed. Kurtosis is a measure of the peaks or the flatness of a distribution when compared with a normal distribution. A positive value indicates a relatively peaked distribution, and a negative value indicates a relatively flat distribution. Skewness and Kurtosis are presented in table 24.

Data was checked for missing values by assigning all missing values of each variable a zero and all non-missing values a "1." This was done for all variables that have missing values using the computing function in SPSS for windows. A new set of dichotomous variables was created to test bivariate correlations. Correlations between variables leaned to zero, which suggests that the missing data was missing completely at random and that there was no need for special treatment (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1998). Annual salary received the highest number of missing responses (13 missing cases out of 322). Organizational tenure received the second highest number of missing responses (9 missing cases out of 322). Due to the relatively low number of missing values, all 322 cases were used for the analysis. Table 24 shows the missing data by variables

Table 24: Missing data by variables

Variables	Valid	Missing	Percent	Skewness	Kurtosis
	322	0	0.0	-1.151	-.681
Nationality					
Age	318	4	1.2	.497	-.396
Gender	322	0	0.0	2.051	2.220
Education	322	0	0.0	-.005	-.134
Occupation level	320	2	0.6	1.151	.906
Job Type	322	0	0.0	1.209	-.542
Organizational Tenure	313	9	2.8	.779	-.417
Annual Salary	309	13	4.0	.613	-.252
Q1	321	1	0.3	-.080	-1.575
Q2	320	2	0.6	.453	-1.249
Q3	321	1	0.3	-.104	-1.193
Q4	321	1	0.3	.118	-1.502
Q5	319	3	0.9	-.131	-1.432
Q6	322	0	0.0	-.396	-1.164
Q7	320	2	0.6	-.347	-1.357
Q8	322	0	0.0	.915	-.304
Q9	322	0	0.0	.030	-1.531
Q10	322	0	0.0	.999	-.014
Q11	321	1	0.3	.034	-1.220
Q12	322	0	0.0	1.012	-.125
Q13	322	0	0.0	-.764	-.602
Q14	318	4	1.2	-.326	-1.199
Q15	321	1	0.3	-.262	-1.265
Q16	320	2	0.6	-.572	-.923
Q17	321	1	0.3	-.047	-1.463
Q18	319	3	0.6	-.812	-.449
Continuance commitment	314	8	2.5	.059	-.975
Affective commitment	320	2	.6	-.665	-.358
Normative commitment	316	6	1.8	-.318	-.873
Overall commitment	322	0	0	.316	-1.912

Cronbach's alpha reliability test was applied to each of the three commitment scales. Cronbach's alpha reliability test measures how well the three scales reflect the true level of commitment. The Continuance Commitment scale was highly reliable (Cronbach's alpha=.851, Reliability Coefficients=6, N=314). The Affective commitment was also shown to be highly reliable (Cronbach's alpha=.876, Reliability Coefficients=6, N=320). Though still considered high, the Normative commitment scale had the lowest Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach's alpha=.836, Reliability Coefficients=6, N=316).

Respondents Characteristics

Nationality

As shown in table 25, of the 322 respondents, 81 (25.2%) were non-Saudis and 241 (74.8%) were Saudis. Sixty-seven of the non-Saudis respondents were male (82.7%), and 14 of the non-Saudis respondents were female (17.3%). Saudi respondents, on the other hand, were composed of 209 males (86.7%) and 32 females (13.3%).

Nine of the non-Saudi respondents have bachelor degrees (11.1%), 47 have master degrees (58.0%) and 25 hold doctorates (30.9%). In comparison, there were 44 Saudi respondents with bachelor degrees (18.3%), 162 with master degrees (67.2%) and 35 with doctorate degrees (14.5%).

The number of non-Saudi respondents varies across all four occupational levels. Forty-three non-Saudi respondents indicated that they were at the seventh or eighth level (53.1%), 31 at ninth to tenth or the level of assistant professor (38.3%), 4 at the eleventh to twelfth or associate professor level (4.9%), and only 1 reached the thirteenth to fourteenth level or full professor (1.2%). Meanwhile, 119 of the Saudi respondents indicated that they were at the seventh or eighth occupational level (49.4%), 87 were at the ninth to tenth or assistant professor level (36.1%), 24 at eleventh and twelfth or the associate professor level (10.0%), and 11 at the level of thirteenth to fourteenth or full professor (4.6%).

Seventy-seven of the non-Saudi respondents reported that they hold non-managerial positions (95.1%), while only 4 of them indicated that they hold a managerial position at the IPA (4.9%). In contrast, 167 Saudi respondents reported that they do not hold a managerial position (69.3%), while 74 reported that they hold managerial positions at the IPA (30.7%). Non-Saudi respondents have an average age of approximately 43 (M=42.9, SD=8.4), an average organizational tenure of nearly 7 years (M=6.9, SD=5.7), and an average annual salary of roughly $27,500 (M=$27,492, SD=$8,347). Saudi respondents are younger at approximately 36 years old (M=35.9, SD=7.9), have a higher organizational tenure of nearly 12 years (M=11.8, SD= 8.2), and a higher annual salary, averaging nearly $31,500 (M=$31,347, SD=$10,943), than their non-Saudi colleagues.

Table 25: Nationality across other variables

Variables		Nationality		
		Non-Saudis	Saudis	Total
	Frequency	81	241	322
	Percentage	25.2	74.8	100
Age	N	78	240	318
	Mean	42.85	35.94	37.64
	SD	8.402	7.879	8.532
Gender	Male	82.7%	86.7%	276
	Female	17.3%	13.3%	46
	Total	81	241	322
Education	Bachelor	11.1%	18.3%	53
	Master	58%	67.2%	209
	Doctorate	30.9%	14.5%	60
	Total	81	241	322
Occupation	$7^{th} – 8^{th}$	53.1%	49.4%	162
	$9^{th} – 10^{th}$ & assistant prof	38.3%	36.1%	118
	$11^{th} – 12^{th}$ & Associate prof.	4.9%	10%	28
	$13^{th} – 14^{th}$ & full prof.	1.2%	4.6%	12
	Total	79	241	320
Job Type	N0	95.1%	69.3%	244
	Yes	4.9%	30.7%	78
	Total	81	241	322
Salary	N	71	238	309
	Mean	$27,492	$31,675	$30,717
	SD	$8,347	$10,943	$10,538
Tenure	N	79	234	313
	Mean	6.94	11.79	10.56
	SD	5.750	8.211	7.941

Age

Table 25 shows the ages across other demographic variables. Of the 322 respondents, 318 reported their age. The minimum age was 23 while the maximum age was 60 years. The mean for respondents' age was 37.64 years with a standard deviation of 8.53. The variance of age was 72.8.

The average age for male respondents (M=37.64, SD=8.65) is slightly higher than the average age for female respondents (M=37.59, SD=7.9). The average age for respondents who hold a doctorate degree (M=43.11, SD=7.3) is about five years older than that of master degree holders (M=38.37, SD=7.78) and is about 14 years older than bachelor degree holders (M=28.87, SD=5.66).

Age also varies across occupational level where seventh to eighth had an average age of about 33 years (M=32.89, SD=7.2). The ninth to tenth or assistant professor group had a higher average age, about 40 years, than the seventh to eighth group (M=40, SD=6.4). The eleventh to twelfth or associate professor group had an even higher age, 47 years, than both first and second groups (M=47, SD=4.51). The thirteenth to fourteenth or full professor group was the oldest among occupational level groups with an average age of just over 50 (M=50.17, SD=5.1). Table 26 shows the variations of age means and standard deviations across other variables.

Table 26: Age across other variables

Variables		N	Age Mean	Age Std. Deviation
Gender	Male	272	37.64	8.649
	Female	46	37.59	7.898
Education Level	Bachelor	53	28.87	5.664
	Master	208	38.37	7.783
	Doctorate	57	43.11	7.292
Occupational Level	7th – 8th	161	32.89	7.239
	9th – 10th & assistant prof.	115	40.57	6.425
	11th – 12th & Associate prof.	28	47.29	4.512
	13th – 14th & full prof	12	50.17	5.184
Job Type	Non-Managerial	240	35.84	8.223
	Managerial	78	43.15	6.996
Annual salary		308	37.52	8.472
Organizational Tenure		310	37.73	8.577

Gender

Of the 322 respondents who reported gender, 276 were male (85.7%), and 46 were female (14.3%). Fifty of the male respondents have bachelor degrees (18.1%), 173 have master degrees (62.7%) and 53 hold doctorates (19.2%). In comparison, there were 3 female respondents with bachelor degrees (6.5%), 36 with master degrees (78.3%) and 7 with doctorate degrees (15.2%).

The number of male respondents varies across all four occupational levels with 142 indicating that they were at the seventh or eighth level (51.8%), 93 at ninth to tenth or the level of assistant professor (33.9%), 28 at the eleventh to twelfth or associate professor level (10.2%), and only 11 at the thirteenth to fourteenth level of full professor (4.1%). Meanwhile, 20 of the female respondents indicated that they were at the seventh or eighth occupational level (43.5%), 25 were at the ninth to tenth or assistant professor level (54.4%), and 1 was at the level of thirteenth to fourteenth or full professor (2.1%).

Two-hundred twelve male respondents reported that they hold non-managerial positions (76.8%), while only 64 of them indicated that they hold a managerial position at the IPA (23.2%). In contrast, 32 female respondents reported that they do not hold a managerial position (69.6%), while 14 reported that they hold managerial positions at the IPA (30.4%).

Male respondents have an average annual salary of roughly $31,000 (M=$31,021, SD=$10,809) and an average organizational tenure of nearly 11 years (M=10.97, SD=8.1). Female respondents have a lower annual salary of roughly $29,000 (M= $28,961, SD=$8,744), and have an organizational tenure of about 8 years (M=8.22, SD= 6.5), lower than their male colleagues. Table 27 shows the variation of gender across other variables.

Table 27: Gender across other variables

Variables		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
	Frequency	276	46	322
	Percentage	85.7%	14.3%	100
Education	Bachelor	18.1%	6.5%	53
	Master	62.7%	78.3%	209
	Doctorate	19.2%	15.2%	60
	Total	276	46	322
Occupation	$7^{th} - 8^{th}$	51.8%	43.5%	162
	$9^{th} - 10^{th}$ & assistant prof	33.9%	54.4%	118
	$11^{th} - 12^{th}$ & Associate prof.	10.2%	0.0%	28
	$13^{th} - 14^{th}$ & full prof.	4.1%	2.1%	12
	Total	274	46	320
Job Type	No	76.8%	69.6%	244
	Yes	23.2%	30.4%	78
	Mean	276	46	
Salary	N	263	46	309
	Mean	$31,021	$28,961	$30,717
	SD	$10,809	$8,744	$10,538
Tenure	N	267	46	313
	Mean	10.97	8.22	10.56
	SD	8.101	6.538	7.941

Educational Level

Of the 322 respondents, 53 faculty members hold a bachelor's degree (16.5%), 207 faculty members hold master's degrees (64.3%), and 60 faculty members hold doctorate degrees (18.6%). Fifty-three faculty members who hold bachelor's degrees indicated that they were at the seventh or eighth occupational levels (100%). One-hundred eight respondents who hold master's degrees indicated that they were at the seventh or eighth occupational level (52.2%), 65 at the ninth or tenth level (31.4%), 25 at the eleventh or twelfth level (12.1%), and only 9 had reached the thirteenth or fourteenth level (4.3%). Meanwhile, 54 of the respondents who hold doctorate degrees indicated that they were at the level of assistant professor (90%), 3 were at the level of associate professor (5%), and 3 had attained the level of full professor (5%).

Fifty-two respondents who hold bachelor's degrees indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (98.1%), and only 1 holds a managerial position (1.9%). One-hundred fifty-four of respondents who hold master's degrees indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (73.7%), and 55 indicated that they hold managerial positions (26.3%). Thirty-eight of the respondents who hold doctorate degrees indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (63.3%), and 22 indicated that they hold managerial positions (36.7%).

Respondents who hold bachelor's degrees have an average annual salary of roughly \$19,500 (M=\$19,558, SD=\$3,712), and an average organizational tenure of nearly 3 years (M=2.79, SD=1.9). Respondents who hold master's degrees have a higher average annual salary of roughly \$32,500 (M=\$32,537, SD=\$10,291), and have a higher organizational tenure of nearly 12 years (M=11.9, SD=7.9). Respondents who hold doctorate degrees have the highest salary with an average of roughly \$34,600 (M= 34,602, SD=8,858), and the highest average organizational tenure of nearly 13 years (M=12.84, SD=7.3). Table 28 illustrates the variation of educational level across other variables

Table 28: Education across other variables

Variables		Education			
		Bachelor	Master	Doctorate	Total
	Frequency	53	209	60	322
	Percentage	16.5%	64.9%	18.6%	100
Occupation	7th – 8th	100%	52.2%	0.0%	161
	9th – 10th & assistant prof.	0.0%	31.4%	90%	119
	11th – 12th & Associate prof.	0.0%	12.1%	5%	28
	13th – 14th & full prof.	0.0%	4.3%	5%	12
	Total	53	207	60	
Job Type	N0	98.1%	73.7%	63.3%	244
	Yes	1.9%	26.3%	36.7%	78
	Total	53	209	60	322
Salary	N	52	203	54	309
	Mean	$19,558	$32,537	$34,602	$30,717
	SD	$3,712	$10,291	$8,858	$10,538
Tenure	N	52	203	58	313
	Mean	2.79	11.90	12.84	10.56
	SD	1.903	7.915	7.288	7.941

Occupational Level

Of the 322 respondents, 162 faculty members are in the seventh or eighth occupational level (50.3%), 118 are in the ninth to tenth level or assistant professor (36.6%), 28 are in the eleventh to twelfth level or associate professor (8.7%), and only 12 have reached the thirteenth to fourteenth level or full professor (3.7%).

One-hundred fifty-six respondents who are in the occupational level of seventh or eighth indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (96.3%), and only 6 hold managerial positions (3.7%). Seventy-five respondents who are in the occupational level of ninth to tenth or assistant professor indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (63.6%), and 43 hold managerial positions (36.4%). Nine of the respondents who are in the occupational level of eleventh to twelfth or associate professor indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (32.1%), and 19 hold managerial positions (67.9%). Two of the respondents who are in the occupational level of thirteenth to fourteenth or full professor indicated that they hold non-managerial positions at the IPA (16.7%), and 10 hold managerial positions (83.3%).

Respondents who are in the seventh or eighth occupational level have an average annual salary of roughly $23,000 (M= $23,446, SD=$5,444), and an average organizational tenure of about 5 years (M=5.03, SD=3.1). Respondents who are in the ninth to tenth occupational level or assistant professor have a higher average annual salary of roughly $35,000 (M= $34,930, SD=$6,585), and a higher average organizational tenure of nearly 14 years (M=13.68, SD=6.11). Respondents who have eleventh to twelfth or associate professor occupational level have a higher average annual salary of roughly $46,000 (M= $46,049, SD=$6,102), and a higher average organizational tenure, nearly 22 years (M=21.93, SD=6.82), than their colleagues in the previous groups. Respondents who have thirteenth to fourteenth or full professor occupational level have the highest average annual salary of roughly $56,000 (M= $55,738, SD=$1,881), and the highest average organizational tenure, about 25 years (M=25.1, SD=6.97), among the occupational level groups. Table 29 illustrates the variation of occupational level across other variables.

Table 29: Occupational level across other variables

Variables		Occupational Level				
		7^{th} – 8^{th}	9^{th} – 10^{th} & assistant prof Master	11^{th} – 12^{th} & Associate prof.	13^{th} – 14^{th} & full prof.	Total
	Frequency	162	118	28	12	320
	Percentage	50.3	36.6%	8.7%	3.7%	99.4
Job Type	Non-managerial	96.3%	63.6%	32.1%	16.7%	242
	Managerial	3.7%	36.4%	67.9%	83.3%	78
	Total	162	118	28	12	320
Salary	N	158	112	27	11	308
	Mean	$23,446	$34,930	$46,049	$55,738	$30,756
	SD	$5,444	$6,585	$6,102	$1,881	$10,530
Tenure	N	155	116	28	12	311
	Mean	5.03	13.68	21.93	25.08	10.55
	SD	3.094	6.107	6.825	6.973	7.948

Type of Job

As shown in table 5.7, of the 322 respondents, 244 (75.8%) hold non-managerial positions at the IPA and 78 hold managerial positions (24.2%). Non-managerial respondents have an average annual salary of nearly $27,000 (M=26,983, SD=8,153), and an average organizational tenure of nearly 8 years (M=7.97, SD=6.3). Managerial respondents have a higher average annual salary of roughly $42,000 (M=$41,763, SD=$8,965), and a higher average organizational tenure, about 19 years (M=18.66, SD=7.1), than non-managerial respondents. Table 30 shows the variation of job type across annual salary and organizational tenure.

Table 30: Job type across other variables

Variables		Job Type (Managerial-Non-Managerial)		
		No	Yes	Total
	Frequency	244	78	322
	Percentage	75.8	24.2	100
Salary	N	231	78	309
	Mean	$26,983	$41,764	$30,717
	SD	$8,154	$8,965	$10,538
Tenure	N	237	76	313
	Mean	7.97	18.66	10.56
	SD	6.279	7.110	7.941

Annual Salary

Of the 322 respondents, 309 faculty members reported their annual salary with a mean of $30,717 and a standard deviation of $10,538.

Organizational Tenure

Of the 322 respondents, 313 faculty members reported their organizational tenure with a mean of 10.56 years and a standard deviation of 7.94 years.

Organizational Commitment

Of the 322 respondents, 314 faculty members answered the items on the continuance commitment scale (M=19.01, SD=6.62), 320 answered the items on the affective commitment scale (M=21.17, SD=5.95), and 316 answered the items on the normative commitment scale (M=20.11, SD=5.88). The overall commitment dummy variable has 322 cases (M=.42, SD=.495).

Table 31: Descriptive statistics by variables

Variables	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Range	Min	Max
Nationality	322	.75	.435	.189	1	0	1
Age	318	37.64	8.532	72.800	37	23	60
Gender	322	.14	.350	.123	1	0	1
Education	322	1.02	.593	.352	2	0	2
Occupation level	320	.66	.792	.628	3	0	3
Job Type	322	.24	.429	.184	1	0	1
Annual Salary	309	$30,717	$10,539	$11,106	$44,000	$13,600	$57,600
Organizational Tenure	313	10.56	7.941	63.061	32	1	33
Q1	321	3.10	1.540	2.371	4	1	5
Q2	320	2.49	1.394	1.943	4	1	5
Q3	321	3.12	1.328	1.763	4	1	5
Q4	321	2.99	1.464	2.144	4	1	5
Q5	319	3.18	1.389	1.929	4	1	5
Q6	322	3.25	1.303	1.698	4	1	5
Q7	320	3.30	1.449	2.099	4	1	5
Q8	322	2.24	1.243	1.545	4	1	5
Q9	322	3.08	1.477	2.183	4	1	5
Q10	322	2.23	1.209	1.461	4	1	5
Q11	321	2.93	1.286	1.655	4	1	5
Q12	322	2.16	1.240	1.538	4	1	5
Q13	322	3.63	1.293	1.673	4	1	5
Q14	318	3.34	1.326	1.757	4	1	5
Q15	321	3.20	1.311	1.718	4	1	5
Q16	320	3.45	1.271	1.615	4	1	5
Q17	321	3.15	1.451	2.107	4	1	5
Q18	319	3.67	1.216	1.478	4	1	5
Continuance commitment	314	19.01	6.617	43.783	24	6	30
Affective commitment	320	21.17	5.954	35.453	24	6	30
Normative commitment	316	20.11	5.861	34.353	24	6	30
Overall commitment	322	.42	.495	.245	1	6	30

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing for this study employed several statistical tests. The two main hypotheses, H1and H2, were tested using the Pearson's correlation coefficient and linear regressions for continuance, affective, and normative commitment. A binary logistic regression was used to test the hypotheses H1 and H2 for overall commitment. An overall commitment dummy variable was created by recording a value of 1 for high committed when all three commitment scales were high or medium and a value of 0 otherwise.

Each of the sub-hypotheses (H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H2a, H2b, H2c, H2d) were tested using Pearson's chi square test statistics in the cross-tabulations, Pearson's correlation coefficients, and linear regressions for continuance, affective, and normative commitment. In order to obtain cross-tabulations with few enough cells to receive meaningful test statistics, the scales of continuance, affective, and normative commitment were computed into three new variables (continuancegroup, affectivegroup, and normativegroup) with three levels of commitment in each (high, medium, low). Binary logistic regressions were used to test each of the sub-hypotheses of the overall commitment.

Assumptions for treating co-linearity

The correlation matrix shows that the following pairs of variables are highly collinear: annual salary and occupational level ($r=.83$, $p<.01$), annual salary and organizational tenure ($r=.88$, $p<.01$), annual salary and age of respondents ($r=.69$, $p<.01$), organizational tenure and occupational level ($r=.77$, $p<.01$), and age and organizational tenure ($r=.62$, $p<.01$).

Table 32: Correlations matrix

		Nationality	Age	Gender	Education	Occupation	Job Type	Tenure	Salary	continuance commit.	Affective commit.	normative commit.
Nationality	Pearson Correlation	1										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.										
	N	322										
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.349(**)	1									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.									
	N	318	318									
Gender	Pearson Correlation	-.050	-.002	1								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.374	.967	.								
	N	322	318	322								
Education	Pearson Correlation	-.172(**)	.487(**)	.045	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.421	.							
	N	322	318	322	322							
Occupation	Pearson Correlation	.090	.622(**)	-.025	.422(**)	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.107	.000	.661	.000	.						
	N	320	316	320	320	320						
Job Type	Pearson Correlation	.261(**)	.369(**)	.059	.236(**)	.550(**)	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.290	.000	.000	.					
	N	322	318	322	322	320	322					
Tenure	Pearson Correlation	.266(**)	.577(**)	-.123(*)	.365(**)	.776(**)	.578(**)	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.030	.000	.000	.000	.				
	N	313	310	313	313	311	313	313				
Salary	Pearson Correlation	.167(**)	.693(**)	-.070	.415(**)	.832(**)	.610(**)	.884(**)	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	.222	.000	.000	.000	.000	.			
	N	309	308	309	309	308	309	302	309			
Continuance commit.	Pearson Correlation	.097	-.427(**)	-.280(**)	.164(**)	-.447(**)	-.415(**)	-.360(**)	-.412(**)	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.087	.000	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.		
	N	314	310	314	314	312	314	305	301	314		
Affective commit.	Pearson Correlation	-.014	.170(**)	.157(**)	-.054	.190(**)	.285(**)	.188(**)	.191(**)	-.362(**)	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.804	.002	.005	.334	.001	.000	.001	.001	.000	.	
	N	320	316	320	320	318	320	311	307	313	320	
Normative commit.	Pearson Correlation	-.020	.182(**)	.194(**)	-.089	.207(**)	.283(**)	.173(**)	.159(**)	-.352(**)	.805(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.720	.001	.001	.112	.000	.000	.002	.005	.000	.000	.
	N	316	312	316	316	314	316	307	303	311	315	316
Overallcommt.	Pearson Correlation	-.098	.259(**)	.262(**)	.043	.241(**)	.309(**)	.178(**)	.193(**)	-.609(**)	.613(**)	.622(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.078	.000	.000	.443	.000	.000	.002	.001	.000	.000	.000
	N	322	318	322	322	320	322	313	309	314	320	316

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

This study examined two approaches as possible solutions for reducing the effect of such high co-linearity in all of the organizational commitment (continuance, affective, and normative) regressions. The first approach was to enter each one of these variables (age, occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure) into the regression model unilaterally (Hair, Anderson, and Black, 1998). The second approach was to compute a new dummy variable, which combines these four variables into a new variable, agocctensal (Huck, 2000).

The first approach resulted in the independent variables explaining a relatively higher percentage of the changes in dependent variable (2-4% higher adjusted R square) for each type of organizational commitment than the second approach of combining variables. Also, the first approach resulted in higher predictability for overall commitment using binary logistic regression. Moreover, it allowed for testing each sub-hypothesis related to these variables independently. However, this study adopted both approaches for completeness.

H1: *There is a statistically significant relationship between demographics (nationality, age, gender, and education) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public administration's faculty.*

The Pearson's correlation coefficient was employed to test this hypothesis. Age, gender and education were significantly correlated with organizational commitment. Age was significantly correlated to continuance commitment ($r= -.43$, $N=310$, $p<.05$), affective commitment ($r=.17$, $N=316$, $p<.05$), normative commitment ($r=.182$, $N=312$, $p<.05$), and to overall commitment ($r=.259$, $N=318$, $p<.05$). Gender was also significantly correlated to continuance commitment ($r= -.28$, $N=314$, $p<.05$), affective commitment ($r=.157$, $N=320$, p<.005), normative commitment (r=.194, N=316, p<.05), and to overall commitment (r=.262, N=322, p<.05). Education was significantly correlated to only continuance commitment (r= -.164, N=314, p<.05). These significant relationships tend to support the hypothesis (H1) as stated and suggest rejecting the null hypothesis (H1o).

H2: *There is a statistically significant relationship between job-related factors (occupational level, type of job, job pay and organizational tenure) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration's faculty.*

The Pearson's correlation coefficient was analyzed to test this hypothesis. The correlation matrix shows that occupational level, job type, annual salary and organizational tenure were all significantly correlated with organizational commitment. Occupational level was significantly correlated to continuance commitment (r= -.447, N=312, p<.05), affective commitment (r=.19, N=318, p<.05), normative commitment (r=.207, N=314, p<.05), and to overall commitment (r=.241, N=320, p<.05). Job type was also significantly correlated to continuance commitment (r= -.415, N=314, p<.05), affective commitment (r=.285, N=320, p<.05), normative commitment (r=.283, N=316, p<.05), and to overall commitment (r=.309, N=322, p<.05). Organizational tenure was also significantly correlated to continuance commitment (r= -.36, N=305, p<.05), affective commitment (r=.188, N=311, p<.05), normative commitment (r=.173, N=307, p<.05), and to overall commitment (r=.178, N=313, p<.05). Annual salary was also significantly correlated to continuance commitment (r= -.412, N=301, p<.05), affective commitment (r=.191, N=307, p<.05), normative commitment (r=.159, N=303, p<.05), and to overall commitment (r=.193, N=309, p<.05). These significant relationships tend to support the hypothesis (H2) as stated and suggest rejecting the null hypothesis (H2o).

For further testing of H1 and H2, a linear regression was conducted to assess the predictability of the independent variables on each of continuance, affective, and normative commitment. Also, a logistic regression was run to test both H1 and H2 for overall commitment.

COM$_i$[2] = 25.1 + 1.33 NAT - .168 AGE - 5.15 GEN + 1.411 EDU - 2.6 LOO - 3.729 TOJ - .015 ORT

Std. E	**(.070)**	**(.890)**	**(.638)**	**(.764)**	**(.973)**
Sig	**.017**	**.000**	**.028**	**.001**	**.000**

COM$_{ii}$[3] = 21.9 - 1.88 NAT+.050 AGE + 2.85 GEN - 2.46 EDU+.47 LOO + 3.86TOJ + .156 ORT

Std. E	**(.910)**	**(.637)**	**(.971)**
Sig	**.002**	**.000**	**.000**

COM$_{iii}$[4] = 20.5 - 1.5 NAT+ .105 AGE + 3.33 GEN - 3.13 EDU+ 1.16 LOO + 4.32 TOJ + .077 ORT

Std. E	**(.880)**	**(.626)**	**(.945)**
Sig	**.000**	**.000**	**.000**

A linear regression was carried out on continuance commitment. When all independent variables were entered at once, the model predicted a significant amount (36.4%) of variance in continuance commitment (adjusted R Square=.364, df1=8, df2=283, p<.001). The F statistic shows that overall the independent variables significantly explain continuance commitment (F=21.84, p<.001). Age, gender, education, occupational level, and job type were significant predictors of continuance commitment. Results of the regression model support H1 and H2 for continuance commitment and suggest rejecting the null hypothesis. A linear regression was also carried out on affective commitment. When all

[2] COMi= continuance commitment
[3] COMii= affective commitment
[4] COMiii= normative commitment

independent variables were entered at once, the model predicted a low to moderate amount of variance in affective commitment (adjusted R Square= .152, df1=8, df2=289, $p<.001$). The model explains 15.2 % of the variation in affective commitment, and the F statistic is significant ($F=7.65$, $p<.001$). The individual regression coefficients show that gender, education, and job type were the only significant predictors of affective commitment. Results of this regression model support H1 and H2 for affective commitment and suggest rejecting the null hypothesis.

A linear regression was also carried out on normative commitment. When all the dependent variables were entered at once, the model again predicted a low to moderate amount of variance in normative commitment (adjusted R Square=.198, df1=8, df2=285, $p<.001$). The independent variables explain19.8 % of the variation in normative commitment ($F=10.06$, $p<.001$). Gender, education, and job type were the only significant predictors of normative commitment. Results of the regression model support H1 and H2 for normative commitment and suggest rejecting the null hypothesis.

A binary logistic regression was carried out to test H1 and H2 on overall commitment. All of the independent variables were entered into the model. The model correctly predicted 80.9% of the cases of low overall commitment (dummy = 0), and 63% of the cases of high overall commitment (dummy = 1). Overall, the model predicted 73.3 of the cases correctly. The Cox and Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square indicate the adequacy of the model in explaining 22.4% and 30.1%, respectively, of overall commitment with a –2LL (-2 multiplied by the log of the likelihood) of 332.8. The model chi-square was significant (Chi-squre=75.9, df=10, $p<.001$). The independent variables which were significant predictors of overall commitment are gender (Wald statistics= 18.349, df=1, p<.001), job type (Wald statistics= 18.224, df=1, p<.001) , and education (Wald statistics= 5.891, df=1, p<.05). The model supports H1 and H2 and suggests rejecting the null hypotheses.

COM_{iiii}[5] =2.26 +.473 NAT+1.04 AGE+5.52 GEN+ .479EDU+.193 LOO + 5.64TOJ+1.02 ORT+1.0ANS (4)

	GEN	EDU	TOJ
Std. E	**(.399)**	**(.303)**	**(.405)**
Sig	**.000**	**.015**	**.000**

Sub-Hypotheses Testing

H1a: *Saudis are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than non-Saudis.*

The cross-tabulation between nationality and each of the three organization commitment variables shows that non-Saudis tend to have medium continuance commitment while Saudi faculty tend to have high continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was significant. (Chi=12.25, df=2, p<.01) (See table 56 in Appendix A). However, the Pearson correlation matrix shows an insignificant correlation between nationality and continuance commitment (r=.09, N=314, p = .087). Furthermore, testing for this hypothesis on continuance commitment using linear regression did not support the H1a (Beta=1.33, df=8, N=291, p=.2). There was no significant difference between Saudis and non-Saudis in explaining continuance commitment (see table 33 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest rejecting **H1a** for continuance commitment.

[5] COMiiii= overall commitment

H1a was not supported for affective commitment either. Using a cross-tabulation between nationality and affective commitment, Saudi faculty show low affective commitment, while non-Saudi faculty show medium affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was insignificant (Chi=5.084, df=2, p=.079) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix also shows that nationality and affective commitment are not significantly related (r=.014, N=320, p=.804). Furthermore, the linear regression model does not provide any support for this hypothesis (Beta=-1.88, df=8,N=297, p=.08). This indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between Saudis and non-Saudis in explaining affective commitment (see table 34 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest rejecting **H1a** for affective commitment

H1a was not supported for normative commitment either. Using a cross-tabulation between nationality and normative commitment, Saudi faculty tend to show low normative commitment, while non-Saudi faculty tend to show medium normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was insignificant (Chi=1.917, df=2, p=.383) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that nationality and normative commitment do not have a significant correlation (r= -.02, N=316, p=.72). The linear regression model further indicates that nationality is not a significant predictor for normative commitment (Beta= -1.5, df=8, N=293, p=. 154). These tests indicate that there is no significant difference between Saudis and non-Saudis in explaining normative commitment. This suggests rejecting **H1a** for normative commitment (see table 35 in Appendix A).

The cross-tabulation between nationality and the overall commitment dummy variable shows that non-Saudis have a high overall commitment, while Saudis tend to have low overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was insignificant (Chi=3.11, df=2, p=.078) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that nationality was not significantly correlated with overall commitment (r= - .098, N=322, p=.078) . The binary logistic regression indicates that nationality was not a significant predictor of overall commitment (Wald statistic= 3.11, df=1, p=.08). All of these tests suggest rejecting **H1a** for overall commitment (see table 36 in Appendix A).

H1b: *Older faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than younger faculty.*

To test **H1b** using cross-tabulations between age and the three types of organizational commitments along with the overall commitment dummy variable, age was recorded as a new variable with three age groups (young, medium, and old). Young faculty tend to have high continuance commitment while medium age faculty tend to have medium continuance commitment. Older faculty, on the other hand, tend to have low continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi= 60.85, df=6, p<.001) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that age is negatively related to continuance commitment (r= -.427, p<.001, N=310). This correlation indicates that as age increases continuance commitment decreases. The linear regression model indicates that for every one year change in age, there will be an opposite change in continuance commitment of 0.168 (Beta= -.168, df=8, N=291, p<.05). These tests did not support **H1b** in that an increase in age leads to an increase in continuance commitment (see table 33 in Appendix A).

H1b was supported also for affective commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and the grouped age variable. Young faculty show low affective commitment, while medium age faculty show medium affective commitment. Older faculty tend to have a high affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=26.95, df=6, $p<.001$) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between age and affective commitment ($r=.17$, $p<.001$, N=316). The linear regression model indicates that age did not significantly predict affective commitment (Beta=.050, df=8, N=297, p=.47) (see table 34 in Appendix A). However, when occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure, which were highly correlated with age, were left out of the model, age was a significant predictor of affective commitment (Beta= 1.98, df=5, N=310, $p<.05$). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a one-year change in age will bring about a 1.98 unit change in the affective commitment scale (see table 37 in Appendix A). Age was also a significant predictor of affective commitment when it was combined with occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=2.89, df=5, N=314, $p<.05$). The beta indicates that one unit change in agocctensal will bring about a 2.9 unit change in the affective commitment scale (see table 53 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H1b** and rejecting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

A cross-tabulation of the age group variable and normative commitment shows that **H1b** was also supported. Young faculty tend to show medium normative commitment, while medium age faculty show low normative commitment. Older faculty tend to have a high normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=28.68, df=6, p<.001) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix provides further support for this hypothesis with a positive correlation between age and normative commitment (r=.182, p<.001, N=312). The linear regression model indicates that age did not significantly predict normative commitment (Beta=.105, df=5, N=285, p=.136) (see table 35 in Appendix A). However, when occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure, which were highly correlated with age, were left out of the model, age was a significant predictor of normative commitment (Beta=.127, df=5, N=311, p<.01). This shows that one unit of change in age leads to .127 unit change in the normative commitment scale (see table 38 in Appendix A). Age was also a significant predictor of affective commitment when it was combined with occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=3.43, df=5, N=310, p<.01) (see table 54 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H1b** for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between age and overall commitment indicates that young faculty tend to show a low overall commitment while medium and older age faculty tend to have a high overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=23.7, df=2, p<.001) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix further shows that age was positively correlated to overall commitment (r=.259, N=322, p<.001). The binary logistic regression indicates that age was a significant predictor of overall commitment when entered into the model and occupational level, annual salary and organizational tenure were all dropped (Wald statistic= 5.66, Exp (B)=1.05 df=1, p<.05). This model shows that for every one year of increase in age, the probability of having a high overall commitment increases by 1.1 times (see table 39 in Appendix AA). Also, age predicted the overall commitment when it was combined with these dropped variables to generate the variable agocctensal (Wald statistic= 4.226, Exp (B)=2.64 df=1, p<.05). This model shows that a one unit increase in agocctensal increases the probability of having a high overall commitment by 2.6 times (see table 55 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H1b** and rejecting the null hypothesis for overall commitment.

H1c: *Female faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than male faculty.*

The cross-tabulation between gender and continuance commitment shows that male faculty tend to have high continuance commitment, while female faculty tend to have low continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=26.59, df=2, p<.001) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows a moderately negative correlation between gender and continuance commitment (r= -.28, p<.001, N=314). The linear regression model indicates that gender significantly predicts some of the variability in continuance commitment (Beta= -5.15, df=8, N=291, p<.001). Being male suggests an increase in the continuance commitment scale of 5.15 (see table 33 in Appendix A). All of these results suggest rejecting **H1c** and accepting the null hypothesis.

H1c was supported also for affective commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and gender. Male faculty show low affective commitment, while female faculty show high affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=7, df=2, p<.0015) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between gender and affective commitment (r=.157, p<.001, N=320). The linear regression model indicates that gender significantly predicts affective commitment (Beta=2.85, df=8, N=289, $p<.05$). Being female suggests an increase in the affective commitment scale of 2.85 (see table 34 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H1c** and rejecting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

H1c was supported also for normative commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and gender. Male faculty show low normative commitment, while female faculty show high normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi= 9.77, df=2, $p<.051$) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between gender and affective commitment ($r=.194$, $p<.001$, N=316). The linear regression model indicates that gender significantly predicts normative commitment (Beta=3.335, df=8, N=285, $p<.001$). Being female suggests an increase in normative commitment of 3.335(see table 35 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H1c** and rejecting the null hypothesis for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between gender and overall commitment indicates that male faculty tend to show a low overall commitment while female faculty tend to have a high overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=22.1, df=2, $p<.001$) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix further shows that gender was positively correlated to overall commitment ($r=.262$, N=322, $p<.001$). The binary logistic regression indicates that gender was a significant predictor of overall commitment (Wald statistic= 18.35, Exp (B)=5.52 df=1, $p<.001$). This model shows that being female increases the probability of having a high overall commitment by 5.52 times (see table 36 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H1c** and rejecting the null hypothesis for overall commitment.

H1d: *Less educated faculty are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than highly educated faculty.*

The cross-tabulation between education and continuance commitment shows that faculty who hold bachelor's degrees tend to have high continuance commitment while faculty who hold master's degrees tend to have medium continuance commitment. Faculty who hold doctorate degrees tend to have low continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was insignificant (Chi=7.624, df=6, p=.106) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows a negative correlation between education and continuance commitment (r= .164, p<.01, N=314). Furthermore, testing for this hypothesis on continuance commitment using a linear regression model did not support the hypothesis H1d (Beta= 1.411, df=8, N=283, p<.05). The linear regression model indicates that an increase in educational level will bring about an increase in the continuance commitment scale of 1.41 (see table 33 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest rejecting **H1d** for continuance commitment.

The cross-tabulation between education and affective commitment shows that faculty who hold bachelor's degrees tend to have medium affective commitment while faculty who hold master's and doctorate degrees tend to have low affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was insignificant (Chi=.764, df=6, p=.943) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows an insignificant negative correlation between education and affective commitment (r= -.054, p=.334, N=320). However, the linear regression model supports this hypothesis on affective commitment (Beta= -2.456, df=8, N=289, p<.001). The linear regression model indicates that for every increase of one unit in educational level, there with be a decrease in the affective commitment scale of 2.46 (see table 34 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest accepting **H1d** for affective commitment.

The cross-tabulation between education and normative commitment shows that faculty who hold bachelor's degrees tend to have medium normative commitment while faculty who hold master's and doctorate degrees tend to have low normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was significant (Chi=16.26, df=6, p<.05) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows an insignificant negative correlation between education and normative commitment (r= -.089, p=.112, N=316). Furthermore, testing for this hypothesis on normative commitment using a linear regression supports the H1d (Beta= -3.127, df=8, N= 285, p<.001). The linear regression model indicates that an increase in educational level will decrease the normative commitment scale by 3.11 (see table 35 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest accepting **H1d** for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between education and overall commitment shows that faculty who hold bachelor's degrees tend to have low overall commitment while faculty who hold master's degrees tend to have high overall commitment. However, faculty who hold doctorate degrees also tend to have low overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was insignificant (Chi=1.06, df=6, p<.588) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows an insignificant negative correlation between education and overall commitment (r= -.043, p=.443, N=322). The binary logistic regression indicates that education was a significant predictor of overall commitment (Wald statistic= 5.891, Exp

(B)= .479, df=1, p<.05). This model shows that for an increase of one unit in educational level, the probability of having a high overall commitment decreased by fifty percent (see table 36 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest accepting **H1d** for overall commitment.

H2a: *Faculty members with higher occupational level are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than faculty with lower level.*

The cross-tabulation between occupational level and continuance commitment shows that faculty who have seventh or eighth ranks tend to have high continuance commitment while faculty in the ninth rank or higher tend to have low continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square test statistic was significant (Chi=49.96, df=6, p<.001) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows a significant negative correlation between occupational level and continuance commitment (r= -.447, p<.001, N=314). The linear regression model indicates that occupational level significantly predicted continuance commitment (Beta=-2.60, df=8, N=291, p<.05) (see table 33 in Appendix A). Furthermore, testing for this using a linear regression model, with tenure, age and salary dropped, supported the hypothesis H2a (Beta= -2.97, df=8, N=306, p<.001). The later linear regression model indicates that for every one step increase in occupational level, there will be a decrease in the continuance commitment scale of about three (see table 40 in Appendix A). All of these statistical tests suggest rejecting **H2a** for continuance commitment.

The cross-tabulation between occupational level and affective commitment shows that faculty who are in the seventh or eighth level tend to have low affective commitment while faculty who are in the ninth level or higher tend to have high affective commitment.

The Pearson Chi-square test was significant (Chi=35, df=6, $p<.001$) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows positive correlation between occupational level and affective commitment ($r=.19$, $p<.001$, N=318). The linear regression model indicates that occupational level did not significantly predict affective commitment (Beta=.469, df=8, N=289, $p=.54$) (see table 33 in Appendix A). However, when age, annual salary, and organizational tenure, which were highly correlated with occupational level, were left out of the model, occupational level was a significant predictor of affective commitment (Beta= 1.03, df=5, N=312, $p<.05$). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a one step increase in occupational level will bring about a 1 unit increase in the affective commitment scale (see table 41 in Appendix A). Occupational level was also a significant predictor of affective commitment when it was combined with age, annual salary, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=2.89, df=5, N=314, $p<.05$). The beta indicates that one unit change in agocctensal will bring about a 2.9 unit change in the affective commitment scale (see table 53 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2a** and rejecting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

The cross-tabulation between occupational level and normative commitment shows that faculty who have rank at the seventh or eighth level tend to have low normative commitment while faculty who have the rank of ninth or higher tend to have high normative commitment. The Pearson Chi-square test was significant (Chi=31.009, df=6, $p<.001$) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows positive correlation between occupational level and normative commitment ($r=.207$, $p<.001$, N=314). The linear regression model indicates that occupational level did not significantly predict normative commitment (Beta=1.159, df=8, N=289, p=.123) (see table 35 in Appendix A). However, when age, annual salary, and organizational tenure, which were highly correlated with occupational level, were left out of the model, occupational level was a significant predictor of normative commitment (Beta= 1.112, df=5, N=308, p<.05). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a one step change in occupational level will bring about 1 unit of change in the normative commitment scale (see table 42 in Appendix A). Occupational level was also a significant predictor of normative commitment when it was combined with age, annual salary, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=3.430, df=5, N=310, p<.01) (see table 54 in Appendix A). The beta indicates that one unit change in agocctensal will bring about a 3.4 unit change in the normative commitment scale. All of these tests suggest accepting **H2a** and rejecting the null hypothesis for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between occupational level and overall commitment shows that faculty who have the rank of seventh or eighth tend to have low overall commitment. Faculty who have the rank of ninth or higher all tend to have high of overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square test was significant (Chi=19.02, df= 3, p<.001) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The Pearson correlation matrix shows positive correlation between occupational level and normative commitment (r=.241, p<.01, N=322). The binary logistic regression indicates that occupational level was a significant predictor of overall commitment when entered into the model and age, annual salary and organizational tenure were all dropped (Wald statistic= 5.62, Exp (B)= 1.64, df=1, p<.05). This model shows that for every one step increase in occupational level, the probability of having a high overall commitment increases by 1.6 times (see table 43 in Appendix A). Also, occupational level predicted the overall commitment when it was combined with these dropped variables to generate the variable agocctensal (Wald statistic= 4.226, Exp (B)=2.64 df=1, p<.05). This model shows that one unit increase in agocctensal increases the probability of having a high overall commitment by 2.6 times (see table 55 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2a** and rejecting the null hypothesis for overall commitment.

H2b: *Faculty members in managerial jobs are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than faculty in non-managerial jobs.*

The cross-tabulation between job type and continuance commitment shows that faculty who are managers tend to have medium continuance commitment, while faculty who are not managers tend to have high continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=43.83, df=2, p<.001) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows a moderately negative correlation between job type and continuance commitment (r= -.415, p<.001, N=314). The linear regression model indicates that job type significantly predicts some of the variability in continuance commitment (Beta= -3.73, df=8, N=283, p<.001). Being management-faculty suggests a decrease in continuance commitment of 3.7 (see table 33 in Appendix A). All of these results suggest rejecting **H2b** and accepting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

H2b was supported for affective commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and job type. Managerial faculty show high affective commitment, while non-managerial faculty show low affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=31.72, df=2, p<.001) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between job type and affective commitment ($r=.285$, $p<.001$, $N=320$). The linear regression model indicates that job type significantly predicts affective commitment (Beta=3.86, df=8, N=289, $p<.001$). Being a manager suggests an increase in the affective commitment scale of 3.86 (see table 34 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2b** and rejecting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

H2b was supported also for normative commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and job type. Non-managerial faculty show low normative commitment, while managerial faculty show high normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square square statistic was significant (Chi=26.41, df=2, p<001) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between job type and affective commitment ($r=.283$, $p<.001$, $N=316$). The linear regression model indicates that job type significantly predicts normative commitment (Beta=4.32, df=8, N=285, $p<.001$). Being a manager suggests an increase in the normative commitment of 4.3 scale (see table 35 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2b** and rejecting the null hypothesis for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between job type and overall commitment indicates that non-managerial faculty tend to show a low overall commitment while managerial faculty tend to have a high overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=30.7, df=2, $p<.001$) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix further shows that job type was positively correlated to overall commitment ($r=.309$, $N=322$, $p<.001$). The binary logistic regression indicates that job type was a significant predictor of overall commitment

(Wald statistic= 18.22, Exp (B)=5.64 df=1, p<.001). This model shows that being a manager increases the probability of having a high overall commitment by 5.6 times (see table 36 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2b** and rejecting the null hypothesis for overall commitment.

H2c: *High paid faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than low paid faculty.*

To test **H2c** using cross-tabulations between annual salary and the three types of organizational commitment along with the overall commitment dummy variable, annual salary was recorded as a new variable with three salary groups (low, medium, and high). Low or medium paid faculty tend to have high continuance commitment while high paid faculty tend to have low continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square square statistic was significant (Chi=38.80, df=4, p<.001) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that the annual salary is negatively related to continuance commitment (r= -.412, p<.001, N=301). The linear regression model indicates that annual salary did not significantly predict continuance commitment (Beta=0.0, df=8, N=283, p=.58) (see table 33 in Appendix A). However, when age, occupational level, and organizational tenure, which were highly correlated with annual salary, were left out of the model, annual salary was a significant predictor of continuance commitment (Beta= -3.1, df=5, N=297, p<.001). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a rise from one salary group to another will lead to a decrease in the continuance commitment scale of 3.1 (see table 44 in Appendix A). Annual salary was also a significant predictor of continuance commitment when it was combined with age, occupational level, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=-

4.98, df=5, N=308, $p<.001$). The beta indicates that a one unit change in agocctensal will bring an opposite change in the continuance commitment scale of nearly 5 (see table 52 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest rejecting **H2c** in favor of the null hypothesis.

H2c was supported for affective commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and the grouped salary variable. Low paid faculty show medium affective commitment, medium paid faculty show low affective commitment, and high paid faculty show high affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=36.4, df=4, $p<.001$) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between annual salary and affective commitment (r=.191, $p<.001$, N=307). The linear regression model indicates that annual salary did not significantly predict affective commitment (Beta=0.0, df=8, N=289, p=.41) (see table 34 in Appendix A). However, when age, occupational level, and organizational tenure, which were highly correlated with annual salary, were left out of the model, annual salary was a significant predictor of affective commitment (Beta=1.89, df=5, N=306, $p<.05$). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a one-group change in annual salary will change the affective commitment scale by 1.9 in the same direction (see table 45 in Appendix A). Annual salary was also a significant predictor of affective commitment when it was combined with occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=2.89, df=5, N=314, $p<.05$). The beta indicates that one unit change in agocctensal will bring about a 2.9 unit change in affective commitment (see table 53 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2c** and rejecting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

A cross-tabulation of the annual salary group variable and normative commitment shows that **H2c** was also supported. Low paid faculty tend to show medium normative commitment, while medium paid faculty show low normative commitment. High paid faculty tend to have a high normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=39.40, df=4, p<.001) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix provides further support for this hypothesis with a positive correlation between annual salary and normative commitment (r=.159, p<.001, N=303). The linear regression model indicates that annual salary did not significantly predict normative commitment (Beta=0.0, df=8, N=285, p=.192) (see table 35 in Appendix A). The linear regression model indicates that annual salary is a significant predictor of normative commitment when it was entered into the model, and age, occupational level, and organizational tenure were all dropped (Beta=2.523, df=5, N=297, p<.051). This shows that a one-group increase in annual salary leads to a 2.5 unit increase in the normative commitment scale (see table 46 in Appendix A). Annual salary was also a significant predictor of normative commitment when it was combined with age, occupational level, and organizational tenure into agocctensal (Beta=3.43, df=5, N=310, p<.05) (see table 54 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2c** for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between annual salary and overall commitment indicates that low and medium paid faculty tend to show a low of overall commitment while highly paid faculty tend to have high overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=11.75, df=2, p<.05) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix further shows that annual salary was positively correlated to overall commitment (r=.193, p<.001, N=322). The binary logistic regression indicates that annual salary was not a significant predictor of overall commitment (Wald statistic= 1.322, Exp (B)=1.0, df=1, p=.25) (see table 36 in Appendix A). However, annual salary was a significant predictor of overall commitment when entered into the model and age, occupational level and organizational tenure all dropped (Wald statistic= 1.47, Exp (B)=1.05 df=1, p<.05). This model shows that for every one-group increase in annual salary, the probability of having a high overall commitment increases by 1.1 times (see table 47 in Appendix A). Also, annual salary predicted the overall commitment when it was combined with these dropped variables to generate the variable agocctensal (Wald statistic= 4.226, Exp (B)=2.64 df=1, p<.05). This model shows that a one unit increase in agocctensal increases the probability of having a high overall commitment by 2.6 times (see table 55 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2c** and rejecting the null hypothesis for overall commitment.

***H2d**: Long tenure faculty members are more likely to show higher commitment to the IPA than short tenure faculty.*

To test **H2d** using cross-tabulations between organizational tenure and the three types of organizational commitment along with the overall commitment dummy variable, organizational tenure was recorded as a new variable with three tenure groups (short, medium, and long). Short tenure faculty tend to have medium continuance commitment while medium tenure faculty tend to have high continuance commitment. Long tenure faculty tend to have low continuance commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=36.17, df=6, p<.001) (see table 56 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that organizational tenure is negatively related to continuance commitment (r= -.360, p<.001, N=305). The linear regression model indicates that organizational tenure did not significantly predict continuance commitment (Beta=-.015, df=8, N=283, p=.87) (see table 33 in Appendix A). However, when age, occupational level, and annual salary, which were highly correlated with organizational tenure, were left out of the model, organizational tenure was a significant predictor of continuance commitment (Beta= -.250, df=5, N=299, p<.001). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that for every one-group increase in organizational tenure, there will be a decrease in the continuance commitment scale of 0.25 (see table 48 in Appendix A). Organizational tenure was also a significant predictor of continuance commitment when it was combined with age, occupational level, and annual salary into agocctensal (Beta=-4.98, df=5, N=308, p<.001). The beta indicates that one unit change in agocctensal will bring an opposite change in continuance commitment of nearly 5 (see table 53 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest rejecting **H2d** and accepting the null hypothesis for continuance commitment.

H2d was supported for affective commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and the grouped tenure variable. Short tenure faculty tend to have medium affective commitment while medium tenure faculty tend to have low affective commitment. Long tenure faculty tend to have high affective commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=36.341, df=6, p<.001) (see table 57 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between organizational tenure and affective commitment (r=.188, p<.001, N=311). The linear regression model indicates that organizational tenure did not significantly predict affective commitment (Beta=.156, df=8, N=289, p=.09)(see table 34 in Appendix A). However, when age, occupational level, and annual salary, which were highly correlated with organizational tenure, were left out of the model, organizational tenure was a significant predictor of affective commitment (Beta=.124, df=5, N=305, p<.05). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a one-group increase in organizational tenure will bring about a 0.12 increase in the affective commitment scale (see table 49 in Appendix A). Organizational tenure was also significant predictor of affective commitment when it was combined with age, occupational level, and annual salary into agocctensal (Beta=2.89, df=5, N=314, p<.05). The beta indicates that a one unit change in agocctensal will bring about a 2.9 unit change in the affective commitment scale (see table 54 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2d** and rejecting the null hypothesis for affective commitment.

H2d was also supported for normative commitment using a cross-tabulation between it and the grouped tenure variable. Short tenure faculty tend to have medium normative commitment while medium tenure faculty tend to have low normative commitment. Long tenure faculty tend to have high normative commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=36.916, df=6, p<.001) (see table 58 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix shows that there is a moderately positive and significant correlation between organizational tenure and normative commitment (r=.173, p<.001, N=307). The linear regression model indicates that organizational tenure did not significantly predict normative commitment (Beta=.077, df=8, N=289, p=.40) (see table 35 in Appendix A). However, when age, occupational level, and annual salary, which were highly correlated with organizational tenure, were left out of the model, organizational tenure was a significant predictor of normative commitment (Beta=1.086, df=5, N=301, p<.05). The new model, with dropped variables, indicates that a one-group increase in organizational tenure will bring about an increase in the normative commitment scale of about 1.1 (see table 50 in Appendix A). Organizational tenure was also a significant predictor of affective commitment when it was combined with age, occupational level, and annual salary into agocctensal (Beta=3.43, df=5, N=310, p<.05). The beta indicates that a one unit change in agocctensal will bring about a 3.4 unit change in normative commitment (see table 55 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2d** and rejecting the null hypothesis for normative commitment.

The cross-tabulation between organizational tenure and overall commitment indicates that short and medium tenure faculty tend to show a low overall commitment while long tenure faculty tend to have a high overall commitment. The Pearson chi-square statistic was significant (Chi=11.73, df=2, p<.05) (see table 59 in Appendix A). The correlation matrix further shows that organizational tenure was positively correlated to overall commitment (r=.178, p<.001, N=313). The binary logistic regression indicates that organizational tenure was not a significant predictor of overall commitment (Wald statistic=.393, Exp (B)=1.02, df=1, p=.531) (see table 36 in Appendix A). However, organizational tenure was a significant predictor of overall commitment when entered into the model and age, occupational level and annual salary were all dropped (Wald statistic= 2.957, Exp (B)= 1.04, df=1, p<.05). This model shows that for every one year increase in organizational tenure, the probability of having a high overall commitment increases by 1.04 times (see table 51 in Appendix A). Also, organizational tenure predicted the overall commitment when it was combined with these dropped variables to generate the variable agocctensal (Wald statistic= 4.226, Exp (B)=2.64 df=1, $p<.05$). This model shows that a one unit increase in agocctensal increases the probability of having a high overall commitment by 2.6 times (see table 53 in Appendix A). All of these tests suggest accepting **H2d** and rejecting the null hypothesis for overall commitment.

CHAPTER VI DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

There are three sections in this chapter. The first part talks about the study and its findings, and offers details about how the findings relate to the study literature. In the second section the implications of the study are detailed, followed by a set of recommendations. The third section discusses the study's limitations and makes suggestions about research efforts that could be undertaken in the future.

Discussion of the Findings

The goal of the study was to investigate the relationship between demographics, job-related factors and organizational commitment of the IPA faculty. The demographics include nationality (Saudi versus non-Saudi), age, gender, and education. The job-related factors include occupational level and job type (management versus non-management level), as well as pay structure and organizational tenure. Therefore, the study postulated the following questions:

1- What is the relationship between demographics (nationality, age, gender, and education) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration's faculty?
2- What is the relationship between job-related factors (occupational level, type of job, job pay and organizational tenure) and the organizational commitment of the Institute of Public Administration's faculty?

In order to answer these questions, the study provided a detailed review of the literature on the relationship between demographics and job-related factors and organizational commitment. This review led to the development of two main hypotheses and eight sub-hypotheses that were tested in this study. The study used several statistical tests, including descriptive statistics, correlations, and inferential statistics, to test the hypotheses. The results of these tests were that only one of the hypotheses was rejected while the rest were supported for all types of commitment (continuance, affective, and normative) as well as for overall commitment.

In looking at organizational commitment, the researcher conducted three multiple regressions. Each of the three types of commitment scale was regressed on all of the demographic and job-related variables. The independent variables explained a fair amount of the variation in the commitment scales. The demographic and job-related variables account for 15.2% of the variation in the affective commitment scale, 19.8% of the variation in the normative commitment scale, and 36.4% of the variation in the continuance commitment scale. Though the full models were all significant with all three F-statistics at $p<.001$, the independent variables were not all predictive of each kind of commitment. These predictors, such as age, salary, occupation levels and tenure, were highly multicollinear, which was thought to have some bearing on predictability. Organizational commitment was significantly predicted by each independent variable when entered into the model independent of the other collinear variables. These predictions also held true when they were used as an aggregate in a new dummy variable (agocctensal).

Of the IPA's faculty, 42.3% were found, through logistic regression, to have a high percentage rate of commitment, and the remainder of the faculty demonstrated a low commitment level. According to Steers et al. (1977), those with low levels of commitment could do so due to higher education levels causing higher expectations that would be hard for the organization to meet. Respondents with low commitment levels were found to have high levels of education with 16.5% having bachelor's degrees, 64.9% having master's degrees, and 18.6% having doctoral degrees. Using both the multiple regressions and the logistic regressions, it was found that there was a greater commitment level if the faculty member is a woman, had relatively less education, is well paid, achieved a high occupational level, and has a long tenure with the IPA.

Demographics and Organizational Commitment

The personal demographics used in this study include nationality, age, gender, and educational level. The findings of the study showed that age, gender and education have a significant relationship with organizational commitment while no relationship was found between nationality and organizational commitment. The following discussions explain the relationship between these variables and organizational commitment.

Nationality

There was no significant relationship between nationality and either continuance, affective, normative, or overall commitment. There was no difference between Saudis and non-Saudi faculty in their commitment to the IPA. This finding is inconsistent with Hofstede's (1983) argument that the difference in employees' nationalities is an influential factor in their level of commitment to their organization. Also, this finding differs with Torbiorn (1993) who discovered that the national identity of expatriate managers is enhanced by cultural attachments and shared social relationships that create a sense of belonging and eventually commitment to the employing organization of their native country. However, the finding could be interpreted through Near's (1989) argument that acknowledged the importance of nationality and emphasized that the use of a cross-national comparison does allow for comparison of differences and similarities by nationality.

The IPA hires faculty from both Arab and non-Arab countries who represent different cultures. Assigning all non-Saudi faculty in one group might be the reason for finding no difference between nationality because they may not have too much in common since they came from different cultures. This lack of difference between Saudis and non-Saudi faculty commitment could be explained using Yavas, Luqmani, and Quraeshi's (1990) argument that Saudi nationals feel a sense of flexibility and mobility. On the other hand, non-Saudis did not feel the same way because of contractual obligations, which might have a direct effect on their levels of commitment to an organization.

Age

Age was significantly correlated with continuance commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment, and with overall commitment. This finding is consistent with the findings of other studies that found such a relationship between age and organizational commitment (Banai and Reisel, 1993; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Allen and Meyer, 1993; Angle and Perry, 1981; Morrow and McElroy, 1987; Alluto, Hrebiniak, and Alonso 1973; and Shin and Reyes, 1991).

The highest correlation was between age and continuance commitment with a negative value ($r=-.427$, $p<.05$, $N=310$). The increase in the faculty's age is associated with a decrease in their continuance commitment. In other word, the older faculty are more likely to have low continuance commitment and vice versa. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Therefore, scoring high in continuance commitment indicates high intention to leave the organization if a better opportunity comes along. As predicted, younger faculty as opposed to older ones remain in the IPA because they need to since the cost of leaving is perceived to be higher than the cost of staying.

Age was also correlated positively to affective commitment ($r=.17$, $p<.05$, $N=316$). This relationship indicates that as the age of the faculty increased, there was an increase in their affective commitment. Older faculty have higher affective commitment than younger faculty. This means that older faculty have more emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the IPA than younger faculty do. Furthermore, older faculty stay in the IPA because they want to do so while young faculty stay even if they do not want to because of the scarcity of other alternatives.

The correlation between age and normative commitment represents a positive relationship ($r=.182$, $p<.01$, $N=312$). As the age of faculty increased, their normative commitment increased as well. This means that older faculty have higher normative commitment to the IPA than younger faculty. Older faculty at the IPA reflect more of an obligation to continue working for the IPA than younger faculty. In other words, older faculty as opposed to younger ones tend to stay in the IPA because they feel they ought to remain.

Age was also positively correlated with overall commitment ($r=.259$, $p<.05$, $N=318$). As the age of the faculty increases, there was an increase in their organizational commitment to the IPA. Older faculty tend to have more commitment to the IPA than younger faculty. As faculty age, they develop a kind of occupational stability and become more oriented to their careers. They also reach a point of settling into the IPA and close other career options because they become limited by their efforts, promotions, and other investments in the organization (Colarelli and Bishop, 1990; Gottfredson, 1977).

Gender

Gender was also correlated significantly with continuance, affective, normative, and overall commitment. There was a difference between male and female faculty in their commitment to the IPA. This finding was consistent with the findings of other studies that found a correlation between gender and organizational commitment (Aven, Parker, and McEvoy, 1993; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996; Aranya, Kushmir, and Valency, 1986; Ngo and Tsang, 1998; and Wahn, 1998).

The highest correlation was between gender and continuance commitment ($r= -.280$, $p<.05$, $N= 314$). This negative correlation means that male faculty have higher continuance commitment than female faculty. This implies that male faculty are more likely than female faculty to remain in the IPA because they need to do so. Female faculty are more likely to stay in the IPA even if the cost of leaving is equal to or less than the cost of staying.

There was a positive correlation between gender and affective commitment ($r=.157$, $p<.05$, $N=320$). Female faculty were higher than male faculty in their affective commitment. This implies that female faculty stay in the IPA because they want to as opposed to the male faculty. They tend to be highly identified with, emotionally attached to, and have higher involvement to the IPA than male faculty.

Moreover, gender was positively correlated to normative commitment ($r=.194$, $p<.05$, $N=316$). Female faculty tend to have higher normative commitment to the IPA than male faculty. This implies that female faculty feel more obligated to the IPA and they remain because they feel that they ought to. This finding implies that female faculty have a higher sense of belonging to the IPA.

A similar finding was found for gender with overall commitment, with a positive correlation ($r=.262$, $p<.05$, $N=322$). Female faculty show higher organizational commitment to the IPA than male faculty. This finding conflicts with the idea that women accept family roles as the highest source of identification fulfillment while men are more work oriented. In general women in Saudi Arabia have fewer job opportunities than men. This is due to the fact that a separation by sex in the work place is mandatory in most Saudi organizations, which has led to lower chances for women to be employed in the available jobs. For example, the women in Saudi Arabia are limited to educational and health care settings as available sectors to work in due to the cultural barriers. A second reason is related to the fact that the IPA has been known as one of the leading organizations in Saudi Arabia in advocating women's liberation. Consequently, female faculty at the IPA are more committed to the IPA than male faculty.

Educational Level

Education was correlated significantly only to continuance commitment (r= -.164, p<.05, N=314). The negative correlation means that as education increases, continuance commitment decreases for IPA's faculty. Also, it implies that less educated faculty are more likely to remain at the IPA than are educated faculty because they need to do so.

Education had an insignificant correlation with affective commitment; however, the multiple regression model for affective commitment indicated that education was a significant predictor of affective commitment (Beta= -2.46, df=8, N=289, p<.001). This finding implies that a one level decrease in educational attainment predicts a 2.46 increase in the affective commitment scale. This means less educated faculty are more likely to have a higher affective commitment than are highly educated faculty. They are more likely to be emotionally attached to the IPA than highly educated faculty and they remain in the IPA because they want to.

The same results were found between education and normative commitment where the multiple regression model indicated that education was a significant predictor of affective commitment (Beta= -3.13, df=8, N=293, p<.001). A decrease in one level of educational attainment leads to a 3.13 increase in the normative commitment scale. This finding implies that less educated faculty are more likely to be more normatively committed to the IPA than are highly educated faculty. They are also more obligated to the IPA than are highly educated faculty, and remain in the IPA because they think they ought to.

Education predicted overall commitment significantly (wald statistic=5.89, df=1, Exp (B)= .479, $p<.05$). The binary logistic regression model indicated that a one level increase in educational attainment will decrease the probability of being highly committed by almost half. Less educated faculty are more likely to be committed to the IPA than highly educated faculty. These findings are consistent with the notion of O'Reilly and Caldwell (1981) that the more educated the employee, the greater are the chances to leave an organization for another. Highly educated persons leave their organizations if their expectations are not met. There is also high demand for more educated employees, which encourage them to seek other jobs. Furthermore, education is an individual investment, which would encourage the individual to seek a better return on that investment by searching for better jobs. On the other hand, less educated employees tend to show higher levels of commitment to their organizations than their counterparts. It appears that the less educated employees have fewer opportunities available to them, which makes them tend to stay with their organizations.

Job-Related Factors and Organizational Commitment

The job-related factors are those that are tied to the person's job itself. Included among these factors are: occupational level, type of job, annual salary, and organizational tenure. The findings showed that there was a significant relationship between these variables and organizational commitment. The following discussions explain these relationships in detail.

Occupational Level

The occupational level was significantly correlated with continuance, affective, normative, and overall commitment. The highest correlation was between occupational level and continuance commitment ($r= -.447$, $p<.05$, $N=.312$). As the occupational level of faculty increased, their continuance commitment decreased. Faculty with a lesser occupational level tend to have high continuance commitment which means they tend to stay in the organization because they have to. They perceive the cost of leaving as much higher than the cost of staying because of the scarcity of available alternatives. Conversely, faculty with higher occupational levels tend to have low continuance commitment which implies they are more likely to experience stability in their jobs.

Occupational level was also correlated positively with affective commitment ($r= .19$, $p<.05$, $N=318$). As occupational level increased, there was an increase in affective commitment. This finding implies that faculty with high occupational levels tend to have high affective commitment which indicates that they are more identified, attached, and more involved in the IPA's goals and objectives. On the other hand, faculty of lesser occupational level tend to be lower in their involvement and less emotionally attached to the IPA.

In the same manner, occupational level was correlated positively with normative commitment ($r=.207$, $p<.05$, $N=314$). This correlation indicated that the faculty's normative commitment increased as their occupational level increased. This implies that faculty with higher occupational levels are more likely to be obligated to the IPA than faculty with lower occupational levels. This finding is consistent with Becker's (1960) "side bets" theory where the occupational rank is one of the investments that the individual becomes committed to.

Occupational level was also correlated positively with overall commitment ($r=.241$, $p<.05$, $N=320$). The organizational commitment increased as the faculty member was ranked higher in the occupational level in the IPA. This finding was consistent with other research that found such positive relationships between occupational level and organizational commitment (Wiener and Vardi, 1980; Tannenbaum, 1996; Mottaz, 1987; Grusky, 1996; Cohen and Gattiker, 1994; Salanick, 1977; and Abboushi, 1990). The positive relationship is due to the fact that faculty with higher occupational levels have higher salaries and more prestigious status. Organizational level is considered a personal investment as mentioned by the side-bet theory of Becker (1960). Employees usually bind themselves to the organization because of the limitations that occupational level places on their options. Highly ranked employees tend to have made greater personal investments within their organizations than those who rank below them, and have more to lose should they make the choice to leave the organization. As a result, faculty with high occupational levels tend to be more committed.

Job Type

Job type was found to be correlated significantly with continuance, affective, normative and overall commitment. Again the highest correlation was between job type and continuance commitment ($r= -.415$, $p<.05$, $N=314$). This negative relationship indicates that the faculty with non-managerial jobs have higher continuance commitment. This implies that those faculty are more likely to stay in the organization as long as they do not find equivalent jobs outside the IPA. On the other hand, faculty with managerial jobs are more likely to stay in the organization even if the cost of leaving is less than the cost of remaining at the IPA.

Job type was also correlated positively with affective commitment ($r=.285$, $p<.05$, $N=320$). This finding implies that faculty with managerial jobs are more likely to be more emotionally attached to, identified with, and have more involvement in the IPA than those with non-managerial jobs. The same result was found between job type and normative commitment, where a positive correlation was found ($r=.283$, $p<.05$, $N=316$). This relationship indicates that faculty in managerial positions tend to have higher normative commitment than those in non-managerial jobs. Faculty with managerial jobs are more likely to be obligated to, and feel they ought to remain in, the IPA. Conversely, faculty with non-managerial jobs tend to be less obligated to stay in the IPA.

The correlation matrix shows a positive relationship between job type and overall commitment ($r=.309$, $p<.05$, $N=322$). Faculty with managerial jobs tend to be more committed to the IPA than those with non-managerial jobs. This finding was consistent with the finding of other research that found a positive relationship between job type and organizational commitment (Wiener and Vardi, 1980; Tannenbaum, 1996; Mottaz, 1987; Grusky, 1996; Cohen and Gattiker, 1994; Salanick, 1977; and Abboushi, 1990). Managers usually feel that they have more psychological prestige than do those in non-managerial positions as well as others outside the organization. Furthermore, the supervisory positions were considered rewards by organizations, which gave those who attained the positions a greater sense of autonomy and initiative. Therefore, faculty with managerial jobs make commitments to the organization in order to keep their job status, thus bringing about different levels of commitment than those in non-management jobs.

Annual Salary

Annual salary was correlated significantly with continuance, affective, normative and overall commitment. Continuance commitment had the highest correlation with annual salary ($r= -.412, p<.05, N=301$). Faculty with lower salaries have higher continuance commitment while faculty with higher salaries tend to have low continuance commitment. With this finding, faculty with low salaries are more likely to leave the organization if the cost of leaving becomes equivalent to the cost of staying. On the other hand, faculty with high salary are more likely to stay in the IPA even if they do not need to do so.

Similar to occupational level and job type, annual salary was correlated positively to both affective commitment ($r=.191, p<.05, N=307$) and normative commitment ($r=.159, p<.05, N=303$). Faculty with high salaries are more likely to have high affective and normative commitment while those with low salaries tend to have low affective and normative commitment respectively. This implies that faculty with high salaries are more identified with, attached to, involved and more loyal to the IPA than those with low salaries. Also, they are more obligated to the IPA and tend to stay because they feel they ought to, contrary to faculty with low salaries.

Annual salary was also positively correlated to overall commitment ($r=.193$, $p<.05$, $N=309$). This finding indicated that faculty with high salaries are more committed to the IPA than those with low salaries. A similar relationship was found in other research between income and organizational commitment (Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Angle and Perry, 1983; Baba and Knoop, 1987; Byington and Johnson, 1991; Cohen and Gattiker, 1994; Sager, 1991; and Summer and Hendrix, 1991). The finding also relates to Adam's equity theory (1963), which argued that the perception of salary inequity generates tension in employees; therefore, there may be varying commitment levels between lower paid and high paid employees. The difference in payment in Saudi organizations for employees from different nationalities with the same level of education, same tenure, and similar work experience may create differences in their commitment to the organization. However, the way employees perceive their pay was found to be important in determining the commitment of the employee. The gap between perceived and actual pay is considered a more important determinant in the level of organizational commitment. Therefore, more highly paid employees stand to lose and become more likely to stay with the organization.

Organizational Tenure

Organizational tenure was significantly correlated with continuance, affective, normative and overall commitment. The highest correlation was found between organizational tenure and continuance commitment ($r= -.36$, $p<.05$, $N=305$). As the organizational tenure of faculty increased, their continuance commitment decreased. This implies that faculty with long tenure have less continuance commitment than those with short tenure. Faculty with long tenure are more likely to stay in the organization even if the cost of leaving is less than the cost of staying while faculty with short tenure are more likely to leave the IPA otherwise.

Organizational tenure was also found to be positively correlated with affective ($r=.188$, $p<.05$, $N=311$) and normative commitment ($r=.173$, $p<.05$, $N=307$). This positive relationship indicated that an increase in faculty tenure led to an increase in their affective and normative commitment scales. This finding implies that faculty with long tenure are more likely to be more identified with, attached to, involved in and more obligated to the IPA than those with short tenure.

The same relationship existed between organizational tenure and overall commitment ($r=.178$, $p<.05$, $N=313$). This finding indicated that the longer tenure faculty have, the more committed they are. This positive relationship between organizational tenure and organizational commitment was consistent with other research that posited such a relationship (Aranya, Kushnir, and Valency, 1986; Igbaria and Guimaraes, 1993; Luthans, McCaul, and Dodd, 1985; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982; Igbaria and Siegel, 1992; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Shoemaker, Snizek, and Bryant, 1977; Kushman, 1992; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Sheldon, 1971; and Gregersen, 1993). The interpretation of such a relationship goes back to Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, which considered organizational tenure as personal investments. An increased length of service to an organization increases personal investments such as time, effort, promotion, pay, friendships, and position in it; these contributed to the level of commitment and made it more likely that the employee would remain a member of the organization. Long tenure employees are willing to exert a level of effort that exceeds what is expected from them to achieve success for their organizations.

Study Implications and Recommendations

Given a high level of commitment in an organizational faculty, it is expected that they would be loyal to the organization, as well as very productive. On the contrary, the results of this study showed about half of the IPA faculty to have low commitment levels. Such a result would bring into question whether the IPA would be able to accomplish the goals it has set for itself. Organizational commitment is, according to Buchanan (1974), a prerequisite for the success of an organization. A positive relationship of such organizational commitment is shown in the literature to such things as production and performance levels. It shows a negative relationship to things such as tardiness, being absent from work, and turnover rates. Given these findings, the IPA management needs to find ways to turn this commitment level around in their favor. There are several ways this could be managed.

In the empirical findings of the study employees of varying demographics and with different job related factors seem to have differing levels of commitment to the organization. By directing attention to the faculty's continuance, affective and normative commitment, better hiring practices may result in a more committed faculty. Findings such as these may offer recruiting guidelines that will greatly assist personnel management, not only in the IPA but in other organizations as well. One factor that was not found to be of significance to commitment levels was nationality. This finding might imply that the IPA could hire more non-nationals as faculty members and still maintain the same commitment levels as with Saudi faculty members. Since faculty who are at management levels seem more committed to the IPA, they might also consider more rotation of management responsibilities among the faculty.

Second, in order to accomplish work needed and to motivate the faculty, management may want to target those who demonstrate more commitment. It would be good to offer recognition to those who demonstrate positive attitudes, and to include more of the faculty in the decisions made, in order to make them feel a more vested interest in and commitment to the organization. This type of participatory management may also consider giving faculty members more job autonomy and more say in organizational policies because they have demonstrated a concern for the success of the organization. Because committed employees want success for the organization, they are also less likely to resist changes that are put in place.

Third, new faculty orientation programs should be instituted since new faculty tend to feel less commitment to the IPA. During these orientation programs, information about the organization such as its background, its policies, values and its mission should be shared with the new hires and should also be offered to new graduate faculty.

Fourth, there should be a greater level of communication between the highly educated faculty members and upper management. Greater communication levels would help to offset some of the high expectations of the more highly educated members, who also have greater alternatives for employment in the private sector. Better communication levels would allow management to better meet the expectations of the very employees from whom they would like to expect greater commitment.

Fifth, it is important for management at the IPA to stress, to those who determine compensation policies, that improvement needs to be made to bring the faculty more in line with their current living expenses and economic circumstances.

A sixth factor affecting commitment, according to Gaertner and Nolen (1989), was the perception of employees regarding human resources management (HRM) practices. There is a significant correlation between organizational commitment and pay levels, fringe benefits, merit systems fairness and promotional fairness. Because of this correlation, IPA managers would be well advised to follow any career-oriented employment practices that successfully employ the following human resources functions: recruitment and selection, socialization and training, assessment and promotion, and compensation and benefits. If this is the case, that managers do adhere to HRM practices governing organizational commitment, the managers would be rewarded with employees who demonstrate a greater psychological attachment (affective or normative commitment) rather than employees who derive their sense of worth from the amount of time they have invested in their jobs (continuance commitment).

Eighth, in order to be competitive in the marketplace, to improve an organization's efficiency, and to adapt to an environment in a state of constant change, Huber and Glick (1993) recommend that an organization's management should consider implementing organizational redesign, which is a strategy for changing an organization's technologies and processes. Douglas (1999) performed a field study on the effects of organizational redesign, using a machine processing plant. Douglas interviewed managers and staff members of the plant. He designed his interviews so as to collect data on the redesign activities instituted, and he found that, as a result of this reorganization, the employees' tasks were becoming more flexible and broader in scope and, since the business was focusing on autonomy and cooperation, it was to be hoped that organizational commitment would also increase.

Finally, it was recommended that administrators communicate honestly and clearly with faculty in higher education institutions, with the faculty being provided opportunities for professional growth and development. As in any human relationship, administrators are advised to make the effort in establishing and maintaining positive, interdependent relationships with faculty members, while recognizing that the academic faculty and the administrators are not separate factions, as in a fractured "us" and "them" relationship. If higher educational organizations are to hope to survive and even thrive in the coming years, they must work to unify and synchronize their previously competing component parts. It is believed that higher education is critical in the formation of useful and worthwhile citizens; higher education, therefore, with its core of faculty members, must find a way to increase its levels of organizational commitment.

Study Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The applications of this study are limited, especially for Saudi Arabian institutions, since the extant literature contains little information about the organizational commitment of faculty in higher education settings, and offers little sound data concerning the antecedents and correlates of organizational commitment among faculty members in higher education. The purpose of this study was merely to gather insights for the consideration, analysis, and relevant application by any interested administrators in higher education.

This study's perceptual and affective measures and the organizational commitment of faculty in higher education merit further research, studies that especially refrain from focusing on demographics and job-related factors, since many demographics and job-related factors do not seem to affect commitment (although demographics and job-related factors are important *predictors* of organizational commitment). Any future studies of organizational commitment should rather explore other themes, including other affective measures (the personal or individual perceptions of the organization held by non-employees). One question might be: How do faculty members of colleges and universities define the term "organization?"

To explore their relationships with organizational commitment, future research might also focus on organizational variables and work experiences, including participation, stock ownership, gain sharing, and autonomy. The future studies might introduce organizational structure (centralized organization versus non-centralized organization, for example), while work experiences might cover socialization, leadership or management style, personal importance and pay equity.

Other contextual variables that might be included in future research are, among others, organizational culture, leadership style, technology, organizational change and group dynamics. Specifically, future studies would do well to explore the interaction between organization context and the myriad forms of managerial and employee interactions, also focusing on those factors that contribute to applicants' pre-entry perceptions of person-job fit. Considering the limitations of the previous research, important questions remain unanswered.

The findings of this study that relate to organizational commitment are significant, but much of the extent research on organizational commitment has been conducted in the Western world, with relatively little research being conducted elsewhere in the world.

If a researcher were to systematically explore the dimensionality of commitment across cultures, he would make a significant contribution to management research literature, because by conducting a more culturally based study of organizational commitment, the results could be applied to the organizational commitment construct.

The study findings show a high correlation ($r=.80$, $p<.001$, $N=315$) between affective and normative commitment. Given the fact that a high correlation is shown, earlier research efforts using factor analytic research showed each commitment variable to be separate and distinct. This fact is indicative of the need for further validation of the high correlations between those constructs.

While it is true for many that their commitment level is a sensitive subject, experimental design may offer control irrelevant or extraneous variables. The researcher chose to use a mail survey for data collection on this subject. A mail survey is a self-report data recovery tool, which is socially acceptable and is consistent in design. Future researchers may choose other data sources in order to avoid any threats to reliability or to the validity of the study.

Though this study used a cross section method of research, other researchers could choose to use such methods as longitudinal and experimentation research methods. Many researchers have suggested different data sources and data collection methods in the hope of reducing potential problems associated with self-reports, a system that has been used by the majority of researchers to gather data from subjects about a particular phenomenon (including organizational commitment). Because organizational commitment tends to be a sensitive matter for both management and employees, self-reports are a favorable method for collecting data from IPA faculty members.

Since the focus of this study was rather narrowly done for the IPA's Riyadh headquarters and women branch, not including the Dammam and Jeddah branches, it may not be possible to generalize the results to other organizations in Saudi Arabia. Because the other IPA branches were not included, it leaves the door open to further research within different areas and cultural settings to see if the results are similar within a larger populace.

Although the return rate was considerably high (71.5% of the distributed questionnaires), the study findings are limited to the data collected throughout the sample. The mean of the independent variables collected from the sample should be compared to the mean of those variables in the actual population. However, such data was not available at the IPA.

APPENDIX A

REGRESSIONS AND CROSS-TABULATION TABLES

Table 33: (H1, H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H2, H2a, H2b) linear regression for continuance commitment when all variables entered into the model

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.618(a)	.382	.364	5.370

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial, Age of respondent, Occupational level, Years at the IPA

ANOVA (b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5036.732	8	629.592	21.835	.000(a)
	Residual	8160.182	283	28.835		
	Total	13196.914	291			

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial, Age of respondent, Occupational level, Years at the IPA
b Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	25.090	2.572		9.757	.000
	Nationality	1.328	1.056	.083	1.258	.210
	Age	-.168	.070	-.212	-2.406	.017
	Sex	-5.150	.890	-.279	-5.788	.000
	Education	1.411	.638	.122	2.211	.028
	Occupation	-2.601	.764	-.308	-3.404	.001
	Job Type	-3.729	.973	-.240	-3.830	.000
	Tenure	-.015	.093	-.018	-.162	.871
	Salary	.000	.000	.070	.555	.580

a Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Table 34: (H1, H1a, H1c, H1d, H2, and H2b) linear regression for affective commitment when all variables entered into the model.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.418(a)	.175	.152	5.506

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial, Occupational level, Age of respondent, Years at the IPA

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1856.790	8	232.099	7.656	.000(a)
	Residual	8761.478	289	30.317		
	Total	10618.268	297			

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial, Occupational level, Age of respondent, Years at the IPA
b Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Coefficients (a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.896	2.554		8.574	.000
	Nationality	-1.878	1.068	-.131	-1.758	.080
	Age	.050	.070	.072	.719	.473
	Sex	2.854	.910	.173	3.137	.002
	Education	-2.456	.637	-.243	-3.859	.000
	Occupation	.469	.769	.062	.610	.542
	Job Type	3.858	.971	.282	3.974	.000
	Tenure	.156	.094	.207	1.655	.099
	Salary	.000	.000	-.120	-.823	.411

a Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Table 35: (H1, H1a, H1b, H1d, H2, and H2b) linear regression for normative commitment when all variables entered into the model

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.469(a)	.220	.198	5.320

a Predictors: (Constant), annualsalary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial, Occupational level, Age of respondent, Years at the IPA

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2278.349	8	284.794	10.061	.000(a)
	Residual	8067.668	285	28.308		
	Total	10346.017	293			

a Predictors: (Constant), annualsalary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial, Occupational level, Age of respondent, Years at the IPA
b Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	20.481	2.490		8.224	.000
	Nationality	-1.499	1.049	-.105	-1.429	.154
	Age	.105	.070	.151	1.496	.136
	Gender	3.335	.880	.204	3.789	.000
	Education	-3.127	.626	-.310	-4.994	.000
	Occupation	1.159	.749	.155	1.548	.123
	Job Type	4.322	.945	.316	4.572	.000
	Tenure	.077	.091	.103	.846	.398
	Salary	.000	.000	-.188	-1.309	.192

a Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Table 36: (H1, H1a, H1c, H1d, H2, and H2b) logistic regression for overall commitment when all variables entered into the model

Classification Table(a)

Observed			Predicted		
			Overallcommt.		Percentage Correct
			0	1	
Step 1	Overall commitment	0	140	33	80.9
		1	47	80	63.0
	Overall Percentage				73.3

a The cut value is .500

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	332.802(a)	.224	.301

a Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Model	75.927	10	.000

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1(a)	Nationality	-.749	.424	3.113	1	.078	.473
	Gender	1.708	.399	18.349	1	.000	5.519
	Education	-.736	.303	5.891	1	.015	.479
	Job type	1.731	.405	18.224	1	.000	5.644
	Age	.045	.029	2.495	1	.114	1.046
	Tenure	.024	.038	.393	1	.531	1.024
	Annual salary	.000	.000	1.322	1	.250	1.000
	Occupation			2.418	3	.490	
	Occupation(1)	-1.643	1.150	2.044	1	.153	.193
	Occupation(2)	-1.099	.985	1.244	1	.265	.333
	Occupation(3)	-1.103	.959	1.324	1	.250	.332
	Constant	.816	1.705	.229	1	.632	2.261

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nationality, Gender, Education, Job type, Age, Tenure, annual salary, Occupation.

Table 37: H1b linear regression for affective commitment with age entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.374(a)	.140	.126	5.510

a Predictors: (Constant), Managerial or non-managerial, Sex of respondent, The highest degree, Nationality, Age of respondent

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1528.600	5	305.720	10.070	.000(a)
	Residual	9410.995	310	30.358		
	Total	10939.595	315			

a Predictors: (Constant), Managerial or non-managerial, Sex of respondent, The highest degree, Nationality, Age of respondent
b Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	19.557	2.027		9.649	.000
	Nationality	-1.199	.864	-.087	-1.388	.166
	Age of respondent	1.981	.049	.123	1.732	.024
	Sex of respondent	2.411	.886	.145	2.721	.007
	The highest degree	-1.943	.605	-.195	-3.211	.001
	Managerial or non-managerial	4.114	.869	.301	4.735	.000

a Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Table 38: H1b linear regression for normative commitment with age entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.417(a)	.173	.160	5.395

a Predictors: (Constant), Age of respondent, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1869.599	5	373.920	12.846	.000(a)
	Residual	8907.273	306	29.109		
	Total	10776.872	311			

a Predictors: (Constant), Age of respondent, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	17.481	1.992		8.774	.000
	Nationality	-1.009	.848	-.073	-1.189	.235
	Sex of respondent	3.070	.869	.185	3.533	.000
	The highest degree	-2.635	.603	-.264	-4.366	.000
	Managerial or non-managerial	3.906	.857	.285	4.560	.000
	Age of respondent	.127	.048	.183	2.613	.009

a Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Table 39: H1b logistic regression for overall commitment with age entered into the model independently

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1(a)	Nationality	-.712	.346	4.232	1	.040	.490
	Age	.048	.020	5.663	1	.017	1.049
	Gender	1.711	.385	19.704	1	.000	5.532
	Education	-.614	.251	5.969	1	.015	.541
	Job type	1.663	.361	21.246	1	.000	5.274
	Constant	-1.644	.829	3.933	1	.047	.193

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nationality, Age, Gender, Education, Job type.

Table 40: H2a linear regression for continuance commitment with occupational level entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.594(a)	.352	.342	5.369

a Predictors: (Constant), Occupational level, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4801.889	5	960.378	33.317	.000(a)
	Residual	8820.569	306	28.825		
	Total	13622.458	311			

a Predictors: (Constant), Occupational level, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	19.374	.902		21.471	.000
	Nationality	2.969	.754	.194	3.937	.000
	Sex of respondent	-5.014	.865	-.269	-5.798	.000
	The highest degree	1.121	.587	.100	1.909	.057
	Managerial or non-managerial	-4.248	.895	-.275	-4.747	.000
	Occupational level	-2.970	.493	-.358	-6.020	.000

a Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Table 41: H2a linear regression for affective commitment with occupational level entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.379(a)	.143	.130	5.555

a Predictors: (Constant), Occupational level, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1612.540	5	322.508	10.452	.000(a)
	Residual	9626.646	312	30.855		
	Total	11239.186	317			

a Predictors: (Constant), Occupational level, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	22.423	.927		24.182	.000
	Nationality	-1.577	.779	-.114	-2.025	.044
	Sex of respondent	2.543	.893	.150	2.848	.005
	The highest degree	-2.043	.595	-.205	-3.432	.001
	Managerial or non-managerial	3.937	.902	.285	4.367	.000
	Occupational level	1.003	.507	.134	1.979	.049

a Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Table 42: H2a linear regression for normative commitment with occupational level entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.423(a)	.179	.165	5.361

a Predictors: (Constant), Occupational level, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1926.184	5	385.237	13.405	.000(a)
	Residual	8851.663	308	28.739		
	Total	10777.847	313			

a Predictors: (Constant), Occupational level, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.970	.909		24.168	.000
	Nationality	-1.948	.759	-.142	-2.568	.011
	Sex of respondent	3.163	.863	.191	3.665	.000
	The highest degree	-2.523	.582	-.256	-4.339	.000
	Managerial or non-managerial	4.016	.879	.294	4.569	.000
	Occupational level	1.112	.491	.151	2.264	.024

a Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Table 43: H2a logistic regression for overall commitment with occupational level entered into the model independently

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1(a)	Nationality	-1.023	.309	10.956	1	.001	.360
	Gender	1.705	.383	19.804	1	.000	5.500
	Education			5.909	2	.052	
	Education(1)	1.177	.486	5.867	1	.015	3.244
	Education(2)	.486	.347	1.965	1	.161	1.626
	Jobtype	1.586	.365	18.905	1	.000	4.882
	Occupation	.494	.209	5.622	1	.018	1.639
	Constant	-1.061	.379	7.814	1	.005	.346

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nationality, Gender, Education, Jobtype, Occupation.

Table 44: H2c logistic regression for continuance commitment with annual salary entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.577(a)	.333	.321	5.506

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4455.897	5	891.179	29.397	.000(a)
	Residual	8943.099	295	30.316		
	Total	13398.997	300			

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	23.926	1.295		18.475	.000
	Nationality	3.086	.805	.194	3.833	.000
	Sex of respondent	-5.225	.897	-.282	-5.823	.000
	The highest degree	.910	.625	.079	1.456	.147
	Managerial or non-managerial	-4.210	.958	-.273	-4.393	.000
	Annual salary	-3.101	.645	-.328	-5.037	.000

a Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Table 45: H2c logistic regression for affective commitment with annual salary entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.386(a)	.149	.135	5.505

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1596.261	5	319.252	10.534	.000(a)
	Residual	9122.156	301	30.306		
	Total	10718.417	306			

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.042	1.281		16.430	.000
	Nationality	-1.862	.804	-.132	-2.316	.021
	Sex of respondent	2.621	.895	.158	2.928	.004
	The highest degree	-2.100	.609	-.209	-3.446	.001
	Managerial or non-managerial	3.941	.936	.290	4.211	.000
	Annual salary	1.89	.643	.198	1.845	.026

a Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Table 46: H2c linear regression for normative commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.428(a)	.184	.170	5.372

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1927.775	5	385.555	13.359	.000(a)
	Residual	8571.631	297	28.861		
	Total	10499.406	302			

a Predictors: (Constant), annual salary, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.002	1.255		16.730	.000
	Nationality	-2.208	.793	-.157	-2.784	.006
	Sex of respondent	3.216	.874	.196	3.678	.000
	The highest degree	-2.618	.601	-.261	-4.353	.000
	Managerial or non-managerial	4.402	.920	.324	4.786	.000
	Annual salary	2.523	.602	.104	2.525	.008

a Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Table 47: H2c logistic regression for overall commitment with annual salary entered into the model independently

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Step 1(a)	Nationality	-1.008	.318	10.013	1	.002	.365
	Gender	1.688	.389	18.850	1	.000	5.410
	Education			3.368	2	.186	
	Education(1)	.914	.499	3.358	1	.067	2.494
	Education(2)	.359	.352	1.038	1	.308	1.432
	Job type	1.687	.392	18.552	1	.000	5.401
	Annual salary	1.110	.380	1.468	1	.026	1.051
	Constant	-1.267	.621	4.169	1	.041	.282

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nationality, Gender, Education, Job type, annual salary.

Table 48: H2d linear regression for continuance commitment with organizational tenure entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.576(a)	.332	.320	5.479

a Predictors: (Constant), Years at the IPA, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4452.834	5	890.567	29.662	.000(a)
	Residual	8977.048	299	30.024		
	Total	13429.882	304			

a Predictors: (Constant), Years at the IPA, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	20.024	.934		21.446	.000
	Nationality	3.599	.790	.236	4.558	.000
	Sex of respondent	-5.372	.900	-.290	-5.966	.000
	The highest degree	.864	.607	.076	1.424	.156
	Managerial or non-managerial	-4.930	.933	-.317	-5.282	.000
	Years at the IPA	-.250	.053	-.298	-4.678	.000

a Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Table 49: H2d linear regression for affective commitment with organizational tenure entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.402(a)	.162	.148	5.539

a Predictors: (Constant), Years at the IPA, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1806.475	5	361.295	11.778	.000(a)
	Residual	9356.380	305	30.677		
	Total	11162.855	310			

a Predictors: (Constant), Years at the IPA, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	22.401	.936		23.936	.000
	Nationality	-2.235	.798	-.161	-2.799	.005
	Sex of respondent	2.821	.908	.167	3.108	.002
	The highest degree	-2.276	.599	-.226	-3.802	.000
	Managerial or non-managerial	4.099	.919	.294	4.462	.000
	Years at the IPA	.124	.053	.164	2.331	.020

a Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Table 50: H2d linear regression for normative commitment with organizational tenure entered into the model independently

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.435(a)	.189	.176	5.367

a Predictors: (Constant), Years at the IPA, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2022.643	5	404.529	14.045	.000(a)
	Residual	8669.780	301	28.803		
	Total	10692.423	306			

a Predictors: (Constant), Years at the IPA, Sex of respondent, Nationality, The highest degree, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.976	.919		23.905	.000
	Nationality	-2.449	.783	-.179	-3.127	.002
	Sex of respondent	3.294	.881	.199	3.740	.000
	The highest degree	-2.532	.587	-.254	-4.310	.000
	Managerial or non-managerial	4.646	.896	.337	5.186	.000
	Years at the IPA	1.086	.252	.115	1.960	.018

a Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Table 51: H2d logistic regression for overall commitment with organizational tenure entered into the model independently

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1(a)	Nationality	-1.228	.319	14.814	1	.000	.293
	Gender	1.770	.400	19.596	1	.000	5.872
	Education			5.908	2	.052	
	Education(1)	1.198	.497	5.813	1	.016	3.315
	Education(2)	.584	.349	2.794	1	.095	1.793
	Job type	1.806	.388	21.682	1	.000	6.085
	Tenure	.939	.023	2.957	1	.015	1.040
	Constant	-1.105	.400	7.635	1	.006	.331

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nationality, Gender, Education, Job type, Tenure.

Table 52: H2c, and H2d linear regression for continuance commitment with combining age, occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure variables into agocctensal

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.562(a)	.316	.305	5.516

a Predictors: (Constant), agocctensal2, The highest degree, Sex of respondent, Nationality, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4331.988	5	866.398	28.473	.000(a)
	Residual	9371.961	308	30.428		
	Total	13703.949	313			

a Predictors: (Constant), agocctensal2, The highest degree, Sex of respondent, Nationality, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	19.434	.921		21.098	.000
	Nationality	3.164	.768	.208	4.117	.000
	Sex of respondent	-5.124	.896	-.274	-5.721	.000
	The highest degree	-.240	.567	-.021	-.424	.672
	Managerial or non-managerial	-5.252	.886	-.339	-5.929	.000
	agocctensal	-4.981	1.144	-.234	-4.354	.000

a Dependent Variable: continuance commitment

Table 53: H1b, H2a, H2c, and H2d linear regression for affective commitment with combining age, occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure variables into agocctensal

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.386(a)	.149	.135	5.537

a Predictors: (Constant), agocctensal2, The highest degree, Sex of respondent, Nationality, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1684.037	5	336.807	10.987	.000(a)
	Residual	9625.510	314	30.654		
	Total	11309.547	319			

a Predictors: (Constant), agocctensal2, The highest degree, Sex of respondent, Nationality, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	22.487	.918		24.502	.000
	Nationality	-1.801	.770	-.131	-2.340	.020
	Sex of respondent	2.677	.896	.158	2.988	.003
	The highest degree	-1.562	.555	-.156	-2.813	.005
	Managerial or non-managerial	3.876	.865	.280	4.478	.000
	agocctensal	2.892	1.137	.150	2.543	.011

a Dependent Variable: affective commitment

Table 54: H1b, H2a, H2c, and H2d linear regression for normative commitment with combining age, occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure variables into agocctensal

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.436(a)	.190	.177	5.318

a Predictors: (Constant), agocctensal2, The highest degree, Sex of respondent, Nationality, Managerial or non-managerial

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2052.576	5	410.515	14.513	.000(a)
	Residual	8768.547	310	28.286		
	Total	10821.123	315			

a Predictors: (Constant), agocctensal2, The highest degree, Sex of respondent, Nationality, Managerial or non-managerial
b Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.940	.895		24.506	.000
	Nationality	-2.125	.746	-.157	-2.850	.005
	Sex of respondent	3.368	.863	.203	3.904	.000
	The highest degree	-1.972	.539	-.200	-3.661	.000
	Managerial or non-managerial	3.857	.842	.282	4.579	.000
	agocctensal2	3.430	1.099	.182	3.122	.002

a Dependent Variable: normative commitment

Table 55: H1b, H2a, H2c, and H2d logistic regression for overall commitment with combining age, occupational level, annual salary, and organizational tenure variables into agocctensal

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1(a)	Nationality	-1.091	.305	12.748	1	.000	.336
	Gender	1.709	.384	19.840	1	.000	5.525
	Education			2.705	2	.259	
	Education(1)	.711	.449	2.505	1	.113	2.036
	Education(2)	.222	.346	.413	1	.520	1.249
	Jobtype	1.681	.355	22.387	1	.000	5.373
	agocctensal	.970	.472	4.226	1	.040	2.637
	Constant	-.542	.339	2.567	1	.109	.581

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nationality, Gender, Education, Job Type, agocctensal.

Table 56: Cross-tabulating independent variables with continuance commitment

		Continuance commitment				
Variables		Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-Square	Sig.
Nationality	Non-Saudi		X		12.25	.01
	Saudi			X		
Age	Young			X	60.850	.000
	Medium		X			
	Old age	X				
Sex of respondent	Male			X	26.589	.000
	Female	X				
Education	Bachelor			X	7.624	.106
	Master		X			
	Doctorate	X				
Occupational Level	$7^{th} - 8^{th}$			X	49.960	.000
	$9^{th} - 10^{th}$ & assistant prof.	X				
	$11^{th} - 12^{th}$ & Associate prof	X				
	$13^{th} - 14^{th}$ & full prof.	X				
Job Type	No			X	43.833	.000
	Yes		X			
Annual salary in groups	Low			X	38.798	.000
	Medium			X		
	High	X				
Tenure in groups	Low		X		36.171	.000
	Medium			X		
	High	X				

Table 57: Cross-tabulating independent variables with affective commitment

Variables		Affective Commitment Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-Square	Sig.
Nationality	Non-Saudi		X		5.084	.079
	Saudi	X				
Age	Young	X			26.955	.000
	Medium		X			
	Old age			X		
Sex of respondent	Male	X			7.002	.03
	Female			X		
Education	Bachelor		X		.764	.943
	Master	X				
	Doctorate	X				
Occupational Level	7th – 8th	X			35.006	.000
	9th – 10th & assistant prof.			X		
	11th – 12th & Associate prof			X		
	13th – 14th & full prof.			X		
Job Type	No	X			31.716	.000
	Yes			X		
Annual salary in groups	Low		X		36.438	.000
	Medium	X				
	High			X		
Tenure in groups	Low		X		36.341	.000
	Medium	X				
	High			X		

Table 58: Cross-tabulating independent variables with normative commitment

Variables		Normative Commitment Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-Square	Sig.
Nationality	Non-Saudi		X		1.917	.383
	Saudi	X				
Age	Young		X		28.680	.000
	Medium	X				
	Old age			X		
Sex of respondent	Male	X			9.773	.008
	Female			X		
Education	Bachelor		X		16.262	.003
	Master	X				
	Doctorate	X				
Occupational Level	$7^{th} - 8^{th}$	X			31.009	.000
	$9^{th} - 10^{th}$ & assistant prof.			X		
	$11^{th} - 12^{th}$ & Associate prof			X		
	$13^{th} - 14^{th}$ & full prof.			X		
Job Type	No	X			26.408	.000
	Yes			X		
Annual salary in groups	Low		X		39.396	.000
	Medium	X				
	High			X		
Tenure in groups	Low		X		36.916	.000
	Medium	X				
	High			X		

Table 59: Cross-tabulating independent variables with overall commitment

Variables		**Overall Commitment** Low	High	Pearson Chi-Square	Sig.
Nationality	Non-Saudi		X	3.11	.078
	Saudi	X			
Age	Young	X		23.71	.000
	Medium		X		
	Old age		X		
Sex of respondent	Male	X		22.07	.000
	Female		X		
Education	Bachelor	X		1.06	.588
	Master		X		
	Doctorate	X			
Occupational Level	$7^{th} - 8^{th}$	X		19.02	.000
	$9^{th} - 10^{th}$ & assistant prof.		X		
	$11^{th} - 12^{th}$ & Associate prof		X		
	$13^{th} - 14^{th}$ & full prof.		X		
Job Type	No	X		30.74	.000
	Yes		X		
Annual salary in groups	Low	X		11.75	.003
	Medium	X			
	High		X		
Tenure in groups	Low	X		11.17	.004
	Medium	X			
	High		X		

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER AND SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Dear Faculty Member:

I am a doctoral candidate in public policy and administration at Virginia Commonwealth University and this study is to fulfill the dissertation requirements toward completing my Ph.D. This study aims to assess the organizational commitment among faculty members in the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) and the effects of their demographics and job-related factors on their commitment. Faculty organizational commitment is the focus of my study, and the questionnaire is an instrument previously developed and used by Meyer and Allen to help me collect data for analysis. With the Institute of Public Administration's approval and support, the gathered data will become the basis for my dissertation.

However, participating in this study is completely voluntary and you may refuse or terminate your participation at any time. You may also skip or reject any question you do not wish to answer. If you should decide you do not wish to complete the study, that is your right; and it will cause no problems either for you, or for the IPA.

Your anonymity and confidentiality are assured, and the documents have not been individually coded in any way. Your response will not be revealed to anyone inside or outside the IPA. Findings and analyses will be commonly available upon completion of the study.

I would appreciate your filling out the enclosed questionnaire and information sheets. Responding to the questionnaire and answering the information requested should take you less than ten minutes, so please respond openly and freely.

Please deposit the folded two-page questionnaire into the collection box located in your mailroom at the IPA. To ensure your privacy and anonymity, and to help my tracking of any late respondents, please sign and deposit **the 4 x 6 card** in the separate collection box designated for them in your mailroom ***48 hours after you*** have deposited the questionnaire. I can then remove your name from any follow-up list. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning this questionnaire.

Thank you.

Moshobab Alkahtani

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

Number	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	It would be very hard for me to leave the IPA right now, even if I wanted to.					
2	I do not feel any obligation to remain with the IPA.					
3	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with the IPA.					
4	One of the few negative consequences of leaving the IPA is the scarcity of available alternatives.					
5	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave the IPA now.					
6	I really feel as if the IPA's problems are my own.					
7	Right now, staying with the IPA is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
8	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to the IPA.					
9	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the IPA.					
10	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to the IPA.					
11	I would feel guilty if I left the IPA now.					
12	I do not feel like "part of the family" at the IPA.					
13	The IPA deserves my loyalty.					
14	If I had not already put so much of myself into the IPA, I might consider working elsewhere.					
15	I would not leave the IPA right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.					
16	The IPA has a great deal of personal meaning to me					
17	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave the IPA.					
18	I owe a great deal to the IPA					

Please, answer the following questions:

1- Nationality: Non-Saudi ☐ Saudi ☐

2- Age ………..

3- Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

4- What is the highest degree you earned?
- Bachelor ☐
- Master ☐
- Doctorate ☐

5- what is your occupational level?
- Seventh to Eighth ☐
- Ninth to Tenth or Assistant professor ☐
- Eleventh to twelfth or Associate professor ☐
- Thirteenth to Fourteenth or Full professor ☐

6- Do you supervise others in the IPA? No ☐ Yes ☐

7- Monthly Salary: ………

8- How long have you worked for the IPA? ……..

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