

Organisational Culture: Do all its dimensions matter for Organisational Commitment among academic staff in Ugandan universities?

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to establish whether all the dimensions of organisational culture matter for organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda. This study is correlational and cross-sectional in nature. A questionnaire survey of 578 academic staff was used. The data was analysed using SPSS version 23. The results indicate clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchy culture, and market organisational culture do matter for improved organisational commitment among academic staff. The study focused on culture as a predictor of commitment in universities in Uganda; future studies should replicate the same in other contexts. From a managerial perspective, university managers should place emphasis on building a better culture in order to achieve higher levels of organisational commitment. This paper provides initial evidence on whether all the dimensions of organisational culture do matter for organisational commitment among academic staff using evidence from an African developing country “Uganda” .

Keywords: Clan organisational culture, Adhocracy organisational culture, Hierarchy organisational culture, Market organisational culture, Uganda.

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1. Introduction

To attain competitive advantage in the complex business environment, organisations rely on their human capital to remain relevant (Al-Sada et al., 2017; Masouleh & Allahyari, 2017). This calls for organisations to build winning teams that are committed to delivering on their mandate (Hussain et al., 2020). In fact, organisational success is only possible with the contribution of committed employees who are emotionally attached (Hafiz, 2017). Organisational commitment is an important aspect of influencing employee behaviour (Inanlou & Ahn, 2017; Mondo et al., 2022). This implores managers to position commitment as an integral part of the daily human resource management routines so as to sustain it in achieving the desired efficiency (Rodríguez-Fernández et al., 2021). A high level of employee organisational commitment is manifested in improved participation, enthusiasm, a sense of pride, and inspiration (Akyüz & Durmuş, 2022; De Nobile & Bilgin, 2022), despite the challenges that come with the job (Gera et al., 2019). For this reason, organisational commitment enhances courage, curiosity, and love for the job and organisation (Harzer & Ruch, 2014). Given the shift towards a knowledge-based economy, understanding the extent to which commitment drives organisational outcomes remains of interest among researchers and practitioners (Benkarim & Imbeau, 2021). In the context of service entities, staff commitment is observed as a priceless tool in realising their competitive edge and success (Roseline & Konya, 2019).

Education institutions, like other organisations, need highly committed academic staff to achieve their goals (Fako et al., 2018; Obedgiu et al., 2017), especially as they are under pressure to produce skilled graduates. This explains why commitment has received massive consideration from practitioners due to its direct influence on organisational and individual outcomes (Bahrami et al., 2016; Maamari & Saheb, 2018; Sarhan et al., 2020). In this regard, organisations are able to compete with committed employees who exhibit high loyalty and low self-interest (Nandi et al., 2020). Thus, committed staff contribute significantly to the success of organisations by demonstrating their highest level of effort in meeting the demands of the job, supporting change, and defending institutional goals (Benkarim & Imbeau, 2021). Indeed, for universities to continue in the race to gain a competitive edge, they need committed staff to participate in diversified roles of teaching, research, and community engagement as the main pillars for their survival and growth (Estrada et al., 2016; Fako et al., 2018). As a result, committed faculty understand and support university values, make an extra effort to maintain the corporate image of the institution and facilitate engagement with the community, exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), share knowledge, and provide better service (Leithy, 2017; Shamila, 2017; Roseline & Konya, 2019). This challenges institutions to build commitment as a bedrock of organisational success and employee behaviour (Muyigwa et al., 2020).

In spite of the struggle to nurture and maintain desirable commitment in employees worldwide, it remains more difficult than ever before (Taylor et al., 2008). Recent Gallup statistics disclosed that 85% of employees globally are not committed (Benkarim & Imbeau, 2021). Similarly,

Ugandan universities continue to struggle to keep their employees committed (Mugizi et al., 2019; Muyigwa et al., 2020; Mwesigwa et al., 2020). Low organisational commitment has been exhibited through frequent strikes, chronic absenteeism, poor class attendance, delayed submission of coursework and exam results, and doctoring exam marks (Mugizi et al., 2015; Mugizi et al., 2019). This shows that low organisational commitment among academic staff remains a persistent dilemma confronting university managers and policymakers in Uganda. It follows that university education is an engine for economic and social transformation, and such persistent staff loss would lead to a decline in the academic standards, ranking, and image of universities (Mwesigwa et al., 2020).

Consequently, it is important to note that the pressure on universities to keep staff psychologically attached is enormous (Muyigwa et al., 2020). Building on this, universities are resorting to social mechanisms like organisational culture to shape employee behaviour and commitment (Ali Taha et al., 2016; Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2017). In this vein, university managers are at the crossroads of understanding how the dynamics of organisational culture can enhance organisational commitment. Organisational culture influences employee attitudes, work systems, and processes, which in turn can encourage or impede commitment. Practically, organisational commitment can be enhanced by organisational cultures that support information exchange about ways of doing things within an institution (O'Reilly III et al., 1991). Ipek (2010) suggested that organisational culture is a contextual factor that relates to academic staff's commitment as it influences their behaviours and performances. Organisational culture depicts the way things are done within an organisation (Kagaari, 2011). Culture embodies deep work beliefs held by staff, which guide their routine decisions and actions (Simoneaux & Stroud, 2014). The more staff feel aligned with the organisational culture, the more they display positive job-related attitudes towards institutional intent (Wiseman et al., 2017). The nature of organisational culture threatens the survival of universities, making them increasingly unstable, which deters their success. Here, strong and positive organisational cultures create lasting relationships between employees and their organisations (Anitha, 2016). The commitment of academic staff is related to the quality of the organisational culture (Akyüz & Durmuş, 2022). Organisational cultures characterised by support, inclusiveness, fairness, flexibility, and recognition reduce stress and lower social dysfunctions (Jenaro et al., 2011), thereby increasing organisational commitment.

While some studies have supported the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment (Gavino & Mariani, 2022; Kayiira et al., 2016), the literature is not consistent and lacks a more nuanced approach to culture and commitment in the university setting. For example, Kayiira et al. (2016) examined the influence of organisational culture on employee commitment at the Uganda Human Rights Commission, where they argued for future research to adopt and test different measures of organisational culture in other contexts. Furthermore, Arinanye and Basheka (2016) studied organisational culture and commitment as independent organisational factors that influence employee performance at the COCIS. In addition, Wokali (2022), in the study

on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment of Makerere University academic staff, recommended researchers focus on specific cultural typologies that account for organisational commitment since each cultural typology has a different influence on the employee's level of organisational commitment. From the above literature, major contextual gaps exist from the studies that showed limited authors have had studies in this area of organisational culture and organisational commitment in universities, although the majority were conducted in industries, factories, and schools (Aboajela, 2015; Lovakov, 2016). Thus, the scanty literature in the context of developing countries (Azizollah et al., 2016; Veeriah et al., 2017) in this area, especially regarding the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment and particularly on how each cultural dimension affects organisational commitment in a given institution, indicates a big gap to be filled.

It is against this backdrop that the current research finds it suitable to examine the relationship between organisational culture dimensions and organisational commitment in selected universities in Uganda, where reports have shown that universities in Uganda are witnessing low levels of academics' organisational commitment. Building on this, the current study bridges the gaps identified in these studies by putting more emphasis and focus on the critical role the different cultural typologies play in enhancing organisational commitment in universities. Therefore, the link between organisational culture dimensions and organisational commitment in this era where universities are seen as a path of economic, social, and political development needs to be explored, hence this study. This study has implications for policymakers to develop ways of inculcating clan, adhocratic, hierarchy, and market organisational culture characteristics for enhanced organisational commitment.

The remaining part of the paper is structured as follows: Firstly, section two highlights the study setting, the reviewed literature, and the study hypotheses. Next, the research methodology used to test the hypothesis is discussed. Furthermore, the analysis is also presented and discussed in section four, followed by the conclusion, implications for theory and practice, and recommendations for future research in section five.

1.1 Uganda's higher education sector

In 1987, the Ugandan government implemented the International Monetary Fund (IMF) led structural adjustment programmes in exchange for financial aid. As part of these programmes, the state's role in the provision of basic social services had to be relaxed, ushering in privatisation of public assets and services. The reforms were later extended to the education sector. In 1988, Uganda's university education was liberalised, leading to the establishment of private universities. The government introduced a cost-sharing scheme and later in 1992 allowed private sponsorship in public universities as a means of meeting operational costs (Tibarimbasa, 2010). Before 1988, Makerere University was the only recognised institution offering degrees. In the subsequent years, there has been an expanded increase in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Uganda.

Regulated by the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) under the Uganda's Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions (Amendment) Act (2006), Uganda has 52 accredited universities, both public (11) and private (41). With this increase in the number of universities, the demand for competent faculty has also increased to cater for the increased number of students. This has accelerated faculty mobility due to the availability of alternative job offers. This argument was confirmed by Park et al. (2014) who observed that construction employees working for many firms over the years, tended to be less committed to the organisation. As such, universities must maintain a standard number of committed faculty in their quest to maintain a competitive edge while delivering their national mandate. However, HEIs in Uganda have experienced a challenge of low staff commitment. According to Mwesigwa et al. (2020), Makerere University Business School lost 5 PhD holders in two years. University management needs to develop an academic environment that is conducive for academic staff to execute activities that range from research, teaching, and service so as to meet the national principles for establishing HEIs, which is to provide quality education to the citizenry for national economic, social, moral, and political transformation. However, studies point to low organisational commitment of academic staff in Ugandan universities (Mugizi & Nuwatuhaire, 2019; Muyigwa et al., 2020). This state of affairs will down progress and effectiveness of universities in delivering their mandate. Therefore, it is unclear as to whether the extent of organisational culture in form of clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchy culture and market culture has any bearing on organisational commitment among academic staff. This makes the study on organisational culture dimensions and organisational commitment among academic staff in Uganda a suitable and a worthwhile attempt.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis

2.1 Theoretical framework

The theory of social exchange theory (SET) as developed by Homans (1958) and Blau (1964), attempts to explain the interactions between parties in social relationships at the workplace and how staff develop mutual bonds with their employing institutions (Mugizi et al., 2015). According to SET, social interactions are guided by multiple inherent aspects that predetermine how individuals react in given social settings (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019; Cropanzano et al., 2017). The theory is centrally built on the principle of reciprocity and exchange, where parties in the relationship are motivated to act or respond based on the expected outcomes (Blau, 1968). As such, social exchange relationships are mutually inclusive and interdependent based on something of value that shared on a give and take basis (Hussain et al., 2020). Applying the reciprocal norm, one party affects the behaviour of another party in the positively (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). Indeed, in all reciprocal relationships, the two parties involved clearly communicate, agree and disagree on the prearranged offers as persons who incur obligations reciprocate (Messner, 2013). In context of this study, organisations prioritise investment in order to improve organizational work environment of academic staff and such improvement of organisational work context leads to increased organisational commitment of academic staff (Blau, 1964).

Reflecting on the social exchange theory and Meyer and Allen (1991) dimensions of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment, once universities satisfy staff needs, the academic staff in return are obliged to work hard to accomplish university goals and extend their stay (Pattnaik & Sahoo, 2021). The faculty become highly productive and loyal when institution provides a culture conducive to such exchanges while instantaneously creating respectful work environments and encouraging excellent HR practices (Marescaux et al., 2013; Messner, 2013). When academic staff perceive their university culture as supportive, collaborative, friendly and caring, they become more committed to the university (Bouraoui et al., 2019). In this manner, the academic staff exchange loyalty and attachment for admirable organisational cultural practices and beliefs. SET suggests that right cultures induce positive exchange relationship where academic staff reciprocate by being psychologically attached tend to exhibit high levels of commitment (Minai et al., 2020). This theory, therefore, is used to hypothesise the link between organisational culture and employee commitment of academic staff in the selected universities.

2.2 Organisational culture and organisational commitment

Organisational culture plays a critical role in influencing employees' positive work attitudes and behaviours (Bouraoui et al., 2019; Minai et al., 2020). Specifically, culture shapes how employees think and make decisions in view of the environment they work in (Faeq & Ismael, 2022; Inanlou & Ahn, 2017). As a result, organisational culture offers a conducive work environment within which an organisation can compete successfully by creating a pool of committed staff needed to achieve an organisational goal (Schein, 1990). Employees working in organisations with more positive cultures and climates are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organisations (Gavino & Mariani, 2022; Islam et al., 2016). This implies that the level of employee commitment could be influenced either positively or negatively by the existing organisational culture (Kagaari, 2011). For that to occur, attention should be paid while determining the choice of business culture, which is key to shaping values and commitment levels for the successful execution of organisational plans (Kagaari, 2011; Ramdhani et al., 2017). A reasonable body of literature shows that organisational culture can be refined to induce and sustain efficacious workplace commitment (2020). In the context of work, organisational culture wields a positive effect on employee behaviour built via strong commitment. In all, the more supportive culture is felt, employee commitment improves. This implies that positive cultures influence employee behaviour and work processes, leading to increased organisational attachment (Yusuf, 2020). In this, organisations retain their staff when there is a perceived connection between their values and beliefs. Thus, during the onboarding process, organisational values and beliefs should be communicated to employees, creating a strong bond between employees and the organisation.

This underlying association between organisational culture and organisational commitment can be understood with the help of Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) and Cropanzano et al. (2017) social exchange theory. Consistent with SET, when staff observe the organisation as helpful or caring towards them, they reciprocate to such favours by demonstrating positive attitudes such as increased

commitment (Blau, 1964). Islam et al. (2015) predicted that an organisation's culture contributes to an employee's sense of commitment to the organisation through the socialisation and reciprocation processes (Gouldner, 1960). Reciprocity occurs when one person receives something valuable from another and tries to return it with the same or greater value (Rousseau, 1989). In this context, when organisations provide their workers access to important resources, information, opportunities to grow and learn, and support, they develop positive perceptions about their organisations reciprocated with high commitment (Yousaf et al., 2018; Kerdpitak & Jermittiparsert, 2020) depicted by feelings of emotional attachment (affective commitment), obligations (normative commitment), increasing costs of leaving (continuance commitment). By adopting the clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), employees' commitment is enhanced. In sum, organisational culture has a significant relationship with organisational success through committed employees. Generally, it is expected that once employees possess family and supportive (clan), innovative (adhocracy), follow rules (hierarchy) and competition (market), employee commitment towards the organisation is enhanced. On the basis of these arguments, the study proposes that:

H1: Organisational culture relates positively to organisational commitment.

Furthermore, we aim to investigate the impact of different aspects of organisational culture, such as clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchical culture, and market culture, on organizational commitment among academic staff. Aji et al. (2017), observes that organisational culture types are critical contextual factor in organisations capable of influencing organisational commitment. This research is motivated by the lack of existing empirical evidence on this relationship (Pinho et al., 2014).

Clan culture is a type of organisational culture characterised by a strong sense of community and collaboration. In a clan culture, emphasis is placed on teamwork, employee involvement, and shared values (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). It fosters a supportive and friendly work environment where individuals feel a sense of belonging and loyalty. Communication tends to be informal and open, and decision-making is often consensus-based. Clan cultures value long-term relationships, employee development, and cohesion within the organisation as a means of persuading employees' organisational commitment (Carvalho et al., 2018). By creating inclusive culture, organisations impact on positive employee attitudes and behaviour (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015).

Adhocracy culture is a type of organisational culture characterised by flexibility, innovation, and a dynamic work environment (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In an adhocracy culture, there is an emphasis on creativity, experimentation, and the ability to adapt quickly to changing circumstances (Inanlou & Ahn, 2017). It is often associated with organisations that operate in fast-paced, uncertain, and entrepreneurial environments.

Hierarchy culture is a type of organisational culture characterised by a strong emphasis on structure, control, and formal authority (Shurbagi, 2014). In a hierarchy culture, there is a clear chain of command, with well-defined roles and responsibilities (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Decision-making is typically centralised at the top, and communication flows primarily from top to bottom.

Market culture refers to an organisational culture that emphasises competitiveness, results-driven behaviour, and a focus on achieving goals and targets (Yildirim et al., 2016). It is characterised by a strong orientation towards external stakeholders, such as customers, clients, and the broader market (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Thus, organisations can respond to customer needs by having employees committed to delivering customer value (Mahmoud & Hinson, 2012) (Yildirim et al., 2016). This is possible when employees work together as a team to deliver quality service.

Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

H2: Clan organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational commitment.

H3: Adhocracy organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational commitment.

H4: Hierarchy culture organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational commitment.

H5: Market organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational commitment.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research design, study population and sampling

The study examined the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment of academic staff in selected universities in Uganda. A cross-sectional research design was used in collecting one point data to test the hypothesis. The study data was obtained using self-administered questionnaire in selected universities. The universities were selected using a multi-stage sampling technique to draw the study sample in three stages. First, universities were clustered into private and public universities and randomly selected to participate in the study. Second, simple random sampling was employed to identify colleges, schools, faculties, and departments from each cluster to participate in the study. Third, academic staff were systematically selected based on the Kth number from the obtained staff lists (Simiyu et al., 2019). This enables the researcher to generalise the problem of low organisational commitment among academic staff (Mugizi & Nuwatuhaire, 2019; Muyigwa et al., 2020). This low commitment has resulted in a number of adverse effects for the universities including students strikes, low public image and increased costs resulting from replacing staff (Mwesigwa et al., 2020).

The study population consisted of 4,192 academic staff from the eight selected universities in Uganda. Using random and systematic sampling techniques, 878 academic staff participated in the

study. The selected 878 academic staff were proportionately allocated based on the population size in the respective selected universities to enable respondents have equal chance of inclusion in the sample guided by Yamane (1967) sample formula to maximise gain in precision, while taking into consideration the level of precision (3%), confidence interval (95%) and degree of variability in the attributes being measured to approximate the population size and minimise biasness and sampling error (Ahmad & Halim, 2017). The Yamane's (1967) formula was derived as:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} \quad \text{Where: } n = \text{sample size, } N = \text{population size, } e = \text{margin of error}$$

3.2 Measures of variables

Organisational culture

The Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) was adopted and modified from Cameron and Quinn (2011). The questionnaire consists of 24 items measuring clan culture (6 items), adhocracy culture (6 items), hierarchy culture (6 items) and market culture (6 items) on a 7-point Likert-scale. Using the Varimax rotation method with Kaiser Normalisation, a total of 10 items were extracted to measure the construct of organisational culture. The factor analysis results disclose that all the four dimensions were significant in explaining the 71% variance in organisational culture. Comparatively, clan contributed 43.2%, followed by Adhocracy (10.7%), hierarchy (9.8%) and market culture emerged as the least predictor (7.2%) of organisational culture. All the four components had Eigen values greater than 1. Twelve items were dropped from the factor structure for either low factor loading or cross loading (Farooq, 2022).

Table 1. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Organisational Culture
Rotated Component Matrix

Items	Component			
	Clan Culture	Adhocracy Culture	Hierarchy Culture	Market Culture
The academic staff at my university share a lot of things in common.	.837			
My university emphasises a high degree of cohesion among staff in achieving the university mission.	.688			
Academic staff in our university exchange ideas freely and openly with each other.	.658			
My university adopts entrepreneurial business practises in its way of operation.		.756		
My university ' s management is considered an innovator and risk-taker.		.755		
My university enforces policies and procedures.			.853	
My university conforms to the necessary laws for employment stability.			.781	
My university gains competitiveness in the marketplace through tailor made academic programmes.				.828
My university emphasizes competition as a means of measuring the achievement of its mission.				.666
Academic staff share a common orientation towards the university ' s vision and mission.				.658
Eigen Values	3.176	2.222	2.036	1.611
% of Variance	43.153	10.725	9.797	7.211
Cumulative %	43.153	53.878	63.676	70.887

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy = .874

Bartlett's test for Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square = 1856.454, df =45, Sig.=.000

Source: Primary Data

Organisational commitment

In this present research, organisational commitment was measured using the adopted Meyer and Allen (1997) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ consists of 19 items measuring affective commitment (7 items), continuance commitment (6 items) and normative commitment (6 items). Using the Varimax rotation method with Kaiser Normalisation all the 15

items were retained to measure the latent construct of organisational commitment. All the 15 items loaded above .5. These were clustered along three components; affective (6), normative (3), and continuance commitment (6). The 15 items that loaded on the three components accounted for 65.5% of the total variance in organisational commitment. Comparatively, affective commitment explained up to 35.578%, followed by normative (15.628%) and continuance commitment accounted (9.768%) of the total variance in organisational commitment. Each of the three dimensions had Eigen values greater than 1.

Table 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Organisational Commitment
Rotated Component Matrix

Items	Component		
	Affective Commit.	Normative Commit.	Continuance Commit.
I am very happy to be a member of this university.	.786		
I enjoy providing relevant information about my university to people outside it.	.760		
I am part of the family of this university.	.764		
I feel emotionally attached to this university.	.782		
This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.798		
I feel a strong sense of belonging in this university.	.803		
I would feel guilty if I left this university now.		.709	
I would not leave my university right now because of my sense of obligation to it.		.709	
I owe a great deal to this university.		.591	
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job at this university without having another one lined up			.632
It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this university right now even if I wanted to.			.774
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I left this university.			.799
Right now, staying on in my job at this university is a matter of necessity.			.766
I believe there are too few options to consider leaving this university.			.781
It would be too costly for me to leave this university right now.			.735
Eigen Values	5.931	2.870	1.025
% of Variance	35.578	15.628	9.768
Cumulative %	35.578	58.674	65.506

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy =.907

Bartlett's test for Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square = 4447.935, df=105, Sig.= .000

Source: Primary Data

Control variables

Gender, age, education, and academic rank were introduced in the model in order to control for possible confounding effects. Gender is measured as Male =1 and Female = 2. Age was measured in calendar years as follows: 1 = up to 30 years; 2 = 31 to 40; 3 = 41 to 50; 4 = 51 to 60; 5 = >60 years. Educational level: 1 = Bachelor's, 2 = Master's, and 3 = PhD. Academic rank was based on years served.

Demographic characteristics

A total of 574 responses were obtained, and regarding gender, 63.9% were male and 36.1% were female. In relation to age, the results showed that age is spread, with the dominant age group being the 31–40 age group (45.3%) and the 41–50 age bracket (33.6%). Sixty academic staff (10.5%) were in the 51–60 age group. Those below 30 years were 9.4%, while those aged 60 years and above only constituted 1.2% of the total respondents. The academic staff within this range is considered energetic enough to drive the organisational mandate. In terms of education attainment, the dominant range for education was a master's degree (55.6%), whereas 34.7% hold PhDs and 9.8% are bachelor's degree graduates. This education level can be explained as a minimum requirement for one to teach at a university. The result for academic rank shows that the majority of the respondents were Lecturers (42.9%), while the least were Associate professors (5.9%) and professors (2.4%), respectively.

Correlation Analysis

As shown in Table 3, correlation analysis results indicated a positive and significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment ($r = 0.640^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). The results also indicate a significant positive relationship between clan organisational culture ($r = 0.469^{**}$, $p < 0.01$), adhocracy organisational culture ($r = 0.421^{**}$, $p < 0.05$), hierarchy organisational culture ($r = 0.535^{**}$, $p < 0.05$), market organisational culture ($r = 0.541^{**}$, $p < 0.05$), and organisational commitment. Therefore, the analysis is extended to a multivariate setting. We first examined the correlations among our independent variable dimensions to determine whether multicollinearity problems exist. Farooq (2022) suggests that multicollinearity becomes a problem only when the correlations exceed 0.80 or 0.90. As Table 3 shows, none of the correlations between independent variable dimensions are close to the threshold values. This suggests that the different dimensions are sufficiently distinct (with correlations all below 0.70). Therefore, we also examined the variance inflation factors (VIFs) and tolerance values in our models to further test for multicollinearity (see Table 4). VIFs were well below the threshold value of 10 and tolerance values exceeded 0.1 marks, as suggested by Meyer and Allen (1997), indicating that multicollinearity did not pose a problem for the regressions.

Table 3. Pearson Zero-order correlation results

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Clan culture 1	1					
Adhocracy culture (2)	.477**	1				
Hierarchy culture (3)	.520**	.375**	1			
Market culture (4)	.482**	.521**	.528**	1		
Organisational culture (5)	.743**	.726**	.705**	.786**	1	
Organisational commitment (6)	.469**	.421**	.535**	.541**	.640**	1

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

3.3 Regression analysis results

To establish exactly which organisational cultural typology matters in driving organisational commitment, hierarchical regression analysis was run in SPSS 23 to test the study hypotheses. According to Field (2013), hierarchical analysis indicates the predictive power of each additional independent variable on the outcome variable. Before performing the hierarchical analysis, the study proceeded to test for the direct effect of the global organisational culture variable on organisational commitment, where a positive and significant effect was revealed ($\beta = .671, p < .001$), thus supporting H1 as shown in Table 4. This was done using an ordinary multiple regression analysis as guided by Kusemererwa et al. (2020). The results in Table 4 further indicate that the covariates had no influence on organisational commitment.

Table 4. Variance inflation factors and tolerance values and ordinary multiple regression results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
Constant	1.693	.010		177.792	.000		
1 Clan culture	.035	.003	.467	12.633	.000	.995	1.005
2 Adhocracy culture	.018	.003	.274	6.694	.000	.754	1.326
3 Hierarchy culture	.025	.003	.360	9.037	.000	.696	1.437
4 Market culture	.022	.003	.267	6.317	.000	.581	1.722
5 Organisational culture	.671	.034	.642	19.957	.000	.990	1.010
Model F	81.686						
Adjusted R ²	.413						
ΔR ²	.408						
F Change	398.271						

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ Dependent Variable: Organisational commitment

After testing for the direct effect of the global variables, hierarchical regression analysis was run to establish the individual contribution of each of the four organisational cultural typologies in order to fulfil the main purpose of this study. In model 1, controls were entered to ascertain their effect on organisational commitment. Results in Table 5 show that gender ($\beta = -.003, p > .05$), age ($\beta = .006, p > .05$), education ($\beta = .009, p > .05$), and academic rank ($\beta = -.004, p > .05$) had no significant effect on organisational commitment. Results from the data indicate that the model explains up to 1% of the variance in organisational commitment (R² .010). However, the ANOVA results show that model 1 was not statistically significant (F = .202, $p > .05$), producing a bad model fit (Lindberg & Johnson, 1997).

In model 2, clan culture was entered as a second variable after the control variables. The results in Table 5 show that clan culture has a positive and significant effect on organisational

commitment ($\beta = .036, p = .000$). Therefore, H1 was supported. Model 2 results indicate that the model explains up to 22.6% of the variance in organisational commitment ($R^2 .226$). Again, the ANOVA results show that model 2 was statistically significant ($F = 35.095, p = .000$), producing a good model fit. Concerning H3, adhocracy culture was also found to be significant at $\beta = .019 < 0.01$ (see Table 5). Model 3 results indicate that the model explains up to 6% of the variance in organisational commitment ($R^2 .060$). Again, the ANOVA results show that model 3 was statistically significant ($F = 39.746, p = .000$), producing a good model fit. Similarly, hierarchy culture is significant at $\beta = .027 < 0.01$ (see Table 5). Results from the data show that model 4 explains up to 9.7% of the variance in organisational commitment ($R^2 .097$). Further, the ANOVA results show that model 4 was statistically significant ($F = 52.419, p = .000$), indicating a good model fit. Concerning H5, market culture is significant at $\beta = .024 < 0.01$ (see Table 5). Results in model 5 signal that the model explains up to 4.5% of the variance in organisational commitment ($R^2 .045$). However, the ANOVA results show that model 5 was statistically significant ($F = 55.048, p = .000$), producing a good model fit. Accordingly, clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchy culture, and market culture are all significant predictors of organisational commitment. Taken together, all these independent variables explain about 43% of the variations in organisational commitment in Uganda. The incremental improvement in adjusted R^2 in Models 2–5 in Table 5 suggests that a better-fitting model emerges as clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchy culture, and market culture are introduced in the model. Finally, the Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.770 indicates that the current model residuals are uncorrelated (Field, 2013).

Table 5. Results for covariates and direct effects hypotheses

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.
Gender	-.003	.634	.000	.943	.000	.961	-.002	.686	-.004	.436
Age	.005	.337	.005	.295	.008	.052	.009	.016	.009	.016
Education	.013	.093	.011	.084	.014	.027	.008	.319	.007	.554
Rank	-.004	.355	-.005	.202	-.008	.034	-.005	.135	-.004	.267
Clan culture			.036	.000	.026	.000	.015	.000	.012	.000
Adhocracy culture					.019	.000	.014	.000	.008	.003
Hierarchy culture							.027	.000	.021	.000
Market culture									.024	.000
Model F	1.495		35.095***		39.746***		52.419***		58.048***	
Adjusted R ²	.003		.229		.289		.386		.430	
ΔR^2	.010		.226		.060		.097		.045	
F Change	1.495		167.743		48.368		90.721		44.955	
Durbin - Watson									1.770	

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Source: Primary Data

4. Discussion of Findings

Drawing on previous studies, gender, age, education level, and academic rank were controlled because they were projected to have a significant effect on the study variables. Results show that none of the controls had an influence on the variance in organisational commitment. This implies that organisational commitment is explained by other factors. However, the controlled variables accounted for 1% of the variance in organisational commitment ($R^2 = .010$).

In regards to H1, the study tested the effect of organisational culture on organisational commitment among selected university academic staff. Findings showed a positive and significant association between organisational culture and organisational commitment (see Table 5). This result shows that a unit increase in the level of organisational culture contributes to a 41.3% improvement in the level of organisational commitment demonstrated by the academic staff. From this result, universities that institute a respectable and acceptable organisational culture in the way of doing things based on collaboration, teamwork, a supportive environment, flexibility, risk-taking, fairness, and rewarding create a work environment where academics feel connected and attached to their university. In essence, when the culture resonates with academic staff's personal values and motivations, they are more likely to feel committed and dedicated to the institution. Thus, efforts by universities in Uganda to create positive cultural practices and beliefs and integrate them into work activities on a daily basis eventually result in improved organisational commitment by the academic staff. Committed academic staff take ownership of their work, display loyalty and desire to remain with the university for an extended period, devote their time, knowledge, and expertise to the development and growth of the university, promote the image of the university, are open to change, and adapt to new initiatives or strategies in teaching and research.

The current finding is consistent with the earlier studies by Rahmani et al. (2015); Zulfikri et al. (2015) Masouleh and Allahyari (2017); Acquah et al. (2020) and Yusuf (2020). In every organisational setting, culture is a key facet (Bedarkar et al., 2016) that shapes employee behaviours and ways of doing things in the university context and fosters lecturers' organisational commitment. The study further argues that organisational culture has a significant positive effect on organisational commitment. This implies that favourable organisational cultures enhance employee tenacious organisation membership among academic staff in selected universities. Universities ought to build robust and positive cultures that correspond to their employees' needs (Adam et al., 2020). In this research, organisational commitment is measured in terms of affective, normative, and continuance commitments. The study hence demonstrates that for academic staff in selected universities in Uganda to remain committed and enable the university to attain its goals, appropriate culture may play a sound role. The study finds that because the university culture is friendly and family-based, it suggests that the emotional, normative, and continual attachment of the academic staff in selected universities in Uganda is enhanced. The study finds that it is imperative for the university management in selected universities in Uganda to create a conducive environment through clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market culture. Such cultural practices and beliefs shape the behaviours and actions that are relevant for instilling attachment to the university. This study extends the social exchange theory, which assumes that broadly, a stream of interactions transforms into exchanges that are used for multiple purposes over time—in this case, the organisational commitment of academic staff. In all, the results, empirical literature, and theory provide sufficient evidence that when academic staff perceive the values, norms, and practices of the university to be aligned with their own values, beliefs, and expectations, they feel attached to the university.

The study results reveal that clan culture is a significant predictor, contributing about 22.6% of the variance in organisational commitment, offering further validation to H2 (see Table 5). This means that the university embraces clan culture, where there is social support and inclusiveness, collaboration, teamwork, and a sense of belonging within the university that makes academic staff feel valued and respected. This type of work environment makes academic staff feel connected to their colleagues and the institution as a whole. Thus, promoting higher levels of organisational commitment among staff members due to social pressure to stay and extend membership. This is supported by Carvalho et al. (2018), who verified that clan culture offers a supportive environment that is ideal for building the three bases of organisational commitment. Acar (2012) further supports this by stating that universities that emphasise teamwork and sociality make it harder for academic staff to leave despite social pressure. Because of this, it is reasonable to find a positive relationship between clan cultures and organisational commitment (Tyagi et al., 2020). Austen and Zacny (2015) further expound that employees in clan-like cultures are more satisfied and committed to their institutions. In addition, academic staff associate with universities that are human resources-centred in terms of human development, mentorship, team work, nurturing, and commitment (Batugal & Tindowen, 2019). Thus, universities need to put in place strategies to enhance clan culture for improved organisational commitment. This result aligns with the social exchange theory, which states that academic staff form social relationships within their university based on a mutual exchange of resources and benefits. In the present case, when academic staff perceive that their university cares about their well-being, provides a supportive work environment, fosters employee involvement, promotes open communication, and encourages their personal and professional growth, they are more likely to reciprocate by demonstrating higher levels of commitment (Ali & Patnaik, 2014). Thus, the result of the current study reinforces the findings, empirical literature, and theory that clan culture has an effect on organisational commitment.

The findings on H3 reported a significant effect of adhocracy culture on organisational commitment. The contribution made by adhocracy culture to organisational commitment is 6% (see Table 5). This suggests that H3 is supported. In the context of this study, this result indicates that universities that operationalize adhocracy practices, where academic staff are encouraged to take risks, explore new ideas, and adapt to changing circumstances. Academic staff who are given the freedom to pursue their ideas and initiatives are more likely to feel a sense of ownership and pride in their work. They have the opportunity to make meaningful contributions, which enhances their commitment to the university. This concurs with Acar (2012), who states that academic staff in an adhocratic work environment driven by the need for flexibility, discretion, creativity, and innovation tend to report higher levels of organisational commitment with their university to reach their career goals. Tyagi et al. (2020) revealed that higher educational institutions in competitive and productivity-driven contexts can espouse staff commitment through the adoption of a people management adhocracy culture. This is consistent with social exchange theory, which opines that if academic staff perceive that their commitment is met with a supportive environment that values

their ideas, provides resources for innovation, and offers opportunities for skill development and career advancement, they are more likely to exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment.

Similarly, results show that hierarchy culture is a significant predictor of organisational commitment. The contribution made by hierarchy culture is 9.7%; this also suggests that H4 is supported (see Table 5). In a university setting, hierarchy culture provides clarity, fairness, and stability, which can positively impact organisational commitment among academic staff. By defining roles, promoting fairness, and establishing clear structures, hierarchy culture creates an environment where individuals feel secure, valued, and committed to the university's mission and goals. This is consistent with Carvalho et al. (2018), who assert that academic staff who operate in highly structured environments tend to internalise well-defined rules and regulations to avoid uncertainty. As expected, academic staff, right from the time of contract signing, undertake to follow certain rules that shape their commitment to the university. Shurbagi (2014) shows that academic staff who value structure and order find this culture appealing and align their commitment with the established norms and guidelines. Hierarchical culture is the norm in institutions that have been established for some time (Shurbagi & Zahari, 2014). Therefore, the predictable nature of hierarchy culture creates a sense of stability and security, which enhances organisational commitment. This finding is consistent with the social exchange theory that highlights that academic staff in a hierarchy culture may engage in a social exchange process where they weigh the costs and benefits of their commitment to the university. They evaluate the extent to which their adherence to rules and hierarchical authority is recognised, rewarded, and valued by the university. If academic staff perceive that their commitment is reciprocated with stability, security, career progression based on seniority or position, and a sense of order and structure, they are more likely to exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment. Based on the aforementioned, the findings, empirical literature, and theory support the view that hierarchy cultures where there is a clear chain of command, well-defined roles and responsibilities, and a focus on rules and procedures tend to enhance organisational commitment.

Finally, findings on H5 indicate that market culture is a significant predictor of organisational commitment. The contribution made by market culture is about 4.5%, which suggests that H5 is supported. This indicates that universities that adopt a market culture fuel ambition, innovation, and a focus on performance, leading to increased organisational commitment among academic staff. By providing a sense of purpose, autonomy, and recognition, market culture creates an environment where academic staff are driven to excel and are committed to the success and growth of the university in a competitive market. This result is consistent with Yildirim et al. (2016), who found that market culture is positively related to organisational commitment. In this study, marketing culture provided academic staff with the opportunity to solve organisational problems, which increased their loyalty and attachment due to their voluntary involvement in strategic decisions. This is further supported by Pinho et al. (2014), who argue that higher levels of market orientation in service sectors result in high levels of organisational commitment. In all, universities with

market-oriented mindedness and a desire for long-term sustainable success should create strategies to enhance their high organisational commitment. This finding is consistent with the social exchange theory, which opines that employees in a market culture may also engage in a "give-and-take" mentality, where they are motivated to contribute their skills, efforts, and expertise in exchange for career advancement, financial rewards, and opportunities for personal development. They perceive their commitment to the university as a means to achieve their own career goals and aspirations. From the aforementioned, the results, empirical literature, and theory support the view that market cultures where individuals are driven to excel and are committed to the success and growth of the university in a competitive market tend to enhance organisational commitment.

5. Conclusion

The results of this research show that there is a relationship between corporate culture and organisational commitment. This finding has important implications for management development, especially in relation to human resource development and motivation for employees. For certain types of corporate culture, certain types of organisational commitment models are more appropriate in an organisational setting than others. In other words, there is a match or compatibility between the type of organisational culture and the type of organisational commitment required to motivate the employees in an organisation. Thus, in order to motivate the employees, it may be necessary to determine the cultural type first and then prescribe the appropriate commitment type to be emphasised in an organisation. For example, in a consensual culture, top managers need to emphasise affective commitment in developing their attachment to the institution.

The research results have proven that organisational culture is instrumental in shaping the workplace environment and behaviour. The study further found a positive and significant association between organisational culture and organisational commitment among academic staff in selected universities in Uganda. A fit model was established that provides a theoretical linkage between clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market organisational culture and organisational commitment in theory and practise. This association implies that strong practises and beliefs may improve a sense of belonging and organisational commitment among staff. This has implications for the future running of organisations from an HR management point of view, implying that cultural typologies should be aligned to certain commitment models based on the organisational context. In simple terms, before determining the nature of commitment desired by an organisation, the appropriate cultural typology should be established in advance. Thus, if an organisation desires to sustain affective commitment, then building a flexible and accommodative culture may lead to greater success in implementing permanent commitment.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

This study suggests that universities that adopt collaborative, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market-oriented cultures are in a better position to create committed academic staff. The findings support the practise in the Social Exchange Theory, where Homans (1958) and Blau (1964) argue

that flexible cultural practices and beliefs encourage employees to elicit positive attitudes and behaviours that inform continued organisational membership. In this context, individuals will act based on how they perceive the organisational culture. Universities that actively seek to create proper cultural practices and beliefs may reap the benefits in terms of increased staff organisational commitment. The study has contributed to the continuing organisational culture practices and academic staff commitment discourse in the university domain.

The study findings extend the body of knowledge by isolating the role played by each of the four dimensions of organisational culture in predicting organisational commitment. These results imply that academic staff can exhibit organisational commitment when clan culture, adhocracy culture, hierarchy culture, and market culture typologies are embedded within the university. Hence, this study differs from past studies that focused on organisational culture as a single practice without detailing the contribution of each individual typology in predicting organisational commitment. The study established that clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market organisational cultures play a vital role in enhancing organisational commitment, which affirms that committed academic staff would work hard to deliver the university mandate. Furthermore, culture in universities is key to shaping academic staff behaviour and institutional success. As such, clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market should be promoted in higher institutions in Uganda so as to increase their effectiveness.

5.2 Practical Implications

This study provides practical implications on how organisational culture expedites the increase in organisational commitment. Firstly, university managers need to have a better understanding of the culture prevalent in their university and then evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of such cultures based on the present organisational dynamics. Chartered universities that continuously create and maintain flexible organisational cultures stand a high chance of garnering permanent organisational commitment. This study has established that organisational culture practices as a multi-dimensional concept involving clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and the market, are a notable precursor to organisational commitment. Secondly, leaders could revisit the recruitment and selection procedure to ensure the right type of academic staff is required to match the existing organisational culture and job yields for academic staff's long-term stay at the university. Thirdly, corporate university managers should institute human resource management policies and practices that support the institutionalisation of sustainable cultures. Particularly, university management can offer training to academic heads on aspects of creating and maintaining a favourable departmental atmosphere, with a specific focus on fostering commitment over other issues. Finally, heads of department could motivate the academic staff with the appropriate type of culture required to achieve higher commitment. For example, if the university has a bureaucratic culture, then there is a need to adjust the culture and link it to the appropriate commitment type for the employees in the university. By altering the type of culture to match the type of commitment, the commitment level is improved.

5.3 Limitations and suggestions for further studies

The study only surveyed academic staff. For better results, the administrative and support staff should be included. Second, the research followed a correlational and cross-sectional approach, which limited the conclusions on the causality of the association. Thus, future longitudinal studies are recommended for a balanced analysis. Third, the study was conducted only at selected universities in Uganda, which may not entirely provide a clear picture of the phenomenon under investigation. Hence, conducting a comparative study on public and private universities' organisational cultures and commitment relationships is timely.

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