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**ANTECEDENTS OF AFFECTIVE
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG
ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT LECTURERS IN
THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THE
BALTICS**

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to identify factors influencing the affective organizational commitment of the academic staff working in economic and management fields in the higher education institutions (HEI) in the Baltics. This is crucial in order to improve higher education quality in the region as well as increase competitiveness in global education market.

Pearson correlations, one-way ANOVA, and independent sample t-tests are used to observe the linkage between affective organizational commitment and personal characteristics, human resource practices, and job-related factors. The results show that the human resource practices applied in an organization as well as job related factors are significant determinants of affective organizational commitment while personal characteristics are not.

Finally, guidelines for universities' management are drawn of how to foster organizational commitment through improving human resource policies. This study fills in the gap in the existing literature by providing the first research on organizational commitment in HEI for the Baltic states.

Keywords: Affective Organizational Commitment, HEI in the Baltics,

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1. Introduction

The key to sustainable economic development and technological advancement for any nation is a well-educated manpower (Ng'ethe1, Iravo & Namusonge, 2012) and the importance of universities in creating most specialized and skilled intellectuals cannot be neglected (Kipkebut, 2010). HEI serve as the main “factory” providing and developing such manpower and, in this sense, is inseparable from promoting economic development. Therefore, the better the quality of those “factories”, the better the quality of manpower and the higher level of economic development can be achieved.

Although the quality of higher education as a whole plays an important role in the country's economic development, the field of economics, business and management education should be distinguished as the one of the highest importance (McIntyre & Alom, 2005). In order to reach sustainable long term economic development and create dynamic and productive enterprises, which can quickly adapt to changing market conditions, a country needs a fair amount of competent and educated manpower in the business field (Theodore, 2010). This is essential in times like these when the entire European Union struggles with the financial crisis and instability in the euro zone. The role of universities should be increasing as they and the specialists working in academia are the main source of country-specific knowledge that should be shared among the member countries so we could learn from each other's mistakes and overcome a similar crisis in the future much faster (Ritzen, 2012).

However, given the accelerating globalization process and the decreased cross-border restrictions among the EU countries, HEI in the Baltic states encounter a problem of intensifying the competition for both students and professors as right now they have numerous options to choose from for their job or studies (Denisenko, 2012). According to Tetty (2006) such “brain drain” negatively affects HEI by lowering their competitiveness, harming provided service quality (destroyed synergies that come with a group of academics working together, additional cost for hiring and training new employees as well as shrinking scope of knowledge production), and draining the country-specific knowledge bank. Hence, as the academic staff's job performance is positively correlated with employees' qualification, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Nwadiani & Akpotu, 2002), high level of commitment of academia is crucial for continuous realignment, increasing performance quality and sustainable HEI performance in the long run (Pienaar & Bester, 2008).

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However, the concept of organizational commitment is complex and different aspects of commitment affect organization's performance differently. Three main dimensions of commitment, as described by Allen and Meyer (1990) are affective, continuance and normative¹. Since in this work the authors chose to focus on the employee commitment that would encourage them to excel in their work, only affective organizational commitment, which is related to the emotional attachment and the positive experiences of belonging to an organization and a voluntary choice to be there, is analyzed.

However, at the moment the research on organizational commitment among HEI academic employees in developing countries is rather underdeveloped (Kipkebut, 2010). Thus it is important to put more emphasis on the topic and find out the main determinants of affective organizational commitment as this knowledge would help ensuring higher level of academics' job satisfaction and increase their job performance (Khan, Ziauddin, Jam & Ramay, 2010). At the same time, higher level performance of the faculty would increase the number of top performing applicants for the HEI (Wajeeth & Micceri, 1997), as well as it would increase students' satisfaction level (Douglas, A., Douglas, J., & Barnes, 2006). Therefore, the following research question was formulated: **what are the main antecedents of affective organizational commitment among the academics working in economics and management departments in the higher education institutions in the Baltics?**

The purpose of this study is to fill in the gap in the existing literature on organizational commitment by defining the main determinants of the affective organizational commitment among the HEI academics in the Baltic countries and draw guidelines for the most suitable HR policies to maintain that commitment. This would help improve the quality of the Baltic HEI services and attractiveness level to local and foreign students, develop a country-specific knowledge bank, and create new synergies among the HEI employees.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: section (2) covers the existing literature on organizational commitment; section (3) introduces main determinants of organizational commitment and formulates the hypothesis for the empirical part; section (4) introduces methodological approach; section (6) analyze and discuss the results; section (7) concludes, section (8) provides suggestions for future research on the topic.

¹More detailed description of different dimensions of organizational commitment can be found in the literature review. As authors focus on affective organizational commitment only, if it is not indicated otherwise, when talking about organizational commitment the authors have in mind affective organizational commitment.

2. Literature review

2.1. *Organizational Commitment*

Organizational commitment is the glue keeping employees in the organization – the stronger and deeper it is the longer employees stay in the same organization and are more motivated to put more effort into their work (Cohen, 2007; Martin, 2007). However, organizational commitment is being measured and interpreted in a number of ways in the existing literature, which makes it difficult to summarize the findings of the existing body of research and its implications (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

In general, organizational commitment is defined as a force determining employee's identification and involvement into the organization (Uygur & Kilic, 2009). Mowday, Porter (1979) define commitment by three main characteristics: strong belief and acceptance of the goals and values of one's organization; dedicated efforts towards benefit of the organization; and desire to stay a member of the organization. However, by far, the most commonly used and recognized model to describe and analyze the overall organizational commitment is the three component model developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). They describe organizational commitment as a psychological relation existing between employee and organization which strongly impacts level of achievement of both agents. Although the definitions reveal the existence of different components of organizational commitment, they are all referring to a mindset or a psychological state, determining one's behavior with respect to the organization and this relation effect on work outcomes (Coetzee, 2005).

Since the purpose of the paper is to identify the most important determinants of the organizational commitment and not to develop a new approach to analyze organizational commitment or to test the superiority of one or the other analysis model, the authors decided to use Allen and Meyer's approach. Hence, the organizational commitment in this study is defined, following Allen and Meyer (1990), as employee's emotional attachment to an organization which is positively related to both organization and employee's work quality.

According to Allen and Meyer (1987), organizational commitment is multidimensional in nature and it can be divided into three components: affective, continuance and normative commitments. Even though all three measures conclude that there is a negative relation between commitment and employee turnover, the reasons determining one to stay a member of the organization differ (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

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The first reason of being committed to an organization is a psychological feeling of being emotionally attached to, identified with, and involved in the organization (affective commitment). An employee with a high level of affective commitment feels a part of the organization and stays because he wants to.

The second cause of organizational commitment is related to the feeling of the need to stay in the organization because the costs related to leaving current workplace (continuance commitment). Employee will stay in the organization if his perceived cost of leaving will be higher than potential benefits.

The last reason for being committed to the organization is the feeling of being obliged to stay in the organization due to personal values and norms (normative commitment) (Allen and Meyer, 1991).

Given the differences in the nature of components of organizational commitment, each of those has different predictors as well as yields different impacts on job related behavior such as attendance or job performance with the exception of employee turnover, which is reduced by an increase in organizational commitment of any nature (Meyer, Stanley *et al.* 2002). Thus, the influence of each component of commitment on job related behavior is reviewed in the following section.

2.2. Organizational commitment and job related behavior

So far, the main findings of the past researches confirm that comparing employees with low organizational commitment level to employees having a high level of commitment, the latter will have higher performance and be more productive (Dalal, 2005; Obeng & Ugboro, 2003), more motivated (Darolia, C.R., Kumari & Darolia, S., 2010), will have lower turnover intentions (Lee & Liu, 2006) and be more satisfied with their job (Brown & Peterson, 1994). On the other hand, less committed employees may harm the organization in different ways too. Low commitment level among employees might affect the organization's ability to attract and retain high quality employees by referring to the organization in negative terms, they might be more costly as by losing those uncommitted people organization encounters additional hiring and training expenses as well as some internal synergies are destroyed (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Since the authors of this study aim to identify the determinants of organizational commitment of the academics in the Baltic states as well as to draw brief guidelines for HR policies that could benefit the quality of academics' performance, it is crucial to focus only on the dimensions of organizational commitment which are indisputably and positively related to the job performance of an employee.

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The research by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnysky (2002) has proved a positive relation between affective organizational commitment and the desirable job related behavior such as work attendance and job performance. Moreover, affective commitment was proved to have a significant positive influence on employee's health and wellbeing. The same positive relation was identified for normative commitment; however, the link was relatively weak compared to affective commitment. With regard to continuance commitment, it was proved to have a negative influence on desirable job related behavior and employee well being or having no influence at all.

Chen and Francesco (2003) empirically proved that affective commitment has the most significant influence of all three components of commitment on job performance measured by the in-role performance and the organizational citizenship behavior, i.e. the fulfillment of duties, which positively affect the performance of the organization and are not included in the formal job responsibilities of an employee. The superiority of affective commitment among three components of organizational commitment on determining job performance was also empirically proved by Wasti (2002) and Darolia *et al.* (2010). Furthermore, affective organizational commitment, unlike continuance and normative, is proved to stimulate one's willingness to sacrifice and share knowledge with the co-workers (Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990). Finally, affectively committed employees are more willing to put more effort when dealing with their duties, contribute to the effectiveness of their organization and act in the organization's best interest in order to maintain the relationship with the organization (Allan & Meyer, 1991).

The results of the existing empirical research are intuitively correct given that an employee, who is committed to the organization of his own free will, is more likely to act in favor of his organization. He is willing to put more effort in fulfilling duties or even go beyond them more than employees that need or are obliged to be a part of the organization (Kipkebut, 2010). Therefore, the authors of this study will focus on affective organizational commitment and its determinants only, as this dimension of organizational commitment has the strongest influence on employee's job related behavior.

2.3. Organizational commitment in the context of higher education institutions

According to Tetty (2006) fast globalization process and the increasing competition for both students and professors intensified "brain drain" from developing to developed

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countries. Tetty (2006) also claims that strong “push and pull” factors (mostly related to the economic conditions) negatively affected the universities in developing countries by lowering their competitiveness and harming the service quality they provide. Therefore, a high level of academics’ organizational commitment is a crucial factor for higher education institutions to stay competitive in international context, to ensure high quality of services they provide as well as to succeed in general (Bhatnagar, 2007; Kipkebut, 2010).

A research from Turkey by Küskü (2003) concluded that while comparing the academic and the administrative staff in a university, the latter are more satisfied with work related relationships, work environment and salaries than academics. Low salaries of academic employees are common in developing countries since most of the universities are public and rely on the government’s funding. And since this funding is limited, the universities find it hard to attract and keep high quality academics. Similarly, Onen and Maicibi (2004) concluded that two thirds of the academics in their sample lost work motivation due to low salaries as well as few or none promotional or training possibilities.

Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken and Doorewaard (2006) examined impact of human recourse management practices on academics’ affective, continuance and normative organizational commitment in two different faculties in Dutch universities. They concluded that even though HRM practices play an important role in determining the level of organizational commitment among employees, effect and strength of specific policies will depend on the management style and the structure of the faculty.

One of the most extensive researches in the field was done by Kipkebut (2010). She summarized all previous research on the topic and analyzed how public and private universities’ academic and administrative employees’ organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover depend on personal and demographic characteristics, personal commitment, job related factors and HRM practices. Kipkebut (2010) concluded that both, academics and administrative personnel were more committed and more satisfied when the university applied positive work practices. Also these factors were influenced by age and education level of a respondent, reward level, nature of tasks. However, Kipkebut (2010) also reported that people tend to stay in the same institution even when they have to work in unpleasant conditions, because costs of leaving were too high. Those people showed lower levels of commitment and their work efficiency was lower than their colleagues who felt part of the organization and had developed an emotional bond with their workplace.

Unfortunately, there are only limited studies existing which would address organizational commitment’s importance among the academics in developing countries. The

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existing literature is based on the Middle East and African countries' cases. Post-communist countries in Eastern Europe are rather neglected although the academics and entire higher education system faces similar challenges – unmotivated and uncommitted academics with low level of remuneration – to previously mentioned countries (Lazutka, 2012). Therefore, the authors will fill the existing theoretical and empirical gap on academic organizational commitment in the Baltics.

3. Determinants of affective organizational commitment

As of right now hundreds of studies have been performed to determine the main factors related to the organizational commitment. However, as mentioned earlier, the obtained results are hard to compare due to the fact that researchers use different dimensions and include different factors in their studies (Allan & Meyer, 1990). In addition, only a few of the existing studies on organizational commitment studied its importance for higher education institutions and academic employees (Kipkebut, 2010). Lastly, even less researches exist for developing countries. To be precise, currently there are no studies in this field related to the Baltic countries.

The majority of previous researches concluded that organizational commitment is influenced by personal and job related characteristics, role characteristics and human resource practices in the organization (Mowday *et al.*, 1982). Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to discuss a possible impact of these factors on predicting academic employees' affective organizational commitment level in the Baltics.

3.1. Affective organizational commitment and personal and job related characteristics

Meyer *et al.* (2002) proved that age, gender, education, job tenure and marital status are related to the affective commitment. Previous conclusions were confirmed also by Chughtai and Zafar (2006) and Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, and Wilson (2006). Therefore, personal and some job specific characteristics should be considered while analyzing organizational commitment. For this reason the authors included age, gender, marital status and level of education, tenure (both, professional and university specific), job involvement, trust in university management, and university sector as possible antecedents of affective organizational commitment and discussed the possible relations below.

Age

A study by Brown and Sargeant (2007) on Caribbean university's academics concluded that older lecturers were more motivated and had higher level of job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment compared to their younger colleagues. And so far most of the research on academics' organizational commitment and their age implies that there is a positive relation between their age and organizational commitment (Steers, 1977;

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Labatmedienė, Endriulaitienė and Gustaitienė, 2007; Mowday *et al.*, 1982). Thus, the authors expect the relation between affective organizational commitment and age to be significant.

Gender

According to Lim (2003) men have higher levels of affective commitment when compared to women. The same was concluded by Labatmedienė *et al.* (2007) when talking about affective organizational commitment levels between men and women. Hawkins (1998) explains it in terms of women prioritizing family roles as the way of self-fulfillment and thus, the job is left in the second place. In contrary, men identify themselves with their job and consider job as a way of self-fulfillment. Therefore, it is hypothesized that there will be differences in affective organizational commitment between men and women.

Tenure

A positive organizational commitment-job tenure relation and negative relation with positional tenure were reported by previous research. However, there is no positional tenure² in the Baltics; thus, the authors will be focusing on job tenure only.

Labatmedienė *et al.* (2007) and Kipkebut (2010) did not find any significant relation between job tenure and affective organizational commitment. In Lithuania it might be explained by the fact that Lithuanians do not like uncertainty in their professional life which leads them to stay longer in one organization, but not necessarily results in higher level commitment as in most of the Western world (Endriulaitiene & Valantinas, 2003). However, Brown and Sargeant (2007) empirically proved the positive relation between job tenure and organizational commitment. It was revealed that employees in an Caribbean region university having the tenure over 11 years were more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organization compared to the employees having less than 10 years of tenure. Possible explanation of this positive relation could be a strong emotional connection an employee develops over the time he spends in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Level of Education

Niehoff (1995) empirically proved that employees working in a university sector and holding a master's degree had more positive feelings compared to staff members holding a doctor's degree. And those positive feelings, as a result, were correlated with organizational commitment. Labatmedienė *et al.* (2007) explain the inverse relation between the level of education and organizational commitment by the fact that the organization is unable to satisfy

² Positional tenure – a lifelong position an academic can get for his or her achievements for the organization. The academic cannot be fired from the institution by any means. When the academic holding a tenure leaves the institution, the title is passed for someone else in the organization (merriam-webster.com, 2012)

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the expectations and the needs of employees with high levels of education and, thus, unable to create and develop an emotional connection. Therefore, it is harder to retain highly skilled employees and “brain drain” takes place (Gaiduk, R., Gaiduk, J., & Fields, 2009).

Having a second job

As mentioned by Kipkebut (2010), engagement in additional income generating activities of academics harms their loyalty and quality of their work. It is a common case in the developing countries, where the level of remuneration is relatively low (Lazutka, 2012). This is because under such circumstances, the academics start to seek for ways to generate more income rather than dedicate themselves to a particular job and fulfill the duties in best possible way (Kipkebut, 2010).

Given that Baltic States are the ones with relatively low level of income in the academic field (Lazutka, 2012), the authors believe the relation between having a second job and affective organizational commitment to be negative.

***Hypothesis 1:** Personal and job-related characteristics, namely, age, gender, tenure, level of education, and having a second job will be statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment. (Hypothesis 1 to be specified further in the text).*

3.2. Affective organizational commitment and role characteristics

Different dimensions of role-related characteristics included as possible determinants of organizational commitment were selected following Kipkebut (2010) study on higher education institutions in Kenya. The chosen factors related to job characteristics are job autonomy, co-workers’ and supervisor support, role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is defined as an ability of an employee to make administrative and job-related decisions freely (Hawkins, 1998). Kazlauskaite, Buciunaite and Turasukas (2006) concluded that high-end hostel employees in Lithuania tend to show higher level of organizational commitment if they are given more decision making rights. Job autonomy is especially important in academic context since providing teachers with a freedom of choosing their own teaching methodology and grading criteria is an important factor determining their organizational commitment because commitment cannot exist within institutions, where the focus is on extensive control and authority only (Hawkins, 1998).

Co-worker support

Malik Nawab, Naeem, and Danish (2010) found that the more university employees value the nature of the relationship with their co-workers, the higher level of commitment for the organization they express. Alas and Vadi (2006) concluded that Estonians who have support from their co-workers express stronger emotional attachment to their work place as well as are more flexible to changes and work more efficiently. Steers (1977) in his work found that strong feelings towards commitment are recalled by opportunities for social interaction in the organization. Therefore, the level of satisfaction with colleagues is measured by the level of value academics attach to the social interaction at work with co-workers. The measure is expected to be positively related to commitment.

Supervisory support

Satisfaction level with the supervision in the organization also influences the level of employee commitment. According Oldham (1976), supervisors are crucial for forming a working environment and providing adequate working conditions. In other words, they can be treated as main representatives of the organization level of support. Therefore, as in the research conducted by Malik *et al.* (2010), employee level of satisfaction with the supervision is expected to have a positive influence on organizational commitment.

Role ambiguity, Role conflict and Role overload

In the existing literature the three factors are regarded as role stressors, i.e., factors, creating stress in the workplace. Being distinct in their nature, they are still highly related to each other (Malik, O.F., Waheed & Malik, K.U.R., 2010).

Larson (2004) defined the role conflict as a mismatch in job demands from different supervisors, when the order of one supervisor makes the order of another supervisor difficult or impossible to implement. Role ambiguity is a factor indicating the shortage of clarity in explanations of one's assignments and lack of clear expectations for one's performance. Finally, role overload is defined as a mismatch between the extent of work assigned to an employee and the time provided to fulfill those tasks (Aziz, 2004).

Malik *et al.* (2010) empirically proved that role stressors are significantly and negatively related to affective organizational commitment both directly and through job satisfaction. The reason behind it is that role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload are proved to create stressful situations to the employees, which as a result decreases their job satisfaction and willingness to be attached to the organization, in which the stress is created.

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***Hypothesis 2:** Role-related factors, namely, job autonomy, co-workers' and supervisor's support will be statistically significantly and positively correlated with affective organizational commitment while role stressors will be correlated negatively. (Hypothesis 2 to be specified further in the text).*

3.3. Affective organizational commitment and HR practices

According Allen and Meyer (1990) organizational management practices might be a significant determinant of employees' organizational commitment level. In this part different human resource practices will be discussed and the relations will be hypothesized. The precise practices included in this work are promotion opportunities, training and development opportunities, monetary compensation, distributive justice, feedback, and participation in decision making.

Promotional opportunities

Lambert, Hogan and Jiang (2008) defined promotional opportunities as possible chances seen by an employee to grow within the organization. According to them, employees expect to work in the organizations which provide plenty of promotional opportunities for more challenging and responsible positions. If there is a good environment of promotion policies within the company, employees tend to work hard to earn the promotion (Lawler, 1971), increase the productivity of their work, as well as develop a strong emotional bond with their workplace (Gaiduk *et al.*, 2009). Hence, there is a positive relation between organizational commitment and policies and practices concerning a promotion within the organization.

The positive relation between promotional opportunities and organizational commitment has also been identified in higher education sector in particular. Malik *et al.* (2010) have conducted the research among university teachers in public sector of Pakistan and have found out that academics that are highly satisfied with the promotional opportunities they are provided with are also more satisfied with their job in general as well as more committed to their workplace.

Training and development opportunities

The provision of training and development opportunities by the organization leads its employees to think that the organization supports their personal development and is committed to its employees in a long-term perspective. As a result, the employees themselves

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start to feel more psychologically bounded to their organization and thus, become more psychologically committed (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006).

Gaiduk *et al.* (2008) found a positive relationship between training opportunities and employees' affective organizational commitment among employees in Lithuania. By providing development opportunities, an organization strengthens emotional relations with the employees.

Monetary Compensation

Comm and Mathaisel (2003) examined the relation between Australian academic workload and monetary compensation and concluded that more than half of the respondents were not satisfied with the level of compensation and felt the need to find a second job. This perceived underpayment, according to Kipkebut (2010), may lead to decreased effort one puts into work and, thus, negatively affect primary responsibilities – teaching and research quality. Additionally, this results in lower level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

McElroy (2001) concluded that high commitment of employees could be achieved through high compensation since it serves as an indicator of how much an organization values its employees. According to Turk (2005), who conducted a research in university of Tartu, fair remuneration system serves as a motivator to put more effort into work. Therefore, a level of compensation which is closely tied to work performance is expected to predict a level of organizational commitment (Turk, 2005).

Distributive justice

Distributive justice is one's perception of fairness of allocation of rewards, pay, promotions and other organizational resources among employees. Given the fact that employees provide an organization with their skills, education and knowledge, they are willing to receive a fair amount of reward in return. Once an employee estimates that rewards he receives are unfair compared to other employees, his loyalty, commitment and work productivity deteriorates (Kipkebut, 2010; Turk, 2005).

Feedback

Karim and Noor (2007) empirically proved a positive relation between regular feedback on one's performance and one's affective organizational commitment among the employees in academic institutions. Kipkebut (2010) also proved empirically that regular feedback, allowing an employee to improve his performance, is positively and significantly correlated with one's job satisfactions and organizational commitment. Earlier discussed study of Turk (2005) concluded that regular communication with employees and their performance appraisal positively influences one's attachment to the organization. In this regard, the authors predict the feedback-affective organizational commitment to be positive.

Participation in decision making

Townley (1991) (as cited in Kipkebut, 2010) proved that an employee, who is provided with narrow information only related to his task and has no possibility to have an access to the information related to the organization as a whole, does not feel any commitment to the organization and does not identify himself with it. Only the access to broader issues important to the whole organization such as the organization's business strategy or the financial information makes an employee feel trusted (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999), which adds to employee's emotional attachment to the organization. Additionally allowing employees to participate in the decision making process and providing them with relevant information allows them to feel empowered and builds stronger emotional bond between the two parties (Zidziunaite & Katiliute, 2007).

***Hypothesis 3:** HR practices, namely, promotion opportunities, training and development opportunities, monetary compensation, distributive justice, feedback, and participation in decision making, will be statistically significantly and positively correlated with affective organizational commitment. (Hypothesis 3 to be specified further in the text).*

3.4. Affective commitment and university sector

In addition to the factors mentioned above, there is a debate in the existing body of literature about the difference in organizational commitment among the private and public institutions. Due to bureaucratism, lack of clear goals and performance measures, and being overstaffed, public organizations tend to express lower levels of organizational commitment than private organizations (Baldwin, 1987). This conclusion was supported also by Mulinge (2000) and Obeng and Ugboro (2003). On the other hand, Baldwin (1987) claimed that due to

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job security, when a certain amount of years of working in the same organization is reached, public sector employees tend to be more committed than those in private sector.

The results of the studies conducted in academic employees' context are inconsistent with the results of the studies investigating organizations in general. Namely, Adekola (2012) found that public university employees in Nigeria have higher levels of organizational commitment than their colleagues in private universities. Because of this reason, the study will target this issue and investigate the difference in organizational commitment between private and public institutions in the academic context in the Baltics. Currently there is no research on the issue on any industry organizations in the region. But the authors expect to observe the same relation between organizational commitment and university sector as Adekola (2012).

***Hypothesis 4:** The academics working in public universities have higher level of affective organizational commitment compared to academics working in private universities.*

3.5. Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are formed in order to predict and analyze possible antecedents of affective organizational commitment among the economic and management faculty academics in private and public universities in the Baltics.

***Hypothesis 1:** Personal and job-related characteristics, namely, age, gender, tenure, level of education, and having a second job will be statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment.*

- *Hypothesis 1a:* Academic's age is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 1b:* Men academics will have higher level of affective organizational commitment than women
- *Hypothesis 1c:* Academic's tenure is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 1d:* Academic's level of education is negatively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 1e:* Working in a second job is negatively correlated with affective organizational commitment

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Hypothesis 2: *Role-related factors, namely, job autonomy, co-worker support, supervisory support will be statistically significantly and positively correlated with affective organizational commitment while role stressors will be correlated negatively.*

- *Hypothesis 2a:* Level of job autonomy is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 2b:* Level of co-worker support is positively and statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 2c:* Level of supervisory support is positively and statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 2d:* Role stressors are negatively and statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment

Hypothesis 3: *HR practices, namely, promotion opportunities, training and development opportunities, monetary compensation, distributive justice, feedback, and participation in decision making, will be statistically significantly and positively correlated with affective organizational commitment.*

- *Hypothesis 3a:* Level of promotional opportunities is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 3b:* Academics satisfaction with pay is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 3c:* Perceived level of distributive justice is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 3d:* Regular feedback is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment
- *Hypothesis 3e:* Academics ability to participate in decision making is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment

Hypothesis 4: *The academics working in public universities have higher level of affective organizational commitment compared to academics working in private universities.*

4. Methodology

4.1. Research design

To address the research question and obtain objective results a cross-sectional quantitative research method design was chosen for the study. Although, a longitudinal design would let us analyze and identify patterns and spot the changes of the participants and their behavior over time (Coetzee, 2005), the cross-sectional design is more commonly used when studying employee organizational commitment (Kipkebut, 2010).

Additionally, the cross-sectional research design has advantages when compared to other applicable designs. Firstly, it is less costly and time consuming than case studies and longitudinal studies. Secondly, it allows analyzing several factors at one time by giving a ‘snapshot’ at a particular time (Coetzee, 2005). Thirdly, it is easier to collect answers needed since participation does not require long time commitment from participants (Kipkebut, 2010). Lastly, data obtained from the surveys is easier and faster analyzed with the help of statistical software.

In order to be able to generalize obtained result from the sample to the population, quantitative research method was chosen. This method relies on measuring variables on direct or indirect numerical scales which later are used for checking hypotheses statistically. Advantage of such approach is that it allows to analyze large amounts of information in a systemic way and generalize obtained results for entire population quickly and at lower cost (Bryman & Bell, 2003).

4.2. Data collection methods

The study focuses on the public and private universities which offer economics and management study programmes in the Baltics. The population of the study consists of all teaching academic employees in the faculty (lecturers and senior lecturers, visiting faculty members, researchers, professors, associate professors and assistant professors). There are 34 public and private universities in the Baltics that offer students economics and management study programmes. There are almost 1700 academic employees working in these study programmes³. The population of the study is located in three different countries and speaks at least four different languages (English, Estonian, Latvian and Lithuanian), which makes most

³ The number was calculated by authors while contacting all higher education institutions in the Baltics as well as searching education and science ministry webpage in each country.

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of the direct data collection methods, such as interviews, focus groups interviews and observations, time- and cost-inefficient. Gathering data through anonymous self-report questionnaires was chosen as the most suitable method to collect the data for the study.

Other advantages of the chosen data collection method are objectivity, since a standardized questionnaire does not allow for side effects which might be observed during the interviews (De Vaus, 2002). Additionally, anonymity and confidentiality of the answers ensure that the study is ethical. Anonymity of the respondents and confidentiality of the answers will be ensured through the distribution process of the questionnaire. An online questionnaire in 4 different languages will be created (English – for visiting academics not from the Baltics, Estonian, Latvian and Lithuanian – for local academic employees in the selected universities). The links will be sent to the selected faculties' administrations and distributed through inside email system by the institutions' personnel to all academics working in the faculty. Lastly, such data collection method allows reaching bigger sample and simplifies data analysis, which allows making the process more time- and cost- efficient (De Vaus, 2002).

On the other hand, data collection through questionnaires might have some disadvantages. Firstly, as the questionnaires are standardized and the authors have no personal interaction with the respondent it is impossible to explain the questions and statements the other person does not comprehend, also misinterpretation of the statements might affect the results (De Vaus, 2002). This problem could be partially addressed through a pilot study, which the authors will talk about later in the work. Another possible drawback of the data collection method is that additional time will have to be spent by sending reminders and encouraging participants to answers the questionnaire to reach the needed response rates (Bryman & Bell, 2003). A questionnaire distribution method also does not ensure that it will reach all the target population, since the faculty's administration might exclude some academics from the mailing list and this is out of the authors' control. Lastly, there are some risks involved in losing the accuracy in the statements after translating them to other languages (De Vaus, 2002). This will be address by translating the questionnaire through two independent translators and doing a back to English translation for questionnaires in Estonian and Latvian, since the authors do not speak the latter languages.

4.3. Sampling methods

Defining the population: at the moment of the study there were 62 publicly and privately held universities in the Baltics. Since the target population for this study is the academic employees teaching in the fields of economics and management in Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, the number of institutions who offer such study programmes decreases to 34 universities (24 public and 10 private). There are 1688 local and visiting academics working full or part time in the institutions.

Sampling procedure: Since the total population is not huge and there is no way to determine a fair threshold for a sampling criterion, the authors decided to approach all 28 higher education institutions in the Baltics which offer economics and management study programmes. There are 10 private and 24 public universities out of which 13 are located in Lithuania, 16 in Latvia and 5 are located in Estonia. The list of universities in the sample of the study is given in appendix 1.

Determining the sample size: in order to calculate the sample size, the following formula of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was applied: $s = \frac{X^2 * N * p * (1-p)}{d^2 * (N-1) + X^2 * p * (1-p)}$; where s is a necessary sample size, X^2 is the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level, N is total population, p is population proportion and d is the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion. By applying this formula, the authors can find a minimum required sample for the study. In our case, the sample size is 313 responses⁴.

4.4. Development of questionnaire items

Survey method is used to conduct this study. The questionnaire is composed of four parts. In addition, the respondents are asked to identify the type of university they work in (private/ public) in order to be able to observe the differences in commitment between the two. The first part includes job-related factors. The second part is composed of questions measuring one's attitude towards human resource practices applied in their workplace. The third part of the questionnaire includes items measuring one's affective organizational

⁴ In order to calculate the necessary sample size the following numbers were used: X^2 at 95% confidence level is 3.84, N (total population) is 1688, p (population proportion) is assumed to be 0.5 as it gives a maximum sample size, d (degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion) is 0.05.

$$s = 3.84 * 1688 * 0.5 * (1-0.5) / (0.05^2 * (1688-1) + 3.84 * 0.5 * (1-0.5)) = 312.98$$

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commitment to their workplace and the final part identifies the personal characteristics of the respondents.

Three measurement scales are used in this questionnaire, namely, nominal, ordinal and interval scales. The dependent variable (affective organizational commitment) and the independent variables (job-related factors and HRM practices) are measured using interval scales. Age, tenure and education are ordinal scales while gender, marital status, and university sector are all nominal scales.

The most commonly used scale for attitude surveys is a 5-item Likert scale, 1 standing for strongly disagree and 5 standing for strongly agree (Bowling 1997). The scale is easy to understand and summarize the answers as well as it allows some statistical analysis. Another benefit of this scale is that it allows respondents to express their opinion in terms of level of agreement and does not force them to choose simple yes or no answer (Bowling 1997).

Role-related factors

This section includes factors such as job autonomy, co-worker support, supervisory support, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. Job autonomy was measured using 4 items applied by Kipkebut (2010). Factors of co-worker support and supervisory support are measured by 3 items developed by Mulinge and Mueller (1998) and applied by Kipkebut (2010). Role ambiguity and role conflict factors include 4 and 2 items respectively and have been developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970). Finally 4 items measuring work overload and applied in this research have been systemized by Kipkebut (2010).

Human Resource practices

The second part of the survey measures one's evaluation of Human Resource practices applied in their university such as promotion opportunities, training and development opportunities, monetary compensation, distributive justice, feedback, and participation in decision making. The items measuring each of the factors have been developed by a number of scholars and have been systemized and applied in the academic context by Kipkebut (2010). Factor of promotional opportunities as well as training and development consists of 3 items each evaluating one's opportunity to get promoted and the availability of trainings in the workplace. Monetary compensation measure is designed to evaluate one's satisfaction with his level of compensation in absolute terms while the factor of distributive justice measures one's satisfaction with rewards relative to the rewards of other employees. Feedback section includes 4 items measuring one's satisfaction with and

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fairness of the feedback provided by supervisors. Participation in decision-making measures one's ability to be involved in the decision making process regarding the issues that concerns the organization as a whole.

Affective organizational commitment

Affective organizational commitment is measured by applying eight items developed by Allen and Mayer (1990), which are used to form the dependent variable: level of affective organizational commitment. The statements have been adjusted to fit the context of this study.

Personal and job-related characteristics

Respondents are asked to provide their personal characteristics in the last part of the survey. Personal characteristics include age, gender, tenure, level of education, and whether a respondent is engaged in the additional income generating activity.

4.5. Fieldwork

Pilot study: In order to identify possible ambiguities in the questionnaire a pilot study was undertaken. The study allowed determining how much time it takes to fill out the questionnaire as well as address ambiguously formulated statements and questions that might be misleading for the main study participants.

University of Porto, Faculty of Economics (FEP) was selected as a pilot study target due to convenient location, similar size to the most of the universities in the Baltics and the language. As the main questionnaire is developed in English and then translated into other languages, academics, who do not speak English as their mother tongue, were selected as the participants of the pilot study.

There were 10 academics participating in the pilot study. 7 women and 3 men with working experience in both economics and management ranging from 5 to 25 years. All the participants of the pilot study were distributed a standardized questionnaire which was used in the main study. Additionally, at the end of the questionnaire 3 questions were added asking respondents to indicate how much time it took a respondent to finish the questionnaire, mark unclear and ambiguous statements in the questionnaire and suggest possible improvements to better understand of the questionnaire items.

Questionnaire distribution: In order to ensure higher response rates, the corrected questionnaires were distributed via internal email systems of the universities. Universities' economics and management faculties were contacted in order to approve their participation in

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the study as well as make an agreement to send out questionnaire links and explanatory letter stating the purpose and importance of the study. The respondents were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of their answers as the survey would only be accessible through the provided link. A reminder letter after a week and day before closing the questionnaire was sent to the universities.

4.6. Data analysis methods

The data obtained from the questionnaire was analyzed using SPSS software. The authors used analysis methods as in Kipkebut (2010), adjusted for our sample specifics, and formulated hypotheses. The predicted relations were analyzed using different statistical approaches:

- descriptive statistics and crosstabs with chi-square test were used to determine sample specific characteristics;
- Indexes were formed in order to run correlation tests and check hypotheses while taking into consideration all the questions related to the same determinant of organizational commitment;
- Pearson correlation coefficient were used to check hypothesized relations between personal characteristics, job related factors and HR practices and affective organizational commitment as well as to indentify main antecedents of affective organizational commitment among academics in higher education institutions in the Baltics;
- independent samples t-test were used to identify and analyze any possible differenced in affective organizational commitment antecedents between public and private sector academics.

Such analysis allowed generalizing the results of the sample to the targeted population as well as compare different antecedents' importance between the countries.

5. Empirical analysis

In this part, data gathered from 316 academic employees working in the economics and management study programs in the higher education institutions in the Baltics is analyzed.

Empirical analysis is carried out in two steps. Firstly, descriptive statistics of the respondents are presented and analyzed. This allows to understand the profiles of the respondents and the frequency distribution in the study sample better. Afterwards, relationships between personal characteristics, job-related factors, HRM practices and affective organizational commitment are analyzed with respect to the four hypotheses formulated earlier in the work. The hypotheses are tested for the sample of Baltic states as a whole as well as for each country separately in order to support and specify the results.

5.1. *Descriptive Statistics*

Out of 316 respondents, 48,4% were academics working in Lithuania, 30,1% in Latvia, and 21,5% in Estonia, which reflects the situation in the Baltic States, where the academics working in Lithuania account for around half of the academic staff in the Baltics working in economics/management field. Second and third places are taken by Latvia and Estonia respectively.

Out of 316 respondents, 53,3% were lecturers, 16,1% senior lecturers or professors, 14,6% were assistant professors and the rest of the respondents were pro-rectors, researchers and docents. Over 64,6% of respondents hold PhD degree, 13,6% are pursuing their PhD degree, 21,2% hold Master's degree and the rest of the respondents have Bachelor's degree or equivalent. With respect to a second job, 44,9% of academics in the sample have no second job, 15,5% of respondents hold lectures in more than one higher education and the rest of the academics are engaged in other income generating activities. In-depth profile of respondents is provided in appendix 2.

Demographics of the sample as well as a share of academics working in private and public universities are presented in the tables below. The frequency distributions of age, gender, and university sector in the sample are compared with the ones in the population. This is done to observe if proportions in the sample represent the population. Comparison is made for gender, age, and university sector only given that no statistics are available in databases for academics' level of education, tenure, job title, or second job in the Baltics.

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Also, the demographic data is not available for Estonia in any available database. The latest statistics available in Eurostat database are used.

| | Estonia | | Latvia | | Lithuania | |
|-------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| | Public | Private | Public | Private | Public | Private |
| Population | 60,00% | 40,00% | 54,55% | 45,45% | 75,00% | 25,00% |
| Sample | 73,50% | 26,50% | 62,10% | 37,90% | 85,00% | 15,00% |

Table 1 Percentage of respondents by university sector. Source: Table created by the authors using data from Eurostat (2013)

| | Estonia | | | Latvia | | | Lithuania | | |
|--------------|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| | <i>Male s</i> | <i>Female s</i> | <i>Total l</i> | <i>Males</i> | <i>Female s</i> | <i>Total</i> | <i>Males</i> | <i>Female s</i> | <i>Total</i> |
| <30 | N/a | N/a | N/a | 3,25% | 3,72% | 6,97% | 3,45% | 4,83% | 8,27% |
| 30-39 | N/a | N/a | N/a | 8,47% | 14,54% | 23,01% | 12,21% | 17,41% | 29,61% |
| 40-49 | N/a | N/a | N/a | 6,99% | 14,01% | 20,99% | 8,83% | 13,81% | 22,63% |
| 50-59 | N/a | N/a | N/a | 8,38% | 15,63% | 24,01% | 11,30% | 12,58% | 23,88% |
| >60 | N/a | N/a | N/a | 14,23% | 10,79% | 25,02% | 9,51% | 6,10% | 15,60% |
| Total | N/a | N/a | N/a | 41,31% | 58,69% | 100,00% | 45,28% | 54,72% | 100,00% |

Table 2 Population percentage by demographic variables. Source: Table created by the authors using data from Eurostat (2013)

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| | Estonia | | | Latvia | | | Lithuania | | |
|--------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | <i>Males</i> | <i>Female</i> | <i>Total</i> | <i>Males</i> | <i>Female</i> | <i>Total</i> | <i>Males</i> | <i>Females</i> | <i>Total</i> |
| <30 | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 5,30% | 5,30% | 2,60% | 7,20% | 9,80% |
| 30-39 | 14,70% | 14,70% | 29,40% | 10,5% | 17,90% | 28,40% | 11,10% | 26,80% | 37,90% |
| 40-49 | 7,40% | 13,20% | 20,60% | 17,9% | 17,90% | 35,80% | 3,30% | 19,60% | 22,90% |
| 50-59 | 7,40% | 17,60% | 25,00% | 2,10% | 11,60% | 13,70% | 3,90% | 13,10% | 17,00% |
| >60 | 14,70% | 10,30% | 25,00% | 15,8% | 1,10% | 16,80% | 8,50% | 3,90% | 12,40% |
| Total | 44,10% | 55,90% | 100,00% | 46,3% | 53,70% | 100,0% | 29,40% | 70,60% | 100,00% |

Table 3 Percentage of respondents by demographic variables. Source: Table created by the authors using data from Eurostat (2013)

It can be seen that the share of the respondents working in private universities is slightly lower in all three Baltic States than it should be to reflect the real market situation.

In terms of age, the share of respondents of younger age (30-49) is much higher in the sample of Latvia and Lithuania than it should be to reflect the situation in the Baltic States, where the market is dominated by older academics. Yet, such a tendency does not apply to Estonian sample, where 50% of respondents are over 50 years of age. In terms of gender, the share of females in Lithuanian sample is higher than the one in the population, while it is lower for Latvia.

The comparison above reveals that the frequency distribution of the sample does not correspond to that in the population, which could possibly lead to biased outcomes. Therefore, the survey data is weighted in order for the demographic proportions in the sample to converge to the ones in the population. Given that no precise proportions of population are provided for Estonia as well as the fact that reasonable proportions of age are observed in the sample, namely, there is a decent share of older academics in the sample, it is decided not to weigh survey data for Estonia but for Latvia and Lithuania only. Dataset is weighted by multiplying each case by weighting factor, which is the proportion of the respective group in the population divided by the proportion of the respective group in the sample (% in population/% in the sample). The number of observations in the sample is reduced from 316 to 315 due to rounded results of weighted dataset.

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As indicated above, combined frequency tables are available for gender and age. Yet, frequency table is available separately only for share of private/public universities. Therefore, double weights should be used to weight data for both demographics and university sector, which would lead to less precise proportions (Johnson, 2008). Given that no significant mean differences are observed in organizational commitment between academics in public/private universities (p -value equal to 0,42) , it is decided not to weight data for the university sector.

5.2. Hypothesis testing

In order to measure the relation between organizational commitment and particular factors, indices from the questions in the survey measuring the same factor are created. Given that 11 questions in the survey have been formulated in a reverse manner, they were inverted for the further analysis in order to coincide with the rest of the items.

In order to test the reliability of indices and the correlation of items within an index, test of “Cronbach’s Alpha“ is used. As a rule of thumb, the desirable value of Alpha is over 0,7 (Gliem, A. & Gliem, R., 2003). Particular items are excluded from the indices if alpha values after items are deleted exceed the initial Cronbach’s Alpha. Overall 6 items are excluded from indices and thus, from further analysis. 13 indices are created, namely, one for affective organizational commitment and 12 indices for possible determinants. The list of indices and respective Cronbach’s Alpha values are provided in the appendices (see appendix 3).

Hypotheses are tested for the sample of Baltic States as a whole as well as for each country separately in order to support and specify the results.

For the purpose of testing the hypotheses, Independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA test as well as Pearson Correlation method are used.

Independent sample t-test is applied when testing the difference in affective organizational commitment between two groups in the sample, namely, between men and women, and between academics in private and public universities.

One-way ANOVA test is applied for testing the differences in affective organizational commitment between more than two groups, i.e. different age groups, different levels of education, tenure and type of a second job. ANOVA Sheffe’s test is used when making the analysis since the groups compared are not equal in size.

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Correlation tests (Pearson correlation method) will be used to observe the relation between affective organizational commitment and numerical variables, namely, HR practices and job-related factors. This test allows observing the direction and strength of two items, both of which are numerical/quantitative.

Testing Hypothesis 1 –Personal and Job-related characteristics

- ***Hypothesis 1a: Academic's age is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

One-way ANOVA test for the whole sample shows that there are significant differences in level of organizational commitment among different age groups even at 1% significance level (p-value 0,009). Yet, Post Hoc Sheffle's test shows that organizational commitment differs significantly among 30-39 and 50-59 age groups only. Also, differences in mean values between each two age groups do not show an increasing tendency when the age increases (see appendix 5). Moreover, when testing the hypothesis for each country separately, it is found out that differences in commitment exist in Latvian sample only. Therefore, the hypothesis that age is positively correlated with ones' organizational commitment is rejected.

- ***Hypothesis 1b: Men academics will have higher level of affective organizational commitment than women***

Independent sample t-test shows that there is no difference in affective organizational commitment between men and women even at 10% significance level neither in the Baltic states as a whole (p-value equal to 0,989) nor in each of the countries separately (see appendix 6).

Therefore, the authors reject the hypothesis that gender has any influence on the value of organizational commitment, namely, the hypothesis that men are more affectively committed to their workplace is rejected.

- ***Hypothesis 1c: Academic's tenure is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

University tenure

The results of analysis show that one's university tenure is positively correlated with level of commitment. Differences in mean values of commitment between groups, which are presented in appendices (see appendix 5), show that the higher university tenure one possess, the more committed one is to his university. In order to draw more precise conclusions, it is analyzed in which countries particularly these differences occur. Results show that university tenure has

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an influence on organizational commitment in Lithuania only, where the academics working in particular universities up to 4 years are less committed than academics working over 10 years. Also, academics working in university for 5-10 years are significantly less committed to it compared to the ones working for over 16 years. Precise numerical values of the analysis are presented in appendix 5.

Position tenure

No significant correlation is observed between level of organizational commitment and the time one spends in a particular job position neither analyzing Baltics States as a whole nor analyzing each country separately (see appendix 5).

Therefore, no solid conclusion can be made for this hypothesis. More precisely, the hypothesis that university tenure is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment cannot be rejected; yet, the hypothesis that position tenure is positively correlated with organizational commitment is rejected even at 10 % significance level.

- ***Hypothesis 1d: Academic's level of education is negatively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

No significant differences in affective organizational commitment are observed among groups of academics holding different levels of academic degrees in either of the Baltic states (p-value for the Baltics is equal to 0,301). Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

- ***Hypothesis 1e: Working in a second job is negatively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

One-way ANOVA test indicates that the academic's second job has no influence on his organizational commitment. Differences in mean values of affective organizational commitment between the academics working in one workplace and those having more than one job are not significant even at 10 % significance level either in the Baltics as a whole (p-value equal to 0,344) or in each of the countries separately. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

To conclude, personal characteristics, except for university tenure, are proved to have no influence on one's affective organizational commitment. Yet, it is observed that the more time one spends in a particular university, the more commitment he has to the current workplace.

Testing Hypothesis 2 – Role-related factors

- ***Hypothesis 2a: Level of job autonomy is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

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Pearson correlation test shows that job autonomy is significantly correlated with organizational commitment even at 1% significance level. Yet, when the test is repeated for each of the countries, it appears that job autonomy does not play any role in determining organization commitment among the academics working in Latvia. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be rejected. Yet, further research is necessary to observe country differences.

- ***Hypothesis 2b: Level of co-worker support is positively and statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment***

Statistically significant correlation with the value of 0,247 is observed for the Baltic region. The relation remains statistically significant at 1% significance level when analyzing each country separately, while the highest correlation between coworker support and level of commitment is observed in Estonia. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported.

- ***Hypothesis 2c: Level of supervisory support is positively and statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment***

Statistically significant correlation with the value of 0,389 is observed for the Baltic region. The correlation is significant at 1% for each of the Baltic States and for the region as whole. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported.

- ***Hypothesis 2d: Role stressors are negatively and statistically significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment***

As already stated, the variables measuring role stressors have been inversed. Therefore, the table in appendix 3 indicates the correlations between affective organizational commitment and the absence of role stressors. As a result, statistically significant and positive correlations are observed. The absence of role ambiguity is the strongest determinant of commitment of all the role stressors (correlation of 0,460). Correlations for role conflict and role overload are 0,273 and 0,140 respectively. The tendency stays the same when analysis by countries is made. Yet, role overload appears to be significantly correlated with commitment among the academics working in Estonia only. Therefore, based on the analysis results for the Baltic states as a whole, the hypothesis that role stressors are negatively correlated with commitment is not rejected. Yet, further analysis for country differences is required.

To conclude, all the job-related characteristics are important determinants of one's organizational commitment in the Baltics (see appendix 4). The most important determinant of commitment is the absence of role ambiguity. The second most important factors are coworker

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and supervisory support one receives in the workplace. Job autonomy, role conflict, and role overload are less important, yet significant determinants of organizational commitment.

Nevertheless, the results slightly differ when analysis is redone for each country. It appears that job autonomy and role overload do not influence the commitment of the academics working in Latvia. Role overload is not significant in Lithuania either. In Estonia, all the factors play a significant role in terms of organizational commitment.

Testing Hypothesis 3 – HR practices

- ***Hypothesis 3a: Level of promotional opportunities is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

The factor of promotional opportunities is significantly correlated with organizational commitment (p-value=0,000) with the correlation of 0,360. The correlation remains significant when repeating the analysis at the country level. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be rejected.

- ***Hypothesis 3b: Level of training and development is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

Level of promotional opportunities appears to have the highest correlation with organizational commitment of all the factors analyzed in the research. The correlation for the sample of the Baltics is equal to 0,534 and the correlation is significant for the region as well as for each country separately (p-value=0,000)

- ***Hypothesis 3c: Academics satisfaction with pay is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

Satisfaction with pay is a significant determinant of organizational commitment when analyzing both the Baltic region and countries separately (p-value=0). Correlation for sample of the Baltic region is equal to 0,363. Therefore, the hypothesis is not rejected.

- ***Hypothesis 3d: Perceived level of distributive justice is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

Distributive justice is a significant determinant of organizational commitment in Baltic region as a whole and in each of the countries separately (p-value=0). Correlation for sample of the Baltic region is equal to 0,348. Therefore, the hypothesis is not rejected

- ***Hypothesis 3e: Regular feedback is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment***

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Correlation between feedback and organizational commitment is found to be significant (p-value = 0 for the Baltics and for each of the countries) and positive with the correlation value of 0,347 for the sample of the Baltics. Therefore, the hypothesis is not rejected.

- **Hypothesis 3f:** *Academics ability to participate in decision making is positively correlated with affective organizational commitment*

Participation in decision making is a significant determinant of organizational commitment in each of the Baltic states (p-value=0,000). Correlation is found to be 0,432 for the Baltics. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be rejected.

To conclude, all the factors related to human resource management are statistically significantly and positively correlated with affective organizational commitment in the universities in the Baltic region (see appendix 4). The strongest relation is observed between affective organizational commitment and level of training and development within the organization (0,534). Participation in decision making is the second most important factor with the correlation of 0,432. Satisfaction with pay and promotional opportunities one has in the workplace are another important factors determining academic's emotional attachment to the university with correlation values of 0,363 and 0,360 respectively. Feedback one receives about his performance and the perceived fairness of remuneration compared to other people (distributive justice) are the least important, yet, significant determinants of organizational commitment (correlations 0,347 and 0,348 respectively). The results are alike in each of the Baltic states meaning that all the factors are significantly important determinants of organizational commitment and training and development opportunities is the most important factor determining commitment in each of the Baltic states. Yet, the sequence of the importance of other factors slightly differs among countries, which requires a further research on country differences (see Appendix 4).

Testing Hypothesis 4 – University sector

- **Hypothesis 4:** *The academics working in public universities have higher level of affective organizational commitment compared to academics working in private universities.*

Independent t-test analysis is made to test the hypothesis. The in-depth results can be found in appendix 6. The test shows that difference in mean values of affective organizational commitment between private and public university employees is not significant even at 10% significant level neither for the Baltic states nor for each country separately. Therefore, the

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hypothesis that the academics from public universities possess a higher level of affective organizational commitment is rejected.

6. Discussion of results and possible human resource practice improvements

Training and development opportunities, the absence of role ambiguity, participation in decision making, and co-worker and supervisory support appeared to be the main factors leading to higher level of academic's affective organizational commitment. Therefore, suggestions that could help targeting each of the factors and thus, would lead to higher academics' commitment to the universities are presented below.

Training and development opportunities have the biggest influence on academic's emotional attachment to the university. Therefore, it is of high importance for the university management to set the most efficient training and development policies. Yet, simply providing training programs is not enough to attain significant results. Firstly, it is proved that employees value the opinion of their coworkers and thus, employees put higher value on training programs that are obviously valued by their colleagues and supported by their managers (Bartlett, 2001). Moreover, pre-training actions are important. It is proved that once employees are provided with the information about the upcoming training sessions, they formulate specific expectations and become more focused. As a result, employees absorb the relevant information better and benefit more (Tannenbaum et al, 1991).

The absence of role ambiguity is the second most important factor. Therefore, it is crucially important to define the tasks and responsibilities an academic is in charge of when working in a particular job position. In order to eliminate role ambiguity, universities management should organize employee socialization programs, which increase communication among employees and thus, allows undertaking the roles of each and every of them. Also, the introduction of effective orientation guidelines to the newly employed persons would be helpful (Judeh, 2011).

Keeping employees involved in the decision making of all organization related issues is also a factor leading to higher level of organizational commitment. Therefore, it is crucial for the universities, which still operate under hierarchical superior-subordinate management system to switch to horizontal management structures, where employees, who are otherwise hierarchically unequal, are involved in decision making process to the higher extent (Muindi, 2011). The

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involvement into decision making process could be stimulated by organizing more staff meetings and discussions focused to particular issues (Bhatti et al., 2011).

Ducharme and Martin (2000) found that social support (coworker and supervisory support) within the organization also plays an important role while determining employees' affective organizational commitment level. Empirical results in this paper confirms previous conclusions, therefore, it is crucial to implement certain policies that would ensure safe, friendly, trustworthy and supportive working environment in the universities.

If talking about coworker support, the universities should make efforts to create a less competitive environment among the academic staff. The absence of competition among employees makes them more helpful to each other, which, as proven empirically by Kipkebut (2010) and Ducharme and Martin (2000), leads to higher level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In order to ensure higher levels of coworker interactions and support, interpersonal relations should be encouraged. This could be achieved by organizing more organizational activities for the employees (such as holiday gatherings, group trainings and trips), encouraging teamwork through joint researches and recognition of achievements (Turk, 2005).

In terms of supervisory support, previous studies confirm that appropriate relation between job demands and supervisor control reduces stress level at the workplace (Nauret, 2012). As lecturing and other academic duties are rather autonomous and do not require direct supervision, it is highly important for the university management not to set the requirements to the working staff unilaterally, but to provide all the information and communicate first and agree on rules that seem fair to both parties. This could be achieved by continuous appraisal and achievement recognition (Turk, 2005; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006), as well as by introducing performance based reward system, which currently is successfully functioning in university of Tartu, in Estonia (Turk, 2005).

To conclude, given that factors such as quality of trainings, supervision and other abovementioned factors appeared to be stronger determinants of organizational commitment than satisfaction with pay one receives directly, it would be suggested for the management of universities to consider long term indirect investment in employees. Investment in trainings, more advanced management systems, organization of staff meetings and other organizational activities such as holiday gatherings would help to develop committed staff more than only raising the level of financial remuneration.

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6.1. *Delimitations*

First of all, online survey has been used to collect the responses. Therefore, it is not possible to identify if employees in some universities did not participate in the survey purposely, or the survey was not forwarded to the academics by the administration accidentally. Such an issue would not have appeared if the academics were approached directly.

Secondly, no in-depth analysis was conducted to identify differences in the education systems among the Baltic states. Such system differences might have explained the discrepancies in the results between the Baltic states in general and each of the countries separately.

Thirdly, given that demographics of academics working in Estonia are not provided in any available database, it was not possible to compare whether the proportions in the sample of particular groups of respondents matched the ones in the population. As a result, sample was compared and weighted for Latvia and Lithuania only. Also, the sample was not weighted for personal characteristics, the statistics of which were not available for the population.

6.2. *Theoretical and practical implications*

Currently, there exist only a few researches on academia's organizational commitment in higher education institutions in Eastern European countries and there is none on the Baltics. Therefore, this study fills a gap in existing literature on antecedents of affective organizational commitment among academics in developing countries in Europe by providing an empirical study on the case of Baltic countries.

Additionally, the study has practical implications as it gives an overview of current situation of commitment level among academia as well as gives brief insights on possible HR policies that would help to increase its level. It is crucial to understand the determinants of affective organizational commitment as then managers can intervene and keep its level stable or even raise it. Provided insights might help to increase competitiveness of Baltic universities in world's higher education market simply by preventing young academics and students from migrating to another EU countries. By following guidelines and focusing on most important determinants of affective organizational commitment, universities' management would be able to improve quality of the services their institution provide, increase attractiveness level for local and foreign students, develop country specific knowledge bank, and create new synergies among university's employees.

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Therefore, the study provides both, theoretical and practical implications by filling the gap in existing literature and giving brief insights on necessary HR policies for improving competitiveness of higher education institutions in the Baltics.

7. Conclusions

It is proved that well-educated manpower, which is the result of high quality HEI, is a key to a country's economic development. Moreover, the importance of high quality HEI especially in the business field is even more important given the current times of European Union financial struggles and Euro crisis (Ritzen, 2012). To address the issue of how to increase the quality of HEI in the Baltic states, affective organizational commitment approach has been employed in this research. High level of organizational commitment among academics is proved to increase the quality of academics' job performance and prevent HEI from losing the brightest academics, which, as a result, leads to sustainable HEI performance (Pienaar, 2008). Therefore, this study aimed to identify the main factors leading to higher level of the organizational commitment among the HEI in the Baltic states.

To answer the following research question: **what are the main antecedents of affective organizational commitment among the academics working in economics and management departments in the higher education institutions in the Baltics?** a cross-sectional quantitative research design was used. Pearson's correlation s, one-way ANOVA, and independent sample t-tests were used to test the hypotheses. The results revealed that personal characteristics, except for university tenure, have no impact on one's affective organizational commitment. On the contrary, job-related factors and the HR practices applied in an organization have been proved to be significant determinants of affective organizational commitment. Namely, training and development opportunities, absence of role ambiguity, participation in decision making, and coworker and supervisory support appeared to be the strongest determinants.

Based on the results of the analysis, practical guidelines for HR managers were drawn. Given that satisfaction with pay appeared to be a weaker determinant of commitment than, for example, training opportunities or employees' participation in decision making, the authors conclude that indirect long term investment in employees is far more important when fostering organizational commitment than simple increase in financial remuneration.

8. Future research

Given this research revealed a significant relation between training opportunities provided to an employee and one's organizational commitment, further research could be conducted to analyze the training system applied in the Baltic States for academic employees. Room for improvement could be indentified and possible solutions to increase the satisfaction with training and development opportunities could be presented. Moreover, an in-depth research on university management structure would be useful. This would allow identifying ways of changing management structure so that academics would be involved in the decision making to the highest extent.

Also, academic employees' job performance could be analyzed directly in the future researches. This research touched the factor of job performance indirectly, i.e. throughout the affective organizational commitment, which yields better performance; yet, there are other factors, which could possibly affect one's performance in the workplace. Thus, such factors should be analyzed.

Furthermore, differences in education systems among the Baltic States could be analyzed. Even though no differences in organizational commitment among the countries were observed, there were some differences observed in the significance and strength of determinants of commitment among the countries. Yet, they were not approached in-depth, which could be done in the future works.

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10. Appendices

10.1. Appendix 1: Universities in the research population

| Lithuania | | Latvia | | Estonia | |
|---|---------|--|---------|--------------------------------------|---------|
| Name | Sector | Name | Sector | Name | Sector |
| Vilnius University | Public | University of Latvia | Public | University of Tartu | Public |
| Kaunas University of Technology | Public | BA School of Business and Finance | Public | Tallinn University of Technology | Public |
| Mykolas Romeris University | Public | Riga International School of Economics and Business Administration | Public | Estonian University of Life Sciences | Public |
| Vilnius Gediminas Technical University | Public | Stockholm School of Economics in Riga | Private | Estonian Business School | Private |
| ISM University of Management and Economics | Private | Riga Business School at Riga Technical University | Private | University Euroacademy | Private |
| International Business School at Vilnius University | Private | School of Business Administration Turiba | Private | | |
| Vytautas Magnus University | Public | Latvia University of Agriculture | Public | | |
| Aleksandras Stulginskis University | Public | University of Daugavpils | Public | | |
| | | Riga Teacher Training and Educational Management Academy | Public | | |
| Klaipeda University | Public | The university collage of Economics and Culture | Private | | |
| Siauliai University | Public | | | | |
| Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences | Public | Transport and Telecommunication Institute | Private | | |
| LCC International | Private | Riga Technical | Public | | |

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University

Balstoges University Private

| | |
|---------------------------|--------|
| University | |
| University of Vidzeme | Public |
| University of Liepaja | Public |
| University of Vencpils | Public |
| University of Rezekne | Public |

Table 4 Universities included into population. Source: Created by the authors

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10.2. Appendix 2: Frequency table

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Country | | |
| <i>Estonia</i> | 68 | 21,5 |
| <i>Lithuania</i> | 153 | 48,4 |
| <i>Latvia</i> | 95 | 30,1 |
| University Sector | | |
| <i>Private</i> | 77 | 24,4 |
| <i>Public</i> | 239 | 75,6 |
| Position | | |
| <i>Rector</i> | - | - |
| <i>Pro-rector</i> | 3 | 0,9 |
| <i>Lector, Lecturer</i> | 169 | 53,5 |
| <i>Senior lecturer, professor</i> | 51 | 16,1 |
| <i>Researcher</i> | 4 | 1,3 |
| <i>Docent</i> | 40 | 12,7 |
| <i>Assistant</i> | 46 | 14,6 |
| <i>Other</i> | 3 | 0,9 |
| Age | | |
| <i><30</i> | 20 | 6,3 |
| <i>30-39</i> | 105 | 33,2 |
| <i>40-49</i> | 83 | 26,3 |
| <i>50-59</i> | 56 | 17,7 |
| <i>60-69</i> | 44 | 13,9 |
| <i>>70</i> | 8 | 2,5 |
| Gender | | |
| <i>Male</i> | 119 | 37,7 |
| <i>Female</i> | 197 | 62,3 |
| Tenure in university | | |
| <i>0 – 4 years</i> | 48 | 15,2 |
| <i>5 – 10 years</i> | 101 | 32,0 |
| <i>11 – 16 years</i> | 85 | 26,9 |
| <i>> 16 years</i> | 82 | 25,9 |
| Job Position Tenure | | |
| <i>< 1 year</i> | 11 | 3,5 |
| <i>1 – 4 years</i> | 104 | 32,9 |

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| | | |
|---|-----|------|
| <i>5 – 10 years</i> | 110 | 34,8 |
| <i>>11 years</i> | 91 | 28,8 |
| Level of education | | |
| <i>Bachelor's degree or equivalent</i> | 2 | ,6 |
| <i>Masters</i> | 67 | 21,2 |
| <i>Ph.D</i> | 204 | 64,6 |
| <i>Ph. D (Ongoing studies)</i> | 43 | 13,6 |
| Second Job | | |
| <i>Giving lectures in more than one HEI</i> | 49 | 15,5 |
| <i>Providing consulting services outside your HEI</i> | 48 | 15,2 |
| <i>Privately run business</i> | 31 | 9,8 |
| <i>Other</i> | 46 | 14,6 |
| <i>No second job</i> | 142 | 44,9 |

Table 5 Sample descriptive Statistics. Source: Created by the authors

10.3.Appendix 3: Cronbach's Alpha reliability test

| Index | Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha after item is deleted | Number of items |
|-------------------------------------|------------------|--|-----------------|
| Job Autonomy | 0,743 | - | 4 |
| Co-worker support | 0,842 | - | 3 |
| Supervisory support | 0,872 | - | 3 |
| Role ambiguity | 0,699 | 0,799 | 3 |
| Role conflict | 0,697 | - | 2 |
| Role overload | 0,815 | 0,835 | 2 |
| Promotional opportunities | 0,810 | - | 3 |
| Training and development | 0,820 | - | 3 |
| Pay satisfaction | 0,709 | 0,746 | 2 |
| Distributive justice | 0,904 | - | 4 |
| Feedback | 0,872 | 0,891 | 3 |
| Participation in decision making | 0,797 | 0,851 | 2 |
| Affective organizational commitment | 0,869 | 0,876 | 7 |

Table 6 Cronbach's Alpha reliability test. Source: Created by the authors

10.4. Appendix 4: Pearson correlations

Hypothesis 2

| | | The Baltics | Estonia | Lithuania | Latvia |
|---------------------|---------------------|-------------|---------|-----------|--------|
| Job_autonomy | Pearson Correlation | ,247** | ,296* | ,374** | ,078 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,014 | ,000 | ,454 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Coworker_support | Pearson Correlation | ,397** | ,485** | ,369** | ,407** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Supervisory_support | Pearson Correlation | ,389** | ,599** | ,382** | ,227* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,027 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| No_role_ambiguity | Pearson Correlation | ,460** | ,505** | ,490** | ,343** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,001 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| No_role_conflict | Pearson Correlation | ,273** | ,418** | ,237** | ,264** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,003 | ,010 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| No_role_overload | Pearson Correlation | ,140* | ,287* | ,081 | ,115 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,013 | ,018 | ,317 | ,269 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |

Table 7 Pearson Correlation Table for Hypothesis 2. Source: Created by the authors

Hypothesis 3

| | | The Baltics | Estonia | Lithuania | Latvia |
|---------------------------|---------------------|-------------|---------|-----------|--------|
| Promotional_opportunities | Pearson Correlation | ,360** | ,448** | ,433** | ,215* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,037 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Training_and_development | Pearson Correlation | ,534** | ,637** | ,497** | ,524** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Pay_satisfaction | Pearson Correlation | ,363** | ,477** | ,347** | ,350** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,001 |

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| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Distributive_justice | Pearson Correlation | ,348** | ,346** | ,311** | ,464** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,004 | ,000 | ,000 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Feedback | Pearson Correlation | ,347** | ,485** | ,338** | ,281** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,006 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |
| Participation_in_dec_making | Pearson Correlation | ,432** | ,545** | ,344** | ,508** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 |
| | N | 315 | 68 | 153 | 94 |

Table 8 Pearson Correlation Table for Hypothesis 3. Source: Created by the authors

10.5. Appendix 5: One-way ANOVA and PostHoc Scheffe tests

| | P-value | | | |
|----------------------|--------------|---------|--------------|--------------|
| | The Baltics | Estonia | Lithuania | Latvia |
| Age | 0,009 | 0,161 | 0,127 | 0,005 |
| Tenure in university | 0,000 | 0,435 | 0,001 | 0,167 |
| Tenure in position | 0,296 | 0,687 | 0,717 | 0,427 |
| Level of education | 0,301 | 0,212 | 0,249 | 0,454 |
| Second job | 0,344 | 0,508 | 0,456 | 0,334 |

Table 9 One-way ANOVA test. Source: Created by the authors

| (I) Age | (J) Age | Mean Difference (I-J) | Sig. |
|---------|---------|-----------------------|-------------|
| <30 | 30-39 | ,12988 | ,996 |
| | 40-49 | ,00941 | 1,000 |
| | 50-59 | -,35107 | ,732 |
| | 60-69 | -,17944 | ,984 |
| | >70 | ,00190 | 1,000 |
| 30-39 | 40-49 | -,12047 | ,76 |
| | 50-59 | -,48095* | ,018 |
| | 60-69 | -,30932 | ,442 |
| | >70 | -,12798 | ,999 |
| 40-49 | 50-59 | -,36048 | ,233 |
| | 60-69 | -,18885 | ,899 |
| | >70 | -,00751 | 1,000 |

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| | | | |
|-------|-------|--------|------|
| 50-59 | 60-69 | ,17163 | ,924 |
| | >70 | ,35297 | ,931 |
| 60-69 | >70 | ,18134 | ,997 |

Table 10 Post Hoc Scheffe test (grouping variable: Age, sample: Baltic States). Source: Created by the authors

| (I) Tenure | (J) Tenure | Mean Difference (I-J) | Sig. |
|------------|---------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| 0-4 | 5-10 | -,17496 | ,697 |
| | 11-15 | -,47212* | ,020 |
| | >16 | -,56260* | ,002 |
| 5-10 | 11-15 | -,29716 | ,124 |
| | >16 | -,38764* | ,016 |
| 11-15 | >16 | -,09048 | ,911 |

Table 11 Post Hoc Scheffe test (grouping variable: University tenure, sample: Baltic States). Source: Created by the authors

| (I) Tenure | (J) Tenure | Mean Difference (I-J) | Sig. |
|------------|---------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| 0-4 | 5-10 | -,23356 | ,748 |
| | 11-15 | -,58467 | ,112 |
| | >16 | -,73237* | ,007 |
| 5-10 | 11-15 | -,35112 | ,414 |
| | >16 | -,49882* | ,043 |
| 11-15 | >16 | -,14770 | ,913 |

Table 12 Post Hoc Scheffe test (grouping variable: University tenure, sample: Lithuania). Source: Created by the authors

10.6.Appendix 6: Independent sample t-tests

| | P-value | | | |
|------------------------|-------------|---------|-----------|--------|
| | The Baltics | Estonia | Lithuania | Latvia |
| Gender | 0,989 | 0,293 | 0,192 | 0,235 |
| University type | 0,421 | 0,765 | 0,831 | 0,612 |

Table 13 Independent sample t-tests. Source: Created by the authors

10.7. Appendix 7: Questionnaire

We are Year 3 students in Stockholm School of Economics in Riga. We are currently working on our BSc Thesis, the purpose of which is to identify the main determinants of organizational commitment among academic staff in Economic and Business Higher Education Institutions in the Baltic States. Because of this reason, we are kindly asking You, as an academic working in the field of business/ economics, to fill in this survey, which should not take longer than 10 minutes of your time.

This survey is being conducted in all the HEIs across the Baltic States. We assure the confidentiality since the survey is anonymous and the collected data will only be used in a generalized form and for all the HEIs as a whole, i.e. not distinguishing

The results of this study are to be shared with the HEIs, the faculty members of which take part in this research by filling in the survey.

In case any questions arise, You are more than welcome to contact us via e-mail: ukaselyte@sseriga.edu or kmalukaite@sseriga.edu

Thank you in advance.

General information

Name of your university

Job title

- ☐ *Rector*
- ☐ *Pro-rector*
- ☐ *Lecturer*
- ☐ *Senior Lecturer*
- ☐ *Researcher*
- ☐ *Professor*
- ☐ *Associate professor*
- ☐ *Assistant Professor*
- ☐ *Others (Please specify):* _____

Part 1 – Job-related factors

Please, evaluate each of the statements below, using the scale of in the scale of 5, 1 standing for **strongly disagree** and 5 - **strongly agree**.

| | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | Disagree | 4 |
| Strongly Disagree | | Agree |
| | 3 | |
| | Neither agree nor disagree | 5 |
| 2 | | Strongly agree |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I have input in deciding what tasks or part of tasks I will do | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have the freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have the opportunity for independent thought and action on my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I work pretty much by myself when performing my tasks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My co-workers are helpful in getting my job done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My co-workers provide me with important work-related information and advice that make performing my work easier | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My co-workers can be relied upon when things get tough on my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My direct supervisor cares about my opinion | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When things get tough in my job, I can rely on my direct supervisor for help | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My direct supervisor is helpful to me in getting my job done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I know what my responsibilities are in the work place | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| There is clear explanation of what has to be done in my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I receive an assignment without adequate resources or materials to carry it out | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I sometimes have to break a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I receive incompatible (mismatched) requests from two or more people at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I feel I have to do things hastily and maybe less carefully in order to get everything done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I often have to work extra hours because of staff shortage | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part 2 – HR practices

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| I have a good chance to get ahead in this university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have the opportunity for further advancement in my university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Promotions are based on how well you do your work in my university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have the opportunity to improve my skills in this university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have been well-trained by the university for my present job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The university provides support when employees decide to obtain ongoing training | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am paid a great deal of money for performing my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| I get regular salary raises in my university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I need additional income to make ends meet | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am satisfied with my pay relative (compared) to other employees in this university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am satisfied with my pay relative to other employees outside this organization with similar jobs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am rewarded fairly for the amount of effort that I put in my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am rewarded fairly considering the responsibilities I have | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I receive sufficient feedback from my supervisor on how well I am doing my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have the opportunity to find out how well I am doing on my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have adequate information to know whether I am performing my job well or poorly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The feedback that I receive agrees with what I have actually achieved in my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Employees in this university have the opportunity to have 'a say' in company policies and decisions that affect them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I believe that university management makes a positive effort to keep staff well-informed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| All important information about the university is communicated to employees | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part 3 – Affective organizational commitment

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career working in this university. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I enjoy discussing about my university with people outside it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I really feel as if this university's problems are my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I think that I could easily become as attached to another university as I am to this one. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my university. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this university. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my university | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part 4– Personal characteristics

Age

- ☐ Below 30
- ☐ 30-39
- ☐ 40-49
- ☐ 50 -59
- ☐ 60-69

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- ☐ *70 and more*

Gender

- ☐ *male*
☐ *female*

Tenure

- How many years of service do you have in your current university ?
 - ☐ *0-4*
 - ☐ *5-10*
 - ☐ *11-15*
 - ☐ *16 and more*
- How many years have you held your current position?
 - ☐ *less than 1*
 - ☐ *1-4*
 - ☐ *5-10*
 - ☐ *11 and more*

Level of education

- Please select the highest educational qualification you hold from below:
 - ☐ *Bachelor's degree or equivalent*
 - ☐ *Masters*
 - ☐ *Ph.D*
 - ☐ *Ph. D (Ongoing studies)*
 - ☐ *Others (Please specify):* _____

Second job

- Please specify if you are involved in any income generating activities such as:
 - ☐ *Giving lectures in more than one HEI*
 - ☐ *Providing consulting services outside your HEI*
 - ☐ *Privately run business*
 - ☐ *Other (please specify):* _____

