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THE HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES & FACULTY COMMITMENT: A JOB SATISFACTION–DRIVEN MEDIATION FRAMEWORK

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KEYWORDS	ABSTRACT
Training, Compensation, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Faculty, Mediation Framework, Pakistan	The human resource practices, such as compensation and training aim to enhance employees’ work attitudes and outcomes likewise organizational commitment. However, there is limited empirical evidence to support this notion after reviewing the existing literature. This study looks at the effects of compensation and training on the organizational commitment of higher education faculty. In this regard, these relationships are mediated by the faculty’s job satisfaction. The hypothesized relationships were tested by collecting data through simple random sampling from 192 faculty members from five public sector universities operating in KP, province of Pakistan, using structural equation modelling (SEM). The findings suggest a partial mediation of job satisfaction amid training & organizational commitment while full mediation of job satisfaction was observed amid compensation and organizational commitment. Training had weak but significant direct effect on organizational commitment, however most intriguing finding of study was that compensation had no significant effect on organizational commitment. The study offers significant findings for managers, academic professionals, and policy makers for revisiting the strategies and policies for effective management of professional employees; particularly in higher education sector.
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INTRODUCTION

The literature on strategic human resource management in specific & human resource management, in general, has been dominated by three theories, i.e., social exchange theory, human capital theory, and resource-based view, but resource-based view theory has dominated most part of it (Jiang & Messersmith, 2018; Mather & Bam, 2025). For long time, resource-based view has been considered as the most important perspective for companies that employ three main pillars for success of any

organization that is: human beings, actual physical resources, and business capital (Barney, 1991). The business environment is subjected to changes all over world and advancement of technology forces organizations to adapt to these dynamics in order to cope with the growing complexities and competition (Schuler, Tarique, & Jackson, 2004). In Pakistan, the introduction of the latest schemes and technology by HEC for universities and HEIs have further increased the complexity of work at these institutions (Amin, Shah, & Tatlah, 2013). In this connection, the new promotion criteria and reward policies of the HEC have put teaching faculties of universities in a race for publications that further adds to complexities to employees' management (Yusoff & Khan, 2013; Khan, Jabeen, & Christensen, 2022).

Every organization strives for the best practices to create competitive workforce, by upskilling and motivating the employees (Findley & Wheatley, 2017). The new challenges serve as opportunities for some and threats for many, which has made it even more complicated to create a committed workforce. The RBV and social exchange theory assume reciprocal relationship between human HR practices investments and employees' commitment but they ignore utilitarian nature of individuals (Ahmed, Khuwaja, Brohi, Othman, & Bin, 2018). Hence, impact of HR practices on organizational commitment needs to be further explored by considering key mediating variables and theoretical perspectives (Mahmood, Akhtar, Talat, Shuai, & Hyatt, 2019). Moreover, the past few decades show that different researchers have focused on work-related attitudes of professionals (Mather & Bam, 2025; Vadilla, Fitria & Wahjono, 2025; Mumtaz, Khan, Aslam & Ahmad, 2012; Sharif, Malik, Arooj & Albadry, 2024). Still, organizational commitment remains an unsolved dilemma in the literature of human resource management and is thus still important concept to tackle for researchers. Camp (1994), confirmed that more than three thousand studies are conducted only on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In developing countries like Pakistan and more specifically in the case of the educational sector, the organizational commitment is an area where empirical studies are scarce. The higher educational institutions, and HEC are struggling to solve dilemma of faculty commitment in higher educational institutions because numerous studies have investigated commitment in different contexts and different organizational settings (Masud & Daud, 2019). The current study complements literature on the RBV and SET by arguing that the utilitarian nature of individuals is a critical factor while investigating their work attitudes and outcomes (Gneezy, Meier, & Rey-Biel, 2011). Moreover, this study also contributes to the theory by arguing that employees hold discretionary power to exhibit or not exhibit positive attitudes after investments incurred them in the form of training as well as compensation (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). This study offers a practical contribution by suggesting plans and strategies of keeping employees satisfied and a committed workforce through consistent communication of human resource messages. Hereafter, this study aims to investigate the under-researched problem with regard to training and compensation roles in faculty's job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

RBV and SET enhance the understanding of employer-employee relationships in an organizational context. The RBV is a framework used by managers to effectively utilize the strategic resources of a

firm for sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). According to this view higher education faculty is a rare asset for any university and/or HEI that can create value and provide competitive advantage. Utilizing current study's theoretical framework, we offer new suggestions with regard to the problem of organizational commitment in context of academicians. Training and compensation are supposed to build employees' capacity and compensate them; hence this study assumes that as per SET's norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), these practices will lead to employees' increased job satisfaction (Tsai, Wu, Yen, Ho & Huang, 2005). Thus, this study takes training and compensation practices into consideration because of their importance with regard to employees' work outcomes (Jaworski et al, 2018; Ismail et al, 2021). In a meta-analysis of human resource practices, there were numerous studies on selective recruitment, performance appraisal, etc., but only a scant amount of empirical research was conducted on training and compensation (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008; Gupta & Shaw, 2014).

There has been a lack of empirical evidence linking these practices to employees' outcomes, such as job satisfaction and commitment in professional employees (Phillips, 2012; Boxall, Ang, & Bartram, 2011). Tsai et al. (2005) have stressed that it is essential for firms to plan training and compensation practices that focus on motivating employees and making employees feel as if they are being taken care of, will enhance their commitment and training and compensation lead to greater commitment (Arocas & Camps, 2007; Yasmin, 2008; Aslam & Sarwar, 2010) and enhanced the employees' performance (Stassen, 2008). Training opportunities thus serve as a catalyst for employees' positive work behaviors and attitudes, since they develop a sense of identification with organization (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008). This urges the need of developing effective strategies for training employees to develop a more committed workforce in order to get a competitive advantage (Sanchez, Aragon, & Valle, 2003). Despite dense support for enhancing employees' satisfaction and commitment levels in the literature through training and compensation practices, the norm of reciprocity does not seem to be realized and there exists a gap in the relationship of training and compensation linked to the organizational commitment.

Training, Compensation & Organizational Commitment

Porter et al. (1974) refers to organizational commitment as employees having trust in organizations' objectives and their struggle to achieve those objectives and remain loyal to organization. Similarly, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) have defined organizational commitment as a sense of affection for organizational values and association identification with its mission. In Organizational commitment has been classified into three dimensions in the literature i.e., the affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuous commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The authors refer to affective commitment as a sense of identification and attachment to the organization, having the desire to keep working with the organization. The commitment refers to the belief of employees regarding the consequences of an exit from the organization in different situations (Allen & Meyer, 1996). In this connection, the organizations invest resources in training their employees, but somehow, they are not focused on exploring effective training techniques which would produce valuable outcomes (Jaworski et al, 2018). In this connection, one of the reasons appears to be the lack of the empirical evidence regarding effectiveness of training in enhancing employees' satisfaction and commitment (Phillips, 2012).

There exists suitable support for training and compensation that these practices boost employees' job satisfaction and commitment (Sharif et al., 2024; Brown, Forde, Spencer, & Charlwood, 2008; Mumtaz et al., 2012). In organizations that put more emphasis on training, employees seek career development chances and more satisfied with their jobs (Tharenou et al., 2007) which ultimately leads to enhanced organizational commitment (Yousef, 2017). While inadequate training results in lower job satisfaction (Deery & Kinnie, 2002) and therefore decreased organizational commitment (Yousef, 2017), which ultimately leads to higher organizational commitment and increased output (Moncarz & Zhao, 2009). Thus, SET extensively explains job satisfaction in the relationship with organizational commitment and assumes that an employer and employees engage in the reciprocal relationship. Gerhart et al. (1995) defined compensation as the combination of all the direct and indirect payments received by an employee including wages, benefits, bonuses, and stocks (Gupta & Shaw, 2014). Numerous empirical studies claim that compensation is one of the most important leading determinants of organizational commitment (Berber & Gašić, 2024; Ahn & Garcia, 2004; Ghazanfar et al., 2011).

H1: Training will have a positive significant effect on faculty member's organizational commitment.

H2: Compensation has positive significant effect on faculty member's organizational commitment.

Training, Compensation & Job Satisfaction

Hoppock (1935) defines job satisfaction as a professional's pleasure of an employee with his/her job as a result of the combination of all the psychological, physiological, and environmental factors. Vroom (1964) defines job satisfaction according to roles of employees, thus referring to it as positive attitudes of the employees towards their respective roles in the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Whereas, some authors simply define it with regard to kinds of attitudes and feelings of employees with respect to their job, tying positive attitudes and sentiments to satisfaction while negative ones to dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). According to different scholars, satisfaction mainly depends on the expectations of individuals, their needs, and values (Mather & Bam, 2025; Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996). Training and compensation play a vital role in the faculty's job satisfaction, whenever they are offered with equitable compensation and training to improve their knowledge, skills and capabilities (Ghazanfar, Chuanmin, Khan & Bashir, 2011; Vadilla et al., 2025). Various empirical investigations support the notion that training and compensation have significant association with job satisfaction (Lee, 2004; Garrido, Pérez, & Antón, 2005; Jaworski et al., 2018). Therefore, this study proposes that;

H3: The training will have the positive significant effect on the faculty member's job satisfaction.

H4: The compensation will have a positive significant effect on faculty member's job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction & Organizational Commitment

Effective training and compensation practices which are designed to motivate the employees and make them exert extra effort; the employees feel satisfied with their jobs (Tett & Meyer, 1993). The employees with the higher job satisfaction tend to be highly committed to organization (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). Organizations try to keep the employees' satisfaction levels high by investing in them

(Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008), but those investments sometimes lead to dissatisfaction with the job and ultimately lower levels of organizational commitment (Yousef, 2002). Employees' perception is the key to arousal of job satisfaction and commitment (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). Moreover, not all investments lead to higher organizational commitment because of lower job satisfaction with them (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Gul, Usman, Liu, Rehman, & Jebran, 2018; Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). Employees feel committed to organization not just because of the exchange relationship (Rousseau, 1989), they rather feel committed after consistent & effective psychological contract communication (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Numerous studies have investigated job satisfaction in association with organizational commitment in different models (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

H5: Faculty member job satisfaction has a positive significant effect on organizational commitment.

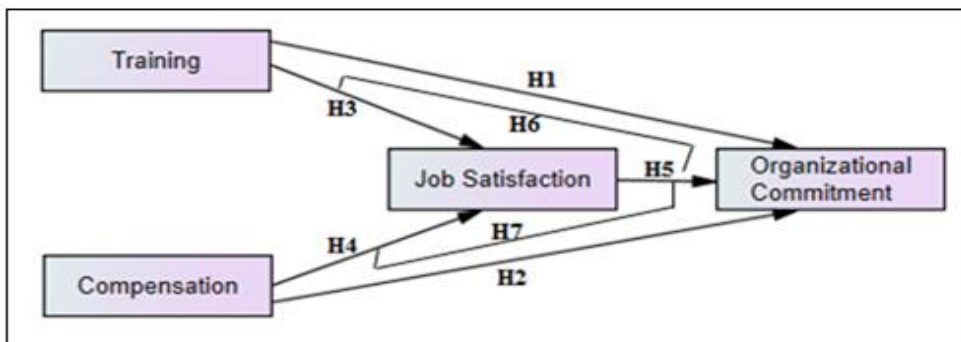
Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction

Although the relationship between training and compensation with organizational commitment and certain other variables is well established, some important intervening variables are yet to be explored (Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Yousef, 2000). Exploring the important intervening variables will facilitate a more effective investigation of training as well as compensation and employees' outcomes. For a long time, HR literature has proven to be insufficient to link HRM with employees' and organizational outcomes. Job satisfaction may serve as a mediator of prime importance in the relationship between training and compensation and organizational commitment (Yousef, 2002). The commitment relies upon employees' perception of the training and compensation (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and consequently is dependent upon the key psychological intervening variables. The job satisfaction is one crucial psychological mechanism (McDonald & Makin, 2000) that can be useful in bridging the gap between training and compensation and the organizational commitment. Hence, job satisfaction can help to bridge gap between training and compensation and organizational commitment and their relationship can be better explained. Thus, we propose that:

H6: Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between training and the faculty commitment.

H7: Job satisfaction will mediate relationship between compensation and a faculty commitment.

Figure 1 Theoretical Framework



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To test the aforementioned hypotheses of this study, a rigorous study was conducted and data were gathered through questionnaires. The aim was to discover faculty's perception regarding training & compensation, job satisfaction and how these variables affect its likelihood toward commitment at the workplace. A self-administered questionnaire was adopted from the literature for this study which comprised two components. Thus, the first part of the questionnaire consisted of participants' demographic attributes such as age, gender, qualification, and designation while the second part consisted of several items, which were measured through five-point Likert Scale. The questionnaire comprised the four main leading components including training, compensation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Sampling of Study

The data were gathered through the survey of faculty members from five universities in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan. The selection criteria for the universities were the size of the university with a minimum number of 6000 students enrolled. Respondents were randomly selected from lists of teaching faculty working in the master's degree programs of the selected universities were included in the study. 300 questionnaires were sent through emails and some were personally administered. Questionnaires were distributed using a simple random sampling technique. Only 192 questionnaires returned were usable, giving a response rate of 64%. The response rate in this study is the sufficient to meet the criteria of the academic research (Shoaib & Baruch, 2017). The demographic statistics exhibit that most of the respondents were male, ranging from 35-45 years of age, having 18 years of the education, having experience of 1-5 years, and were lecturers. Thus, this distribution is representative of the population. The table 1 shows the names of universities, the total number of the enrolled students, and the number of usable questionnaires returned filled by their faculty members.

Instruments for Data Collection

The training was measured through six (6) items borrowed from (Teclemichael Tessema & Soeters, 2006). The respondents rated questionnaire items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 2 = strongly disagree). One item of training (continuity of monitoring & evaluation of training programs) was removed from the study due to low loading as indicated by reliability analysis. Five items were retained for subsequent analysis, which was supported by subsequent PFA and CFA as well. Cronbach alpha was .901. The compensation was measured through 6 items borrowed from (Teclemichael Tessema & Soeters, 2006). The respondents rated questionnaire items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree & 2 = strongly disagree). One item of compensation i.e. (presence of salary that reflects the standard of living) was removed from the study due to low loading in reliability analysis.

Then, PFA and CFA were conducted and those remaining five items were retained. The cronbach's alpha for five items of compensation was .958. Job Satisfaction was measured through five items borrowed from (Judge et al., 1998). Responses for all the items were gathered on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 2 = strongly disagree). All five items were retained after conducting PFA and CFA. Cronbach alpha was .939. Organizational commitment was measured through 13

items borrowed from (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The respondents rated the items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 2 = strongly disagree). All thirteen items were retained after conducting PFA and CFA. The Cronbach alpha was .974. Items for training and compensation were borrowed from Teclemichael Tessema and Soeters (2006) because of their popularity among researchers. Subsequently, items for job satisfaction were borrowed from Judge et al., (1998), which is most widely used instrument with regards to job satisfaction. Items for organizational commitment were adopted from the most widely used instrument of commitment developed and validated by Meyer et al., (1993).

FINDINGS OF STUDY

We observed quite decent distribution for skewness and kurtosis. For skewness, all the values were quite in line with the norm of academic research except the one for gender i.e., 1.409. Subsequently, we observed fairly normal distribution in terms of kurtosis as all the values were below than or fractions above 1, except for qualification i.e., 1.908. Although this violates the strict rules of normality, it meets the criteria of more lenient normality rules (Sposito, Hand, & Skarpness, 1983), according to whom the upper threshold for normality is 3.3. To assess the sampling adequacy of measures Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test was conducted, and the value of KMO was .975, whereas for assessing the statistical power, Eigenvalue was calculated which was above 1, exhibiting significant statistical power (Kaiser, 1960). The values of Cronbach alpha were calculated for all four components which was .98, which is consistent with the norm of reliability in academic research i.e., $\geq .70$ (Bagozzi & Kimmel, 1995). These construct items have been verified through confirmatory factor analysis followed by subsequent analysis. Output diagrams for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) are presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively. The interpretation of both the processes is there in the sections ahead.

Figure 2 Output Diagram for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

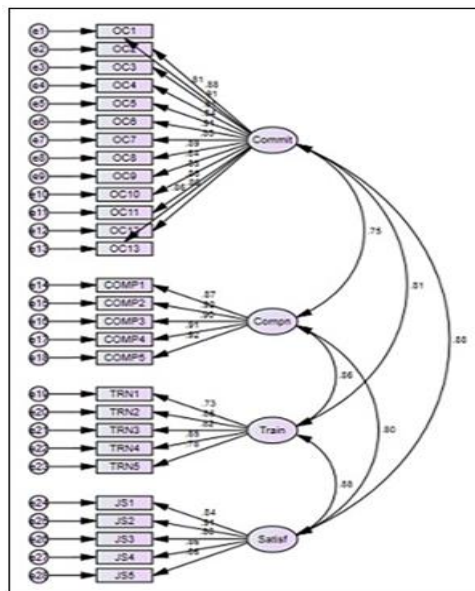
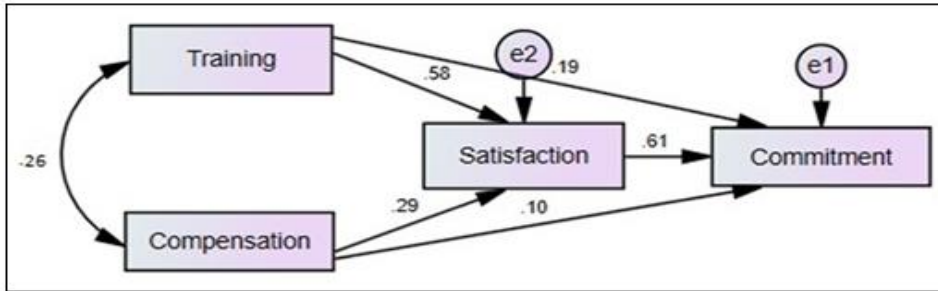


Figure 3 SEM Output Diagram



Exploratory factor analysis was executed to assess the factor loadings for all four constructs of study. Principal factor analysis was used to check validity of all items with regard to respective factors. Items that loaded on more than one factor were omitted from the study; the procedure ended with a refined list of 28 items. Discriminant validity was measured for all the constructs by evaluating the variance extracted inter-construct correlation estimates of all the constructs. All the estimates were less than .85, meeting criteria for discriminant validity of scale (Kline, 2005). Harman's single factor test was executed via SPSS then after CFA to avoid issue of common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Hence, a single factor was taken in comparison with four-factor structure in the single-factor test. The four-factor structure opted in study indicated variance of 47%. A common factor was linked with all constructs in CFA Path diagram in AMOS. The results of CFA suggested that the single-factor model did not fit the data well. For CFA, the outcome was; CMIN = 425.404, GFI = .87, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .03 and PCLOSE = .99. Outcomes indicate that CMB was not a problem.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation model is tested using AMOS version 20 to assess model fit. Model was examined over likelihood methods. $\chi^2 = 83.16$, $p < .002$, GFI = .97, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .03, SRMR = .06 indicated good model fit.

Mediation Analysis

Mediation was tested using AMOS 20 calculating for standardized estimates, direct, indirect and total estimates by performing bootstrap on 2000 samples, 95% confidence interval. As mentioned before the estimates for indirect effects were higher as compared to direct effects. Table 4 shows standardized coefficients and significance values for all the paths of the model in case of both direct and indirect effects.

Table 4 Direct and Indirect Effects

Path	Standardized coefficient (S.E.)	Indirect effect (S.E.)	C.R.
Direct effects		—	
JS ← TRN	.585 (.001**)	—	8.713
JS ← COMP	.290 (.002**)	—	4.323
OC ← JS	.608 (.001**)	—	8.789
OC ← TRN	.185 (.01**)	—	2.440

OC ← COMP	.103(13) _{ns}	–	1526
Indirect effects			
TRN → JS → OC	–	.356(.01 ^{**})	
COMP → JS → OC	–	.177(.01 ^{**})	

Note: TRN: Training, Compensation; JS: Job Satisfaction (mediator); OC: (DV) ^{**}p < .01.

Hypotheses Testing

Training as part of training and compensation predicted organizational commitment (hypothesis 1), with the given values of the standardized beta value of .18, p < .01. Compensation as part of training & compensation could not predict organizational commitment as can be seen from the given values. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported. Training as part of training and compensation predicted job satisfaction with a standardized beta value of .59, p < .01, therefore hypothesis 3 was accepted. Compensation as part of training and compensation predicted JS with a standardized beta value of .29, p < .01, thus hypothesis 4 was accepted. The job satisfaction, in turn predicted organizational commitment with a standardized beta value of .60, p < .01, consequently hypothesis 5 was accepted. Furthermore, the job satisfaction mediated the relationship between training and organizational commitment.

The job satisfaction mediated relationship between compensation and organizational commitment with p < .01 for the indirect effect, which was insignificant for the direct effect and standardized beta values increasing from the direct effect of .10 to the indirect effect of .18. Thus, it can be ascertained that hypothesis 7 is accepted and there is full mediation by in the relationship of compensation and organizational commitment. Using path estimation in AMOS, it can be seen that the direct effects of both predictors i.e., training and compensation on the organizational commitment were weak with standardized beta values of .19 and .10 respectively. Although, the effects of both of these predictors on the mediator were relatively stronger with standardized beta values of .58 and .29, respectively. Subsequently, effect of job satisfaction upon commitment was even greater with standardized beta value of .61.

DISCUSSION

The study offers support for theoretical framework of training & compensation and organizational commitment, where training directly predicted commitment and job satisfaction acted as mediator. All the hypotheses of study were corroborated, apart from hypothesis 2 i.e., compensation directly predicting organizational commitment, although, indirect effect of compensation on organizational commitment was supported (hypothesis 7). The training and compensation predicted commitment (hypothesis 1). The finding is in line with findings of (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Findley & Wheatley, 2017). Similarly, the compensation did not predict organizational commitment (hypothesis 2). The finding was contrary to the findings of Gupta and Shaw (2014) and Moncarz and Zhao (2009). The significant relationship of training and compensation with job satisfaction (H3, H4) is in line with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Lee, 2004; Garrido, Pérez, & Antón, 2005; Jaworski et al, 2018; Armstrong, 2006).

Job satisfaction in turn predicted organizational commitment (hypothesis 5), which is similar to the findings of previous works (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Porter et al., 1974; Samad & Hassan, 2007; Tett

& Meyer, 1993). Moreover, the job satisfaction mediated the relationship first between training and organizational commitment (hypothesis 6) and then between the compensation and organizational commitment (hypothesis 7). This study develops knowledge regarding the usage of training and compensation in enhancing organizational commitment in professionals. Thus, the current study challenges the assumption that the allocation of monetary benefits will always lead to enhanced commitment. Thus, the provision of monetary rewards needs proper implementation with a focus on job satisfaction.

CONCLUSION

The major contribution of this research is that it focuses on the complexity of using human resource investments like training and compensation in university faculty. Monetized rewards & ineffective training can at times lead to lower organizational commitment in professionals by directing their efforts toward activities that serve individual goals rather than the organizational ones. There has always been a debate in the literature about utilization of extrinsic rewards but rarely have they dug deep into it by considering psychological contract issues and crowding out effect of extrinsic rewards. Several behavioral issues can be experienced in professionals if the design of training & compensation practices is weak and context is overlooked. This study supports the outcomes of previous studies regarding the direct effect of job satisfaction upon organizational commitment. Our findings also suggest significant effects of training and compensation on job satisfaction. However, this study cautions academicians to align training and compensation practices with employees' behavioral patterns so that they can be linked with organizational commitment (Shwartz, 2009). This study's findings suggest that there were weak direct effects of training and compensation on commitment. However, the indirect effects of these practices through the job satisfaction were significant upon organizational commitment.

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