DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF PART-TIME ACADEMIC STAFF IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN NAIROBI AND MOMBASA COUNTIES IN KENYA

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2015

Determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in institutions of higher education in Nairobi and Mombasa cities in Kenya

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A research project submitted to the Entrepreneurship and Procurement Department in the College of Human Resource Development in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Human Resource Management of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

2015

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as the university supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late mother Grace Ndunge, who despite her tireless efforts to motivate me and support me in my education, never lived long enough to see and experience this end. Although she left us, her legacy lives on. To my beloved father, Simeon Kilungu, who always lamented that he did not get a chance to complete his basic education in hischildhood days, and who sacrificed all he could to ensure that I succeed in my academic life, may this work grant you some flfilment in life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this document was a concerted effort of very many persons who loved to see me complete my education, some of whom are not acknowlwdged here, but to whom all I am sincerely highly indebted.

My immeasurable gratitude to my LORD for His grace, loving kindness and sustainability to this end. Secondly, to Ruth, whose long forebearance and support behind the scenes saw me keep the momentum to the end. To Caleb, Esther and Faith, who attended my MBA graduation in 2007 and had since kept asking me when I was next scheduled to graduate; to Joshua, who rekindled the fire and kept me company when everyone else was busy, I am truly grateful.

My heart-felt gratitude to Prof. Mukulu for not only mentoring me in this journey but also for tirelessly being available to supervise my work. My thanks to Dr. Sakwa, also my supervisor who sacrificed his time advising me on things I initially considered trivial but which eventually turned out to be key in my research work. May the Lord bless them.

My gratitude also goes to the admnistration of the Technical University of Mombasa for accepting to take me on board to fully sponsor my PhD studies. I will live to remember you all. My colleagues at the Business Studies Department, for moral and academic support, I am grateful. May the LORD bless you all.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Several definitions of key terms are provided below to help clarify terminology used in this study. These definitions are listed in alphabetical order of the terminologies.

Affective commitment It is a feeling of attachment and belonging to an organization, that includes the structure of the organization, the type of work experiences, and family responsibilities. Affective commitment links employees' emotional involvement and identification with attachment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Continuance commitment Refers to the awareness of the consequences associated with leaving an organization, or the awareness of a lack of alternatives. Employees choose to remain in an organization based on continuance commitment because they need to so. (Meyer & Allen, 1997)

Normative commitment It is the obligation of employee's feeling to remain with the organization. Normative commitment could increase by receiving such benefits as advance payment for continuing education, and consideration of special needs and training (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Organizational commitment	Organizational commitment it is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization as shown by a strong belief in and acceptance of the values of the organization, a strong willingness to put in effort for the organization and the desire to remain within the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).
Part-time academic staff	these are individuals teaching/lecturing in the academic institutions on temporary contracts of employment of duration of one academic semester. In this study, these include only those from outside the permanent staff of HEIs (excludes all academic staff taking on extra workloads in their place of work. (Maynard, Thorsteinson, & Parfyonova, 2005).
Family responsibilities	These are demographic characteristics that have been one of the most studied influences of organizational commitment. Family responsibilities include in gender, education level and marital status (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

APPENDICES

ACRONYMS

AC	Affective Commitment
ACS	Affective Commitment Scale
CC	Continuance Commitment
CCS	Continuance Commitment Scale
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
CHE	Commission for Higher Education in Kenya
CUEA	Catholic University of Eastern Africa
DPM	Directorate of Personnel Management
GOK	Government of Kenya
H E	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HELB	Higher Education Loans Board
HRM	Human Resource Management
IRHEP	Independent Review of Higher Education Pay and Conditions
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
KPUC	Kenya Polytechnic University College
KU	Kenyatta University
MKU	Mount Kenya University
MPUC	Mombasa Polytechnic University College

MU	Moi University
NC	Normative Commitment
NCS	Normative Commitment Scale
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCQ	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
PUEA	Presbyterian University of Eastern Africa
RoK	Republic of Kenya
SU	Strathmore University
TCM	Three Componebnt Mode of Organizational Commitment
UK	United Kingdom
UON	University of Nairobi
USA	United States of America
USIU	United States International University

ABSTRACT

This research was set out to establish the determinants of organizational commitment among part-time academic staff in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Nairobi and Mombasa cities in Kenya.The specific objectives of the study were to find out whether family responsibilities; job-related factors; organizational factors; and economic factors affect the organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. Quantitative study design by use of survey was used for the study. The sampling technique used was muti-stage consisting of stratified, simple random and systematic sampling. Quantitative data was collected using questionnaires from 227 part-time academic staff while qualitative data was collected using interviews with 12 heads of academic departments. Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics; and qualitative methods. The relationship between variables was established using correlation analysis and while the test of factors predicting independent variable was done through regression analysis. The study concluded that the three component model of organizational commitment is applicable in Kenya as in the developed countries and that organizational commitment is much a challenge in Kenya as in other parts of the world. The findings indicate that there are three factors predicting organizational commitment: family responsibilities, job-related factors and economic factors. The study recommends that managers in HEIs in should develop and implement explicit policies relating to the management of part-time academic staff. It also recommends that part-time academics should be provided with support from supervisors and co-workers, socialization and also resources as a means of enhancing their organizational commitment

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Orgaizational commitment of part-time staff has been a subject of concern in the recent past. This is because of the increasing use of part-time staff in many sectors world over to fill in gaps left where there are not eough full-time staff. However there are fears that part-time staff may not be committed to the organization. The benefits of employee commitment to an organization may not therefore not be realised.This study therefore investigated the factors that determine the organizational commitment of academic staff in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) who are on a part-time employment contract.

The period since 1970s has experienced an enormous change in the teaching workforce in higher education worldwide (Berry, 2012). This has been caused by the increase in international competition and trends in globalization. As a result, higher education institutions have been forced to adopt managerialization as means to cope. These reforms have created new ways in which work is organized and the way people are managed (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). This has, for example, resulted in the adoption of flexible employment practices culminating in the use of part-time workers to carry out work activities. The anticipated outcomes of organizations that have adopted these flexible working arrangements were expected to be seen by way of improved operating efficiency and enhanced productivity of labour at work (Hartman & Bambacas, 2000).

The trend in human resource practices in Higher Education (HE) worldwide is towards the engagement of part-time faculty. In the United States of America, for example, between 1970 and 2003, the number of part-time faculty increased by 422%, while full-time faculty increased by only 71% (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). In the United Kingdom, the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) employed some 53% of the 134000 academic staff in 2003 (IRHEPC, 2005). This "casualization" of the academy is echoed in other reports in Europe (Enders, 2000), Australia (Kimber, 2003) and the U. S (Finkelstein, *et al.,* 1998). These statistics testify to the fact that part-time teachers make a large proportion of temporary workers in the developed world. Commentators have struggled to enumerate the real statistics in part-time working in

higher education institutions (HEIs) as these have been largely excluded from personnel records, creating an "invisible faculty" (Husbands, 1998).

In Kenya's HEIs, the universities are on record as employing a large number of part-time academic staff (CHE, 2006). Kenya's HEIs have experienced a serious full-time staff shortage due to implementation of the government policy to improve access to Higher Education as articulated in Kenya's Vision 2030 (ROK, 2009). The seven public universities in Kenya since shoulder 13 constituent colleges, not to mention the over 20 branches of such universities spread out in all the major towns in Kenya. The private universities in Kenya on the other hand have tended to rely heavily on part-time faculty who are full-time faculty in public universities. Over 80% of the 85 part-time lecturers in United States International University (ISIU) in Kenya in 2006 were, for example, drawn from the public universities (CHE, 2006).

The use of part-time academic staff in HEIs has raised serious concerns about their commitment and performance. One very general and old assumption about part-timers in relation to their commitment has been that part-timers are less committed (Pfeiffer, 1994). This assumption led to increased interest among researchers to find out about commitment of part-timers at work. Commitment studies have received a great deal of attention in business and organizational studies since 1960s (Chuan, 2005). It has been extensively studied across various occupational groups including both teaching and non-teaching professions over the last five decades. Among the international studies conducted in non-teaching professionals, research on commitment has covered the commitment of accountants (Ketchard & Strawser, 2001); hospital employees (Somer & Birnaum, 2000); sales people (Mathieu, 2000) and telecom employees (Serminah, 2000). Studies on the commitment of teachers have also been numerous. Some of them include commitment of kindergarten teachers (Seifert & Atkinson, 1991); primary school teachers (Xin & MacMillan, 1999); secondary school teachers (Darchan, 1998); tertiary academic staff (Hartman, 2000) and university teachers (Kipkebut, 2010; Umbach, 2008; Munene & Kagaari, 2007; Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Zafar & Chunghtai, 2006; Teahen & Barchers, 2005).

Based on a review on past studies on commitment, it implies that studies on commitment have been extensively carried out by many previous researchers, both in education and non-education settings both locally and internationally. Such an

extensive exploration of the commitment research has also provided clear evidence that commitment has been a topic of increasing public and professional concern, both inside and outside the HRM (Human Resource Management) domains. An in-depth examination of past studies on commitment of teachers reveals diverse foci on the subject. Firstly, most studies have focused on commitment of employees to the working organization (Kipkebut, 2010; Smeenk *et al.*,2009; Gaylor, 2006; Laka-Mathambula, 2004; Borchers, 2002). However, few studies have investigated commitment of staff towards their profession (Bergmann, *et al.,* 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

In the field of education, commitment to the teaching profession is becoming increasingly more important than organizational commitment or commitment to the employing school, university or division. Secondly, literature review has also indicated a big imbalance in the attention given to studies on commitment of teachers. Most researchers have viewed commitment as a unidimensional construct with a strong emphasis on affective commitment (Mathieu *et al.,* 2002; Eby & Freeman, 1999; Mueller, *et al.,* 1999; Wu Short, 1996). This conceptualization however represents a simplistic thinking which has been challenged, and should be abandoned (Benkhoff, 1997). Hence, in the teaching profession, it would be potentially important to find out the three different types of commitment according to Allen and Meyer's (1990) model on organizational commitment. These types are the affective, normative and continuance commitment. Thirdly, most studies on commitment of teachers (even part-timers in general) have been extensively conducted by researchers in the western countries (e.g. Eagan *et al.,* 2009; Dooreward *et al.,* 2009; Umbach, 2008; Tabuso, 2007;Gaylor, 2006; Borchers, 2002).

Organizational commitment has become an important research topic having both practical and theoretical implications. Organizations are intended to have more highly committed workforce because research results show that organizational commitment leads to important outcomes such as decreased turnover, higher motivation, higher organizational citizenship behaviour and organizational support (Kwon & Banks, 2004). This area has, however, been affected by both conceptual and methodological uncertainties and controversies concerning the nature of organization commitment as a construct of study. These controversies and

uncertainties seem to have created renewed interests and discussions by both academicians and practitioners on the topic.

As a result of the changing times, new ways in which work is organized and the way people are managed have been identified and adopted (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). This is, for example, evident in the adoption of flexible employment practices which has resulted in the use of temporary casual workers to carry out work activities. The anticipated outcomes of organizations that have adopted flexible working were expected to be improved operating efficiency and enhanced productivity of labour at work (Hartman & Bambacas, 2000). The flexible working situation has however created short term employment contracts and a sense of employee insecurity at work. This has resulted in a new wave of researches focusing on the level of employee commitment that can be gained in such a less secure working environment (e.g Mc Clurg1999; Hartman & Bambacas, 2000; Gallagher & Sverice, 2005). The use of part-time work has hence become very popular in the last one decade. This has even found its way in the public service world over as was with the adoption private sector models like performance management. Organizational commitment is seen as an important intervention both in public and private sectors because of its potential effect on employee's identification with the organization (Jaramilio, 2005; Van Brengel, 2005) to achieve both individual and organizational goals.

In Kenya's education sector, for example, use of part-time teachers to achieve the Free Primary Education has been explored. The public and private universities in Kenya are also in record as having a large number of casual academic staff (CHE, 2006). The academic staff shortages in universities in Kenya has been worsened by a rapid expansion stimulated by a desire to improved access to higher education as spelt out in Kenya's Vision 2030 (GOK, 2009). The seven public universities in Kenya since shoulder an extra 13 constituent colleges not to mention the branches of such universities in every city or region that currently compete with the constituent colleges.This scenario has challenges to managers/supervisors that have to handle an equal or double the number of part-time academic staff as compared to the regular staff. One very general assumption about part-timers in relation to their commitment is that part-timers are less committed (Pfeiffer, 1994). This would in effect imply that part-time staff has "part-time" commitment to the organization. Meyer and Allen's multidimensional model of commitment representing the affective, normative and

continuance commitment has been used to understand the antecedents and effects organizational commitment of part-time academics elsewhere (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). Three sets of factors have been explored as to their impact on commitment: family responsibilities such as age, gender, education, marital status and family responsibilities; job-related factors such as supervisory support, co-worker support, access to resources and role clarity; organization- related factors such as tenure and post-graduate study at the employing university. The findings of such studies have established certain factors as affecting part-time academics commitment in the developed economies.

A study by Umbach (2008) on effects of part-time faculty appointments on commitment to teaching suggest a number of factors, which, when introduced at work can increase commitment. These factors include benefits (economic), regular performance reviews, instructional support, professional development and equitable pay. The study also recommends that part-time faculty be allowed to participate in campus governance and curriculum development. Several researches have also been carried out in line with this thought on the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment among part-time faculty (Lebatmediene, Endriulaitiene & Gustainiene, 2007; Park & Joo, 2010; Suliman, 2002; Bakalis & Joiner, 2007). In all these studies, organizational commitment has been found to be influenced by the same sets of factors namely family responsibilities, job characteristics, organizational factors, work experience and economic factors.

These studies have also given useful findings to this study by shedding light on the previous empirically established relationships between the factors and organizational commitment. In the first instance, there is no correlation between personality traits and commitment (Suliman, 2002). Secondly, men and women (sex) has been found to have the same effect on general commitment, continuance and normative commitment (Lebatmediene & Gustainiene, 2007). Age was found to have a positive correlation with general organizational and continuance commitment. Higher levels of education were found to be associated with lower levels of commitment. Job characteristics and organizational factors were positively correlated with continuance commitment.

However, such studies cite a limitation of area of study and the cultural peculiarities which have potential to limit generalization of the findings across diverse cultures. It is, therefore, imperative that organizations using part-timers need to clearly understand the behavioural dynamics of part-timers in relation to attitudes towards work and intention to stay or to leave. Such an understanding, when integrated into the human resource systems would, is of great value in the selection of part-timers and their subsequent motivation. This study, therefore, intends to establish which of the same set of factors influence the organizational commitment of part-time academics working in HEIs in Kenya.

Overview of Higher Education in Kenya

Higher education in Kenya can be traced to then Makerere College in Uganda, founded in 1922 during the British colonial rule as a Technical college for African students from the three East African countries, namely; Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika, presently Tanzania. The first Kenyan higher education institution was the Royal Technical College of East Africa established in Nairobi in 1951 through a Royal Charter and admitted its first students in 1956.

Soon after Kenya attained independence, the Royal College Nairobi was renamed University College, Nairobi, and joined Dar es Salaam University College, Tanzania and Makerere University College to form the Federal University of East Africa. These constituent colleges continued to offer courses leading to the award of degrees of the Federal University of East Africa until 1970 when it was dissolved due to national pressures mainly from Kenya and Tanzania, with each of the three countries establishing their own national universities through their respective Acts of Parliament (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Consequently, the University of Nairobi became Kenya's first fully-fledged university through an Act of Parliament (UON, 2007; Sifuna, 1997). Kenyatta College, then a diploma awarding college of education a few kilometres outside Nairobi, became a constituent college of University of Nairobi under the name Kenyatta University College. The University of Nairobi has since grown to be the largest university in Eastern and Central Africa (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). From 1980, there has been a significant expansion of public universities in response to increased demand for university education.As a result the

number of public universities grew from 1 to 7 in 2007 (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). At the same time, there were 23 private universities, out of which 11were fully-chartered and 12 operating with letters of interim authority or certificates of registration from the Commission of Higher Education (CHE, 2008; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). As at 2013, Kenya's higher education had a record of 42 chartered universities (CHE, 2014).

The biggest challenge occasioned by the expansion in education in Kenya was the shortage of teaching staff. This was so severe that universities were forced to recruit from each other, resulting in total disregard of their recruitment and selection criteria. This recruitment vendetta came to be known as 'poaching' with the most vulnerable lecturers being those who had not been promoted by their respective universities either because they did not meet the requirements for promotion or because there were no available positions in the establishment. The universities also began to recruit inexperienced personnel with masters' degrees directly from universities, teacher training colleges, polytechnic, other middle level colleges and research institutions as full-time and part-time staff.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Past studies provide evidence to show that organizational commitment has been a topic of increasing public and professional concern, both inside and outside Human Resource Management domains. The expansion of university education in Kenya (Kipkebut, 2010) for example, coupled with reduced direct government funding for HEIs (CHE, 2006) has left the local public HEIs with little choices but to resort to use of part-time academics. The overreliance part-time academics have created challenges with regard to management of such staff among Human Resource practitioners and line managers in charge of academic departments.

The rise in the use of part-time academics staff has raised uncertainties and fears among stakeholders as to the quality of delivery of part-time academics owing to an implied notion that "part-time academics have part-time commitment to teaching" (Pfeiffer, 2010, 21). Such a notion and fear has created a new wave of debates in Kenya (Commission for Higher Education, 2010; Muindi, 2010) on the determinants

of organizational commitmtment of part-time staff. The research problem identified, which has created a need to this study, is that most studies on determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics have been conducted by researchers in the context of Western and developed economies (e.g. Eagan *et al.*, 2009; Dooreward *et al.*, 2009; Umbach, 2008; Tabuso, 2007; Gaylor, 2006; Borchers, 2002). A small number of studies on commitment of part-time faculty have been carried out in Eastern and the developing country contexts (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). There is a dearth of information on organizational commitment of part-time academics arising from the African context. Indeed, there is no study (as far as the researcher was able to establish from a review of available previous studies) on the organization commitment of part-time academics in Kenya.

The lack of information on organizational commitment of part-time academics creates a gap in knowledge on the determinants of organizational commitment ofsuch an increasingly rising number of staff arising from the African context. The aim of this study therefore is to esablish the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics in HEIs in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this research was to establish the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics in selected Higher Education Institutions in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this research were:

a) To find out the effect of family responsibilities on organizational commitment of part-time academics in Higher Education Institutions in Kenya

b) To determine the effect of job-related factors on the organizational commitment of part-time academics in Higher Education Institutions in Kenya

c) To assess the effect of economic factors on the organizational commitment of part-time academics in Higher Education Institutions in Kenya.

d) To establish the effect of organizational factors on the organizational commitment of part-time academics in Higher Education Institutions in Kenya.

1.4 Hypothesis

This study was guided by the following hypotheses derved from an an empirical analysis of the factors:

H_1 : Family responsibilities influences organizational commitment

H_2 : Job-related factors positively influence to organizational commitment.

H_3 : Economic factors positively influence organizational commitment.

H_4 : Organizational factors positively influence organizational commitment.

1.5 Justification of the study

Several reasons were advanced as a justification of the significance of the findings of this study. First, there have been few studies on part-timers in organizations (Feldman, 1990) despite the fact that many managers are experiencing enormous problems of managing large numbers of part-time staff. Second, it will offer managers who want to manage the human resources in organizations in more understanding on how part-time work affects organizational behaviours. By identifying factors that help to foster organizational commitment among university academics, this study findings provide guidelines to education managers necessary to develop policies which would enable them to attract and retain top level faculty at their respective HEIs. Third and specifically, it offers address two fundamental questions in human resource management: what qualities should managers look for in prospective candidates who seek for employment as part-timers in a university? What

structures and processes should be put in place to increase the commitment of part-time academic staff? Hopefully, the findings of this study are of value as a basis for policy formulation on use of part-time academics in HEIs in Kenya. The findings of this study are similarly offer some basis for comparative studies between local and international research findings on the aspects of part-time academics in HEIs.

1.6 Scope

This was a study on selected HEIs in Kenya. The study specifically focused on public and private universities in Nairobi City and Mombasa Municipality in Kenya. These two cities have been selected as they have been centres for proliferation of university colleges, campuses and branches of almost all HEIs in Kenya. It is in these two cities where the use of part-time academics has been heavily used to run academic programmes. Hence, the behaviour and opinions of samples collected from these two cities would be representative of the part-time faculty elsewhere in the country. Post- secondary school institutions like private commercial colleges, tertiary colleges, teacher training colleges, and national polytechnics were excluded from this study.

The construct of organizational commitment is quite complex and multifaceted. It can focus on staff from a particular sector or any sector. It can also focus on all the staff in an organization; or full-time staff in that organization; or part-time staff in the same organization. This study focused on the organizational commitment of part-time academics only. Hence, the study did not concern itself with pure full-time academic or non-academic staff in the selected institutions. Additionally, the study did not focus on professional commitment of the respondents or performance of the respondents. Neither did this study seek the opinions of students or other stakeholders in the sector as a means of measuring commitment of part-time staff in the selected HEIs.

Studies also tend to be specific with regard to study methodologies employed. Organizational commitment studies have been carried out using a number of diverse methodologies. The study method used was a survey. This study was neither a longitudinal nor a time series one. The responses only represent the measurements of

the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics as at the time the respondents were be surveyed.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The researcher encountered a number of challenges related to the research ; however the limitations did not have a significant interference with the outcome of the study. The first limitation was the geographical spread of the HEIs in Kenya, making access difficult. Secondly, some of the respondents found it difficult to fill the questionnaire because they felt giving the information required might jeopardize their jobs; however this was overcome by assurance that the information will not be divulged and is for academic purpose.The study did not obtain 100% response rate due to unwillingness and unavailability of some targeted respondents given the nature of information to be collected.

Another limitation was that the study was conducted on premise that all HEIs have the same structures and terms forpart-time academics they engage. This did not pose a big threat to the findings as most of them seemed tobe teaching in mre than one HEI. Individual respondents also differ in their perception therefore making generalization on responses a limitation. The results for this study were self-reporting. This assumed that the responses were factual and that they were actually given by the target group. The questionnaire design and results depend on employees perception which has been implemented in order to determine the possibilty of being determinantsof organizational commitment.. Use of self-administered questionnaires is also a limiting factor in terms of understanding of the questions for which answers were being sought. However to some extent the risks involved were reduced by use of multiple informants from each of the participating institutions.

The conceptual underpinning of the research came from studies conducted in the western and developed world context. In view that the culture and human behavior differ from country to country further studies should be carried out in developing countries context. To overcome this challenge, a factor analysis was carried out and the three-factor modelwas tested giving rise to a set of empirically tested variables.The other challenges faced was resource limitations during the entire period

of the research ranging from time, finances and technical support during the data analysis and thesis development. The study focused on HEIs inNairobi nad Mombasa counties, which are quite a distant apart.. The researcher had to hire assistant researchers; who had to be trained first, to assist in data collection.Despite the limitations experience the quality of the study was not compromised. The study was designed in highly scientific manner following a thorough literature and theoretical review. The study was rigorous in its approach analysis, interpretation and reporting of the findings. The implications discussed did not therefore have any material effect on the results and findings of the study

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews both empirical and theoretical literature on the key dependent variable of the study namely: organisational commitment. It discusses the relationships between the independent variables that is, family responsibilities, job characteristics, organizational factors and economic characteristics, with organizational commitment as identified in previous studies. Theoretical frameworks are important tools in research as they help researches focus and ground their research questions (Murphy, 2009). In addition theoretical frameworks are useful as they provide the context and the structure to guide the research.

2.2 Theoretical approaches to organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has been studied from different perspectives by various researchers. Some studies have used the social exchange theory to explain organisational commitment while others have used the attitudinal or behavioural approach. Some researchers, however, have claimed that organisational commitment cannot be studied without considering its multidimensional nature (Reichers, 1985). These different approaches to the study of organisational commitment are discussed below.

2.2.1 Social exchange theory

The exchange perspective views the employment relationship as consisting of social or economic exchanges (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002; Cropanzano, Rupp and Bryne, 2003). Economic exchange relationships involve the exchange of economic benefits in return for employees' effort and are often dependent on formal

contracts which are legally enforceable. On the other hand, social exchanges are 'voluntary actions' which may be initiated by an organisation's treatment of its employees, with the expectation that the employees will be obligated to reciprocate the good deeds of the organisation (Aryee, *et al.,* 2002; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005).

The exchange approach view of organisational commitment posits that individuals attach themselves to their organisations in return for certain rewards from the organisations (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Steers, 1977; Mowday *et al.,* 1982; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981). According to this view, employees enter organisations with specific skills, desires and goals, and expect to find an environment where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires and achieve their goals. Perceptions of favourable exchange/rewards from the employees' viewpoint are expected to result in increased commitment to the organisation. Similarly, the more abundant the perceived rewards in relation to costs, the greater the organizational commitment. On the other hand, failure by the organisation to provide sufficient rewards in exchange for the employees' efforts is likely to result in decreased organisational commitment. This perspective is consistent with Becker's idea of calculative commitment where individuals' commitment to the organisation is in part, a function of accumulated investments.

From the perspective of the employee-employer relationship, social exchange theory suggests that employees respond to perceived favourable working conditions by behaving in ways that benefit the organisation and/or other employees. Equally, employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in negative work attitudes, such as absenteeism, lateness, tardiness or preparing to quit the organization (Haar, 2006; Crede *et al.,* 2007). It is therefore, expected that employees who perceive their working conditions to be negative and distressing, would reciprocate with negative work attitudes such job dissatisfaction, low morale and reduced organisational commitment, while those who perceive the workplace conditions as positive and challenging would reciprocate with positive work attitudes, such as high commitment, job satisfaction and low turnover (Cropanzano *et al.,* 2003; Crede *et al.,* 2007).

Another perspective of the social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity which is based on two assumptions: "(a) people should help those who have helped them, and (b) people should not injure those who have helped them" (Gouldner, 2006, p. 171). Therefore, employees who perceive that the organisation values and treats them fairly will feel obligated to "pay back" or reciprocate these good deeds with positive work attitudes and behaviours (Aryee *et al.,* 2002; Gould-Williams & Davies, 20). Studies have suggested that the norm of reciprocity is taught as a moral obligation and then internalised by both parties (i.e. employees and employers) in an exchange relationship such that whoever receives a benefit feels obligated to repay it (Gouldner, 2006; Liden, Wayne, Kraimer & Sparrowe, 2003; Parzefall, 2008). This suggests that employees, who perform enriched jobs devoid of stress, receive attractive pay, job security and fair treatment from the organisation, are bound to express their gratitude for the support received by increasing their commitment to their organisation. In summary, therefore, the exchange theory posits that commitment develops as aresult of an employee's satisfaction with the rewards and inducements the organization offers, rewards that must be sacrificed if the employee leaves the organisation.

2.2.2 Attitudinal commitment approach

This approach perceives commitment as an individual's psychological attachment to the organisation. Consistent with the unitarist values and philosophy of human resource management, attitudinal commitment posits that employees' values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation (Mowday *et al.*,1982; Armstrong, 2003). This approach, now commonly referred to as affective commitment, has dominated most of organisational commitment research for more than three decades (Buchanan, 1974a; Porter *et al..,* 1974; Mowday *et al.*,1982). Brown (1996) refers to it as a "set of strong, positive attitudes towards the organization manifested by dedication to goals and shared sense of values" while Porter *et al.,* (1974) defines it as:

> "… the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. Such commitment can generally be characterised by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort

on behalf of the organisation; (c) a definite desire to maintain organisational membership." (p.604).

Meyer and Allen (1991) defined it as an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. These definitions view organisational commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between the employees and the organisation. The resulting outcomes are increased work performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced turnover (Scholl, 1981). Attitudinal commitment was measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) designed by Porter *et al.*, (1974). Attitudinal commitment evolves as a result of the exchange processes between an individual employee and the employing organization.

According to the exchange perspective, employees exchange their identification, loyalty and attachment to the organisation in return for incentives from the organisation (Angle & Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977; Mowday, 1982). This implies that an individual's decision to become and remain a member of an organisation is determined by their perception of the fairness of the balance of organisational inducements and employee contribution. This approach therefore assumes that the employee develops attitudinal commitment when they perceive that their expectations are being met by the organisation.

Another dimension in explaining organizational commitment was proposed by Wiener (1982). Wiener argues that an employee's commitment could be as a result of internalised normative pressures such as personal moral standards, and not rewards or punishments. Employees with strong normative commitment may feel a deep seated obligation "to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421). Marsh and Mannari (1977, p. 59) describe an employee with lifetime commitment as one who "considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him over the years". Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organisation because they feel they *ought* to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to this approach, an employee willingly maintains membership purely for the sake of the organisation without asking for anything in return. Wiener (1982, p.421) states that employees exhibit this positive behaviour because "they believe it is the 'right' and moral thing

to do". These feelings of obligation to remain with an organisation result primarily from the internalisation of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into an organisation (familial or cultural socialisation) or following entry into the organisation (organisation socialisation) and not through rewards or inducements (Wiener, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Feelings of indebtedness may also arise from an organisation's providing certain benefits such as tuition reimbursement or training.

This feeling of obligation may continue until the employee feels that he or she has "paid back" the debt (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Wiener's proposal, which stresses identification and loyalty to the organisation, has added a new dimension to the understanding of attitudinal commitment. Whereas in affective/attitudinal commitment an individual is attached to the organisation's goals and values, normative commitment arises from the congruency of the individual's and the organisation's goals and values, which aim to make the individual to be obligated to the organisation (Suliman & Iles, 2000b). Wiener (1982) further states that commitment increases when the internalised beliefs of an employee are consistent with the organisation's missions, goals, policies and style of operation. Studies that have used Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective and normative commitment scales have revealed that the two approaches have an inherent psychological overlap and that it may not be possible to feel a strong obligation to an organisation without also developing positive emotional feelings for it (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky, 2002; Jaros, 2007).

2.2.3 The behavioural approach

The behavioural approach views commitment as being purely instrumental and not psychological (Becker, 2006; Stevens *et al.*,1978). The assumption of this approach is that employees retain their membership with an organisation because the perceived cost of doing otherwise is likely to be high. Mowday *et al.* (1982, p. 26) has defined behavioural commitment as the "process by which individuals become locked into an organisation and how they deal with this problem". This approach is now referred to as continuance commitment. This approach developed from Howard

Becker's studies in 1960 which described commitment as a disposition to engage in "consistent line of activity" (namely maintaining membership in the organisation) resulting from the accumulation of 'sidebets' which would be lost if the activity was discontinued (Becker, 2006, p. 33).

Kanter (1998, p. 504) referred to it as "profit associated with continued participation and 'cost' associated with leaving" the organisation. In this regard, commitment arises from the accumulation of some investments or "side-bets" tying the individual to aspecific organisation, which would otherwise be lost if the activity or membership to the organisation were discontinued. Becker (2006) argues that over a period of time, certain costs accrue which make it more difficult for the person to disengage from a course of activity such as working for a particular organisation or pursuing a certain occupational career. The greater the costs and investments which accrue, the more difficult disengagement becomes. He termed these costs as "side-bets". These "side bets" or investments may relate to one's education, marital status, promotion, and pension fund, organisational specific skills and other factors which may be perceived as rewards or sunk costs in the particular organisation, hence rendering other job opportunities unacceptable. According to this approach, individuals may be unwilling to quit their organisations lest they be perceived as "job hoppers" (Reichers, 1985). Employees therefore make side bets by staking their reputation for stability on the decision to remain in the organisation. Organisations have also been found to make side bets for employees using practices that lock them into continued membership in the organisation through rapid promotion, non-investment pension plans, organisation-specific training among others.

However, Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson (1989) caution that such tactics by the organisation may not instil in employees the desire to contribute to organisational effectiveness. Instead, some employees may find that they have little desire to remain with the organisation but cannot afford to do otherwise. Such employees may be motivated to do little more than perform at the minimum level required to maintain the job they have become dependent on. Organisations should therefore foster affective commitment in their employees rather than continuance commitment since employees who value their association with the organisation will not only remain in the organisation but work towards its success.

The case of part-time academics tends to be difficult to assess on the basis of normative commitment. This is because part-time academics, for example, have no such benefits as promotion, non-investment pension plans, or even organisation-specific training. This commitment can only be looked at in areas like desire to do a professional job in delivery at work, upholding of the values of the organization and continued service. This is however threatened in instances where the managers have the tendency to replace members after a certain working duration or in case of changes in leadership in the department or institution.

The attitudinal, normative and behavioural approaches to commitment represent what is now referred to as affective, normative and continuance commitment in the contemporary commitment literature. The attitudinal and normative approach describes commitment as an emotional attachment, involvement, identification and loyalty that the employee has towards the organisation while behavioural commitment relates to an employee's evaluation of the costs likely to be incurred by leaving the organisation. Most of the commitment literature advocates for the attitudinal (affective) commitment which inculcates desirable work attitudes in the employees. Such employees are predicted to be high performers, register less absenteeism and turnover less (Meyer & Allen, 1997). On the other hand, behavioural (continuance) commitment has been criticised for failing to lead to positive work attitudes since the employee only retains membership with the organisation to safeguard their investments (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Although past researchers conceptualised organisational commitment as a unidimensional construct, studies have shown that it is a multidimensional construct (Reichers, 1985; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.2.4 Multi-dimensional Approach

Interest in the study of the multidimensionality of organisational commitment has been as a result of two factors. Firstly, previous studies on organisational commitment have been criticised for failing to investigate commitment as a construct that is distinct from other psychological concepts (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This

is despite studies showing that one's commitment to an organisation can result from value congruence, financial investments, effective reward and control systems or a simple lack of opportunities (Becker, 2006; Wiener, 1982). Secondly, although attitudinal or behavioural approaches explained different concepts of commitment (i.e. psychological attachment, loyalty and costs attached to leaving the organisation), Mowday *et al.,.,.* (1982) found that the two approaches were not mutually exclusive but interrelated. According to Mowday and colleagues, there is an ongoing cyclical relationship between these two types of commitment whereby high levels of attitudinal commitment leads to committing behaviours which in turn reinforce commitment attitudes.

Similarly, Coopey and Hartley (1991) suggest that the two approaches could be integrated into a single approach which recognises that commitment can develop either through affect or through behaviour and that each may reinforce the other. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) also report that the two approaches are not entirely distinguishable concepts and that the measurement of each contains elements of the other. For instance, an employee may be drawn into the organisation for exchange reasons (calculative commitment) but later develop attitudes consistent with maintaining membership (attitudinal commitment). Alternatively, a person might join an organisation because of attitudinal commitment but continue to stay because of accumulated "side-bets" resulting in calculative commitment (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). In their support for the inter-relationship between attitudinal and behavioural commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) report that, unlike Porter and colleagues who restricted commitment to reflect only a psychological state,

> "they… incorporate both the attitudinal and behavioural approach and their complementary relationship... that this psychological state need not be restricted to value and goal congruence ... that it can reflect a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organisation (p. 62)."

Although studies on the multidimensionality of organisational commitment began to gain prominence from the early 1990s, its roots date back to work done by Kelman (1998) on attitude change. Kelman argues that an individual can accept influence in three different ways. First, compliance, which occurs when "an individual accepts influence because he hopes to achieve a favourable reaction from another

person or group" (p.53). In this case, the individual adopts the behaviour in order to gain specific rewards or approval but not necessarily because he/she shares in the goals or beliefs of the organisation.This is similar to continuance commitment.

Second, identification which occurs when "an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another person or group" (p.53). This means that an individual may feel proud to be a part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments. This is similar to affective commitment. Third, internalisation which occurs when "an individual accepts influence because the content of the induced behaviour-the ideas and actions of which it is composed - is intrinsically rewarding. He adopts the induced behaviour because it is congruent with his value system" (p. 53). The individual accepts the influence because it is similar to his/her own values. This is similar to normative commitment. Identification and internalisation dimensions of commitment are similar as they concern employees'psychological state and value systems. Although Kelman's research generated interesting ideas on employees' behaviour, researchers did not follow up on this line of thought until three decades later.

The first study that explored the multidimensionality of organisational commitment was carried out by Meyer and Allen (1984) who adopted Becker's (2006) "side-bet" theory by introducing the concept of continuance commitment alongside the concept of affective commitment. Reichers (1985), in a review of 32 commitment studies, did not find a consistent definition of commitment. However, from these studies, Reichers (1985, p 468) classified commitment into three categories. First, "side-bets" which suggest that organisational commitment is a function of the rewards and costs associated with organisational membership. These typically increase as tenure in the organisation increases. Second, attributions whereby commitment is a binding of the individual to behavioural acts that results when individuals attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviours that are volitional, explicit and irrevocable. Third, individual/organisational goal congruence where commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend effort towards organisational goals and values.

In addition, Reichers (1985) found that organisations comprised various "coalitions and constituencies" (such as top management, work groups, co-workers,

supervisors, customers/clients) each with its own goals and values that may or may not be compatible with the goals of the organisation. As a result, organisational commitment can best be understood as a collection of multiple commitments to the goal orientations of multiple work groups that constitute the organisation. Reicher's review provided guidelines for the future direction on the study of multidimensionality of organisational commitment by categorising commitment into three dimensions. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) who adapted Kelman's (1998) work on attitude and behavioural change, argued that although commitment reflected the psychological bond that ties the employee to the organisation, this bond can take three distinct forms, namely, compliance, identification and internalisation. According to O'Reilly and Chatman (p.493) compliance occurs simply to gain specific rewards and not because of shared beliefs; internalisation occurs when the values of the individual and the organisation are the same; and identification arises from being part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments without the individual adopting them as his or her own. The study found that identification and internalisation were negatively related to turnover intentions, while compliance was positively related to employee turnover. Following up on Meyer and Allen's (1984) study, McGee and Ford (1987) found that continuance commitment was bi-dimensional consisting of 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'.

The current development in multidimensional commitment is credited to studies carried out by Allen and Meyer (1990). From a review of several organizational commitment studies, they concluded that it consisted of three general themes namely; affective attachment to the organisation; perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation; and obligation to remain with the organisation. These themes became known as affective, continuance and normative commitment respectively. According to Allen and Meyer (1990),

> "the 'net sum' of a person's commitment to the organisation … reflects each of these separable psychological states" since an employee can experience each of these psychological states with varying degrees, for instance, a strong need and obligation to remain in the organisation but no desire to do so" (pp 4).

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed measurement scales (OCQ) for organizational commitment which consisted of 24 items measuring the three

components of commitment (eight items for each) and had acceptable internal consistency (i.e. Cronbach alpha coefficient) for each dimension as follows: Affective Commitment Scales (ACS) α = 0.87; Continuance Commitment Scales (CCS) α = 0.75; and Normative Commitment Scales (NCS) α = 0.79. CCS was found to be independent ofACS and NCS while ACS and NCS were significantly correlated. Allen and Meyer also found that the link between commitment and on-the-job behaviour such as turnover varied depending on each form of commitment. They concluded that this distinction would enable organisations to predict which of their employees were likely to remain in the organisation and contribute effectively to its success and those who were likely to remain and contribute little.

Although Allen and Meyer's (1990) 24-item commitment scales have been used extensively, concerns were raised about the high correlations between affective and normative commitment with some researchers questioning the logic of retaining normative commitment as a separate scale (Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997). In an attempt to clarify the distinction between affective and normative commitment, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) revised all the three scales resulting in the reduction of the scale items from eight to six items per dimension. The revision of the normative commitment scale was most extensive as it had originally been designed to capture Wiener's (1982) work on the internalisation of social or cultural pressures about loyalty rather than employees obligation to the organization regardless of the origin of this obligation (Meyer *et al.*,., 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Jaros, 2007). However, despite this revision, Meyer *et al.,* (2002) found that the correlations between affective and normative commitment in the original 8-items (p = .54) and the revised six-item scales ($p12$ = .77) were still considerably high.

Since the development of the multidimensional commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990), various studies in American and other Western contexts have been carried out using the three-dimensional organisational commitment measures (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein & Delhaise, 2001; Meyer *et al.,* 2002). This approach is also increasingly gaining support in various non-Western cultural contexts (Suliman & Iles, 2000; Ko *et al.,* 1999; Wasti, 2003; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). Some researchers have suggested that this development is likely to bring to an end the disappointing and inconsistent results often reported in

organisational commitment research (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Brown, 1996; Suliman & Iles, 2000b).

Several other studies have identified and measured different forms of commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Jaros *et al.*, 1993). For example, Jaros *et al.*, (1993) referred to the three dimensions of commitment as affective, moral and continuance commitment while Mathieu and Zajac (1990) referred to two dimensions of commitment as attitudinal and calculative commitment. The use ofdifferent labels and measurement scales to examine similar commitment constructs (e.g. calculative commitment and continuance commitment) is likely to cause confusion and give inconsistent results. Consequently, Meyer and Allen (1997) have advised researchers to be aware of the differences in the conceptualisation and 12 p = weighted average corrected correlation measurement of organisational commitment.

In summary, research studies have shown that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct. For the purpose of this research, organizational commitment consists of three dimensions, namely; affective commitment which reflects employees' psychological attachment and identification with their universities; normative commitment which reflects loyalty and moral obligation to remain in the university; and continuance commitment which is the recognition of the costs associated with leaving the university.

2.2.6 Empirical studies on organizational commitment in HEIs across the globe

Research on organizational commitment of part-time academics has been carried out extensively in the world (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Borchers, 2004 ; Shaw & Ogilvie, 2010; Eakan & Jaeger, 2008; Umbach, 2008; Hooten et.al, 2009; Bryson & Blackwell, 2006; Chuan, 2005; Chungtai & Zafar, 2006; Brandt et.al, 2008; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Kipkebut,2010). A study by Borchers (2004) set out in the US was carried out to test whether organizational commitment differed between full-time and part-time academics. The findings of the study indicated no significant difference between the two groups. This study the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday *et. al.*, (1979). A similar study in US by Eagan and Jaegar (2008) on the effect of exposure of students to part-time faculty on students' transfers out of the college to other colleges found that students were less likely to transfer on

account of part-time faculty increases. This study was focussing more on the goals and expectations of students as important stakeholders in higher education. This is one aspect especially which tend to attract a lot of criticism as to whether part-time academics are qualified to teach, and whether they can offer quality that can retain the students in college. The above two studies were however focussed on the effects of use of part-time academics in higher education.

The European continent has also not been left behind in research with regard to part-time academics in higher education. Shaw and Ogilvie (2010) carried out a study in the UK on the effect of part-time work on undergraduate work-based learning. The study established that part-time working by students can enhance learning in the college. The issue of temporary workers in the UK higher education was researched by Bryson and Blackwell (2006). In this study was set out to find out the effect of hourly-paid part-time teaching in the UK higher education sector had any effects on strategic value addition. The study found out that differentiation in the workforce through the inclusion and use of part-time academics failed to address the aspirations of employees and created tensions between institutional strategy and the needs of academic heads. This study helped to highlight the many categories of part-time academics engaged in UK.

A study on the factors affecting organizational commitment among Dutch university employees (Smeenk et.al, 2006) opened a new focus of studies on organizational commitment in higher education. The findings of this study, based on an analysis of Web survey data showed that participation, social interaction and job level were the most significant factors affecting organizational commitment of staff. These are what we now come to identify as job-related and organizational-related factors in this study. The study also established that in a faculty that practised hegemonic orientation with regard to its staff, such factors as age, level of autonomy, working hours, and social involvement significantly affected employees" organizational commitment. The study however cites a weakness of possibility of generalization of such findings to other countries. This creates a need for replication of the study not only in other European countries but also in specific Asian and African countries.

The studies carried out in Asia and Australia seems to render more specific focus on the debate on part-time academics and organizational commitment. A research by Chunghtai and Zafar (2006) set out to determine if selected family responsibilities and a set of other factors had effects on organizational commitment of Pakistan university teachers. Although the findings indicated that family responsibilities had significant effects on organizational commitment, the inclusion of the other factors relating to distributive and procedural justice caused the findings to have limited application as a basis for further studies. The study, however, made a considerable contribution by the fact that it identified and isolated family responsibilities of university academics as variables worthy of a study as affecting organizational commitment. The study however did not focus on part-time academics only but looked at the mass of university teachers, both full-time and part-time.

Another study on organizational commitment in higher education was carried out with regard to Slovak women and focussed on the effects of personal and work-related factors (Brandt, *et. al.,* 2008). This is a classic example of sex as an isolated factor in organizational commitment studies in higher education. The findings show that there was little correlation between the personal and work-related factors used in the study and organizational commitment. The discussion on the findings of the study indicates that the results were similar to results of similar studies carried out with regard to women from US, Central and Eastern European countries.

Bakalis and Joiner (2006), operating from a somewhat different set up, carried out a study that focussed more specifically on commitment of part-time academics in higher education by establishing the antecedents of organizational commitment of part-time academics. The study explored three broad categories of factors hypothesised as affecting organizational commitment of such staff. The three sets are family responsibilities, job-related characteristics and organizational factors. The findings revealed that family responsibilities, job-related characteristics, and job-involvement characteristics all impact on organizational commitment. A limitation to this study, similar to those of studies in Europe, was the possibility of generalization of findings to other cultures. This clearly creates a need to carry out a similar study in any other cultural setting outside Australia. Clearly, there is a gap necessitating a need for this current study in Kenyan setting where there is a rampant rise in use of part-time academics in higher education.

2.2.7 Empirical studies on oraginizational commitment in HEIs in Africa

Studies on organizational commitment in higher education in Africa are scant and the few that exist do not focus on part-time academics (Laka-Mathambula, 2004; Kipkebut, 2010). Basing his study in South Africa, Laka-Mathambula set out to add to research findings aimed at clarifying the relationship between the multiple dimensions of organizational commitment the factors influencing it and its outcomes. In this study, Laka-Mathambula focussed on human resource management practices, leadership and trust as they affect organizational commitment of staff in selected South African HEIs. The results of the study showed no significant relationship between demographic factors used in the study and organizational commitment. The results however indicated a significant relationship between the type of academic institution and the total organizational commitment.

A major limitation of this study is that it did not differentiate between the organizational commitment of part-time staff and that of full-time staff. It is worth noting that this study had categorised the population into HEIs with full-time residential students, part-time non-residential students, and a combination of full-time residential and part-time non-residential students. This indicates that another factor, type of institution, is emerging as a factor likely to influence organizational commitment.

The one and only study on organizational commitment in HEIs identified with regard to academics in Kenya was carried out by Kipkebut (2010). The study was set out to establish the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in HEIs in Kenya. The study explored a large number of factors that influence commitment: sectoral factors (public, private), occupational group (academic and administrative), job satisfaction, turnover intensions, demographic characteristics, job and role-related factors, and HRM practices. The findings show that in Kenyan HEIs, age, education, role overload, supervisory support, organizational factors, distributive justice and participation in decision making were the most important predictors of organizational commitment.

This study was however broad-based and simultaneously looked at whether the same factors influence job satisfaction and turnover intensions. It therefore lacked a unique and narrow focus necessary for theory, policy and practice as to the most significant influences of commitment. The study also looked at organizational commitment of all staff (and at the academic and administrative), and did not differentiate part-time and full-time staff.

2.2.9Operationalization of Research Variables

This section describes the operationalization of research variables as depicted in the conceptual model. Operationalization facilitates definitions of constructs into observable behavior or characteristics that can be measured (Sekaran, 2000). The study was guided by previous studies (Bakalis, 2006; Zafar, 2010) that measured determinants of organizational commitment. Independent variable accounts for the variance of the differences in the dependent variable. Organizational commitment was operationalized as: affective commitment; continuance commitment; and normative commitment. To measure the independent variables, the scale by Sprietzer (1995) was adopted and modified to fit the context. An aggregate measure (composite score) of determinants of was obtained by combining the mean score of the factors involved. Organizational commitment was measured using a modified version of Organizational Commitment Questionnnaire (OCQ) by Meyer and Allen (1997).

In this study, the dependent variable was organizational commitment. A dependent variable is one that is influenced by some other variable. Review of existing literature provided an expansive view of measuring organizational commitment using the three component model (TCM). The dependent variable organizational commitment was based on an aggregation of scores consisting of affective commitment, continuance and normative commitment. The empirically derived independent variables were family responsibilities (age and sibling status); jobrelated factors (supervisor support, co-worker support, socialization, access to resources, role clarity); organizational factors (security of tenure, opportunities for further studies, perceived dependence); and economic factors (perceived opportunism, perceived dependence and perceived uncertainty).

The study variables are therefore operationalized and measured as follows. Family responsibilities are demographic characteristics that have been one of the most

studied influences of organizational commitment. Family responsibilities include in gender, education level, marital status and family responsibilities. Job characteristics refer to practices used by the employer to assist the employee to understand the job or work role. These practices broadly increase the clarity of the job by providing structure and formality and provide feedback to employees.

There are four major job-related characteristics: supervisor support, co-worker support, role clarity and access to resources. Organizational factors refer to the extent to which employees are involved with the organization and feel integrated into the organization. They include: organization tenure, whether the academic is studying at the same university where he/she works and whether the academic works a second job. Economic factors refer to those factors that affect the income-generating ability of the employees. This is an important factor to study especially given the prevailing economic conditions of third world countries. These factors have been empirically studied elsewhere in the world under slightly different classifications. Mowday *et al.*, (1982) for example, suggested four categories of factors affecting commitment: family responsibilities; job characteristics; work experiences; and structural characteristics. In other studies, the grouping of those factors has been to take a different format: family responsibilities; job characteristics and organizational factors.

Table 2.2 : Operationalization of variables

Variable	Operational Definition	Measure	Question
Family Responsibilities	**Age** The age in years of the respondent	Ordinal scale	Q1
	Sibling status The situation of having children or not of the respondent	Ordinal scale	Q4
Job-related factors	**Supervisor support** The extent to which the immediate supervisor assists the staff	Likert scale	Q11
	Co-worker support The extend to which colleagues support the staff member	Likert scale	Q12
	Access to resources The extend to which the staff member is allowed opportunity o get and use resources at work	Likert scale	Q13
	Socialization The extent to which the staff member was given orientation into the job and the organization	Likert scale	Q15
	Role clarity The extent to whichthe part-time teaching is clear to the staff member	Likert scale	Q14
Organizational factors	**Perceived dependability** The extent to which the the staff member feels a need to maintain a relationship with the employer owing to the opportunity cost of leaving	Likert scale	Q18
	Security of tenure The extent to which the staff member perceives that his contract will be renewed in future	Likert scale	Q16
	Opportunities for further studies The extent to which the staff member perceives that he will be supported to study in the employing HEI	Likert scale	Q17
Economic factors	**Perceived dependability** The extent to which the the staff member feels a need to maintain a relationship with the employer owing to the opportunity cost of leaving	Likert scale	Q18
	Perceived opportunism The extent to which the staff perceives greater benefits in relation to the costs incurred in the organization	Likert scale	Q19
	Perceived uncertainty Theextent to which the person perceives that they will error in decision making and the cost of getting another job in case he has left the organization	Likert scale	Q20
Organizational commitment	**Affective commitment** The awareness of the consequences associated with leaving an organization, or the awareness of a lack of alternatives.	OCQ using a likert scale	Q21 AC 1-AC8
	Continuance commitment The awareness of the consequences associated with leaving an organization, or the awareness of a lack of alternatives	OCQ using a likert scale	Q21 CC1-CC8
	Normative commitment It is the obligation of employee's feeling to remain with the organization.	OCQ using a likert scale	Q21 NC1-NC8

2.2.10 Conceptual Framework

This section looks at the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics in HEIs from previous related empirical studies. The variables discussed here include family responsibilities, work- related characteristics, organizational factors and economic factors. The variables are operationalized as indicated in the discussion below.

The study of organizational commitment has for a long time focused on antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment with organizational commitment being the mediating and sometimes intervening variable. Suliman (2001), for example, carried out a study that showed that organizational commitment plays a mediating role in work climate-performance relationship. However, Jordan *et al.,* (2010) posits that organizational commitment is a variable used to predict turnover intentions among staff.

Notwithstanding the above described relationships from previous studies, this study holds the view that there are certain determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics in a local setting which have not been explored, and which sets of factors may differ fundamentally from the sets identified in other settings as identified in previous studies. The relationship among variables is shown in Figure 1.1.

Family responsibilities and organizational commitment

Family responsibilities used in previous studies were age, marital status, level of education, gender and family responsibilities. These are as discussed hereunder. The age of employees is one of the most widely studies factor in employee commitment researches (Zafar, 2006; Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Beukhoif *et al*, 2006).

Research has shown that age is positively related to organizational commitment (Steers, 1977; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1981). One tries to establish a possible explanation for this relationship. While Mowday(1982) asserts that there are few employment options available for older employees; these seem to be a target by HEIs seeking to engage part-time academic staff. The "side-bets" theory also attempts to offer an explanation to the effect that older employees realize

that leaving may cost them more than staying in a full-time job (Parasuraman & Nachman, 1987). The nature of unemployment trends in developing countries also poses another challenge to younger people: that of lack of full-time employment.

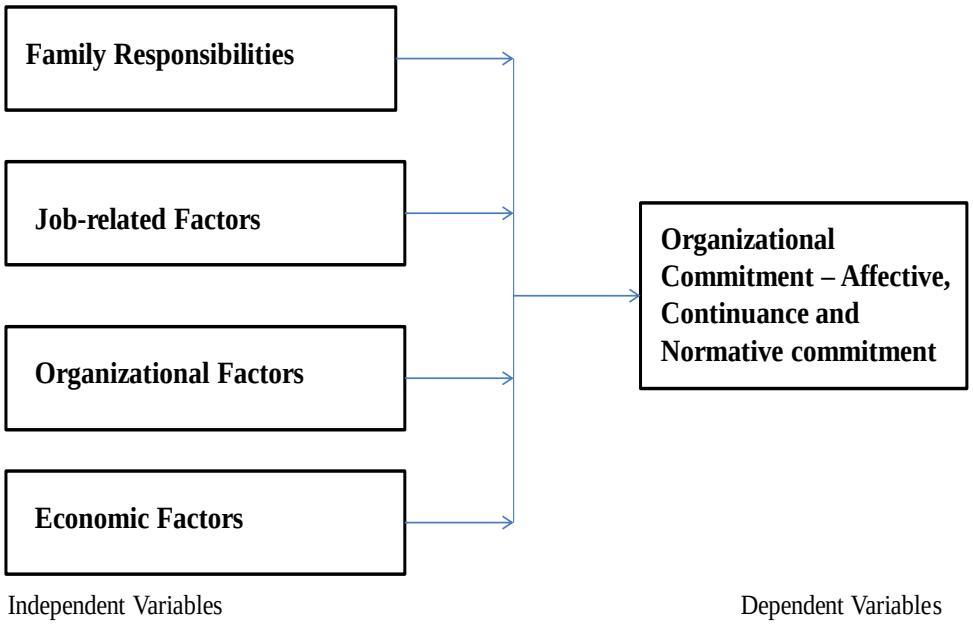


Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework

This leaves them with little choices but to take on any part-time jobs available at the time. It is such young people who change those part-time jobs more frequently in an attempt to look for greener pastures. This is a clear case of less commitment by the young employees. Thus, in research, a positive relationship between age and commitment was predicted (Zafar, 2006).

Gender and organizational commitment has produced somewhat inconsistent results (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). This is partly due to the changing social and cultural systems world over. There has been a strong wave since 1980s of engendering most spheres of an economy. This has tremendously changed the gender landscape in most

organizations. The gender activists have sounded a wake-up call that has revolutionalized the minds of the once-discriminated gender category of employees. Wann's (1998) study of Human Resource executives found that women showed a higher continuance commitment than men, whereas Ngo and Tsang (1998) found no significant relationship between gender and commitment. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) study found that women are more significantly committed to the organization than men.

Studies on marital status as a predictor of commitment have been numerous (Hrebiniak & Alutto 1972; John & Taylor, 1999; Tsui *et al.*, 1994). Findings have been consistent that married people were more committed to their organization than unmarried people. This could be explained by the fact that married people tend to have more family responsibilities. It is such family responsibilities that push such people to look for stability of earnings, job security, and commitment to the organization than their unmarried counterparts. A study by Joiner and Bakalis (2006) however, found that presence of children were not associated with continuance commitment.

The level of education of an employee has been one of the factors explored in commitment studies. Level of education is expected to have a negative relationship with commitment. The rationale for this prediction is that people with low levels of educations are generally likely to experience more difficulty in changing jobs and therefore show a greater commitment to their organizations than more educated ones. This has been reported in several research studies (Steers, 1977; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Bakalis & Joiner 2006). This predictor is a useful one for this study given that education level is a key factor in the employee selection criteria in HEIs. The low numbers of staff with Ph D qualifications in HEIs in Kenya (CHE, 2006) might provide an important guess that most HEIs are predominantly understaffed in the line of academics. This encourages the use of part-time academics in most Kenya's HEIs.

Furthermore, given the growth and proliferation of university colleges in all regions in Kenya, coupled with opening of campuses and branches of universities in different locations in an attempt to improve access to higher education, the use of part-time academics becomes like the norm in staffing of HEIs. The point to note is

that the more educated the person is, the more empowered him/she becomes, and the more freedom there is to seek for better opportunities elsewhere.

Job- related characteristics and organizational commitment

Job-related characteristics have been found to influence organizational commitment. Job-related characteristics refer to practices used by the employer to assist the employee understand the job or work roles (Beukhoif *et al.,* 1998). These practices broadly increase the clarity of the job by providing structure, formality and feedback to employees (Steers, 1997; McClurg, 1999). These aspects are not only important predictors of commitment, but they also predict motivation states of employees. This study will consider four significantly important job characteristics: Supervisor support; co-worker support; role clarity; and access to resources.

Employees support from supervisors and co-workers has been found to be very useful in enhancing organizational commitment. Employees have been found to be more likely to feel an obligation to return the supportive behaviour in terms of commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993). A study that covered employees from various occupations with regard to perceived support found out that employees who perceived a friendly and supportive relationship with their supervisors and co-workers at work experienced a strong, positive commitment to their respective employers. The situation of part-timers in HEIs presents supervisors as the lecturer-in-charge of the subject, the Director of the Campus, the Chairperson of the Department or the Administrator, plus co-tutors. These are the primary points of support needed for the job including information and feedback on performance in the job. This is likely to input job clarity, signal care, concern, support and socialization needed by the part-time academic. Such a perception is useful in enhancing the part-time academics' commitment.

Roles performed by employees also play a key part in determining commitment. Role clarity implies that the part-time academic, for example, is made aware of the duties, responsibilities, accountabilities and the outcomes. It also clarifies on lines of authority and communication. This is a key element in guiding the behaviour of people at work. Role clarify has been found to be positively related to employees' expressions of job desirability and it has also been found to be

negatively related to employees' likelihood to leave the job. Role clarify can be drastically enhanced through written policies, rules and regulations and guidelines which are made available and communicated to all staff including part-time staff.

The resources possessed by an organization are important for helping management to achieve set goals. However, resources, including information have been distributed or shared out selectively on basis of race, position or terms of engagement. Resources are also a major cause of intrapersonal, interpersonal and interorganizational conflicts. Access to resources, especially by part-time staff can be very important in influencing commitment. Access to resources, for example, reflects an organization's commitment and support to the employee, which is likely to be reciprocated (Angle & Perry, 1983). Access to resources equips the employee with what it takes to perform effectively, efficiently, with ease, with a great sense of control and self-efficacy (Spreitzer, 1996). The resources part-time academics may require to perform their work includes office accommodation, stationery, photocopying, computers, printing services, internet services and administrative support. Providing opportunities for part-time academic to access these resources can help a great deal in enhancing their organizational commitment.

Organizational factors and organizational commitment

Organizational factors can be defined as those factors that define the extent to which employees are involved with the organization and feel integrated into the organization (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). Organizational factors which have been included in this study are the years (tenure) a person has served in the university as a part-timer, whether the person is undertaking post-graduate studies at the university where he/she works, and whether he/she works a second job. Finding on the effect of years of service in organizational commitment indicate that this is the most important factor influencing especially continuance commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Tenure provides an opportunity to develop a sense of belonging and also a sense of loyalty to the organization. Another job involvement factor influencing commitment is working a second job. In Kenya, for example, a majority of HEIs engage part-time academics for up to a maximum of three teaching units, which

translates to an approximate nine hours per week. This situation has an allowance for the individual engaged elsewhere as a part-time academic, opportunity to hold a full-time job, and/or to run a business. This may result in "divided" commitment of the part-time academic among different employers who utilize his/her services.

The higher education sector has a high regard for higher academic qualifications – Master's and Ph.D. Young people, retrenched staff, as well as retired employees would ordinarily get admission in a university with a hope that upon completion they will be considered for employment. A relationship is developed during the learning period between the learner and the institution. Experience has show that such arrangements have continued to bear fruits of part-time contracts save for a situation where no such vacancies exist. However, researches examining "further studies" in relation to commitment have found an inverse relationship between the two factors (McClurg, 1999).

Some studies have found that teachers who did not plan to further their education exhibited higher levels of organizational commitment compared to those who planned to (Alutto, 1972). This situation may not compare well with the local Kenyan situation where individuals seeking to further their education also determine where to utilize it for part-time teaching. The socialization given to the student who is also a part-time academic creates a sense of concern and thereby a need to reciprocate. The process of reciprocity is likely to contribute to organizational commitment.

Economic factors and organizational commitment

The three economic factors influencing OC that have been widely accepted are opportunism, dependence and uncertainty. Opportunism, one of the most important variables in transaction cost analysis, was initially studied as the non-fulfilment of an explicit contract (Williamson, 1975). Later, Wathne and Heide (2000) posit that opportunism can appear in a passive form (hiding information about relevant characteristics or shirking responsibilities and efforts) or in an active form (lies, deliberate distortion of facts, prohibited behaviour and quite obvious non-fulfilment of agreements). Dependence in a relationship is the extent to which one party needs to maintain a relationship with another party to reach a desired goal (Ganesan, 1994;

Andaleeb, 1996; Mayer *et al.*, 1995). In labour relations, dependence is related to the perception that a change of firm will involve high costs (the cost of leaving the current job and the time and effort invested in searching for a new job), the difficulty of breaking the labour relation, the loss of advantages (whether or not they are explicitly contemplated in the contract).

Uncertainty has been studied as an aspect of the environment that has an impact on the firm's managerial decisions (Nguyen, 1997) and it implies the possibility of erring in decision making. If we focus on the labour context, uncertainty may be expressed as employee insecurity over employment, as a fear that the current labour relation could get worse or a belief that the cost of erring in the choice of firm is high.

There exists relationships between economic variables and OC. Dependence due to the lack of labour alternatives and perceived costs and loss of advantages in case of leaving the organisation will make employees commit to the firm where they work (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981). In the case of affective commitment, it will be a kind of emotional dependence arising from the degree to which the employee identifies with the firm or from the satisfaction gainedwhile working for the firm. Allen and Meyer (1990), Bansal *et al*. (2004) and Meyer and Allen (1997) consider changing costs and the lack of attractive alternatives as factors that influence commitment (Dunham *et al*., 1994 for affective commitment). Regarding the impact of perceived uncertainty on commitment, it is probable that the fear of erring in the choice of firm and doubts or insecurity over whether the chosen firm is the most suitable one or over the evolution of employment prospects will reduce affection towards the firm (affective commitment). Ruiz and Llore´ns (2004) find less organizational commitment among bank employees who are insecure in their jobs.

Lastly, the higher the perception of opportunistic behaviour by the firm, the less the employees would be willing to affectively commit to the firm. The traditional psychological contract (McDonald & Makin, 2000) implies dependence between the parties and job security in return for commitment, but a violation of the psychological contract between parties is associated with reduced commitment and this is possible if

the employee perceives uncertainty oropportunistic behaviour by the firm (Pate *et al*., 2003).

Model of organizational commitment

Employers are interested understanding how to develop and maintain the commitment of employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Jackson 2006). This is so because organisational commitment is a variable that bind the employee to the organization, and this relationship has been found to have positive effects on performance (Naude *et al.,* 2003). Research has identified three dimensions of organisational commitment: affective, normative and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Affective commitment reflects the employee's emotional involvement in the firm's values and goals and the employee's identification with "his/her" firm (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dick & Metcalfe, 2001; Bansal *et al.,* 2004; Meyer & Smith, 2000). Normative commitment – explains the sense of duty and responsibility towards the firm arising from agreements or norms shared by the parties (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bansal *et al.,* 2004; Gruen *et al.,* 2000; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Rylander *et al.,* 1997). Continuance commitment reflects the intention to continue working for the same firm. Following Allen and Meyer (1990), employees who have a strong affective commitment stay in the firm because they "want to", the ones who have a strong normative commitment stay because they feel they "ought to" and the ones who have a strong continuance commitment stay because they "need to"(Martin, 2007).

A review of past literature on organisational commitment has identified several determinants of OC (Chungtai & Zafar, 2006; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Smeenk *et al.,* 2009, Martin, 2007, Caykolyu & Egri, 2009): family responsibilities; job-related characteristics; organisational characteristics; economic factors; trust; and job satisfaction. These factors have been investigated to determine their impact on organizational commitment. On the basis of the results of these studies, several hypotheses for this study have been advanced. The independent variables used in these hypotheses are generic factors like family responsibilities, job characteristics, organisational factors, and economic factors. The dependent variable (OC) will be looked at in its three separate dimensions (affective, normative and continuance commitment).

Determinants of affective commitment

Research has produced results on several determinants of affective commitment (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Nijhof *et al.,* 1998; Jacobsen, 2000). Prominent among these determinants are family responsibilities (further studies) and job-related characteristics. However, specific focus on the determinants of affective commitment of part-timers generated an even further refined list of determinants. Opportunities for further studies by part-timers have been shown to increase the marketability of part-timers in the job market thus negatively affecting their affective commitment (Jacobsen, 2000). A second job held by a part-timer creates divided attention and a sense of security thereby negatively affecting affective commitment (Jacobsen, 2000).

Job-related factors have been shown to be the most popular determinants of affective commitment among part-time staff. Studies indicate that part-timers may be more or less excluded from the key decision processes of the organization. This can be partly attributed to fact that they are not always present when the decisions are being made; and partly because the employer would consider them as outsiders who do not necessarily have to the authority to be invited to participate in the processes (Jacobsen, 2000).

Part-timers have a much higher chance of being allocated to less enriched jobs. The much enriched, more challenging and interesting jobs are would ordinarily be assigned to full-timers leaving the rest for part-timers who would be engaged by the employer. As a result of their temporary contracts in organizations, part-timers get little support from their co-workers and supervisors. Indeed in situations where the work stations are decentralized and the employment decision making is centralized, part-timers are not accorded sufficient socialization through orientation. This in effect results in role ambiguity. The supervisors and co-workers in an out work station may get a feeling of threat and intimidation and threat to their authority as they were not involved in selecting part-timers who were later deployed in their work stations. In this regard, part-timers would really experience incidences of lack of appreciation and support from co-workers, supervisors. The aspect of role ambiguity and lack of support to access resources necessary for carrying out the work eventually result in a negative effect on affective commitment.

Determinants of normative commitment

Employee norms develop out of a socialization process through orientation, participation in ceremonies, rituals and other interactions in the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1980; Schein, 1991). The nature of part-time work is that it limits the number of working hours of the staff in the organization. In situations where part-time working has become rampant among academics, these staff have been branded "travelling lecturers". This situation provides limited opportunities for needed for socialization processes at work. The part-timers cannot effectively internalize the organization's goals, norms or values or culture (Ashfort & Saks, 1996). This aspect is attributable to organisational characteristics (second job) and family responsibilities (age, number of children). Some part-timers would for example, feel that it is easier to combine work and private life thus making them more normatively committed to the organization. On the other hand, some part-timers would feel less socialized into the organization, thus exhibiting less normative commitment (Jacobsen, 2000). On the basis of these discussions, the hypotheses for this study were advanced.

Determinants of continuance commitment

This is a component of commitment which arises from an individual's feeling of having to be with the organization for as long as it is practicable (Jacobsen, 2000). It can develop as a result of harsh economic conditions prevailing in the sector such as inflation, recession, unemployment. It can also result from the perceived costs associated with leaving especially after a long investment of time and other resources in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 2007). Part-timers who have worked for a long duration in an organization perceive high chances of being absorbed into full-time employment status. However, other job security like a second job and further studies increases the possibility of "greener pastures" and hence negatively affects continuance commitment. Family responsibilities like marital status, age and sex have also been found to have mixed effects on continuance commitment. Married women, for example, have been found to have little chances of continuance commitment in

situations where the spouses provide earnings stability and also where one would relocate to join the spouse in a new location for work or business.

2.3 Critique of Literature Reviewed

Several empirical studies were reviewed with a view to building a case for the current study. These were studies relating to organizational commitment and the factors that determine it. Attempts were mande to incorporate reviews of studies on part-time academics. These are summarized in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.3: Summary of Crituque of Literature and Knowledge Gaps

Empirical Studies	Focus	Summary of Findings	Gaps
Joiner,T.A. & Bakalis, S. (2006)	Antecedents of organizational commitment among casual academics working in the tertiary education sector in Australia	Personal characteristics (gender, marital status, family responsibilities and education), job-related characteristics (supervisor support, co-worker support, role clarity and resource availability) and job involvement characteristics (tenure, second job and post-graduate study at the mploying university) all impact on organizational commitment	Economic factors were not considered. It achieved a very low response rate of 78 questionnaires , representing a 28% response rate. It was confined to Australian culture only. Finally, this study did not examine consequences of organizational commitment.
Ogba, I. E. (208).	To find the effect of income and age as variables in assessing employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria.	The study found out that employees with high income represent the same group of employees within the age groups 31-35 with low commitment to their organisation.	It did not yield to the three component model of organizational commitment. It only focused on fulltime employees. It is limited to the Nigerian context.

Labatmedien,L. & Endriulaitien, A. (2007).	To analyze the relationships among individual factors (age, gender, personality traits) and organizational commitment	It was also found that there was a significant relationship among organizational commitment, age, and the level of education.	The sample was quite small to be representative, and hence not possible to make generalizations to other populations. It did not consider part-time staff.
Kipkebut, D. J. (2010).	Organizational commitment and Job Satisfaction in higher educational institutions: The Kenyan case	Established Meyer and Allen‟s multidimensional organizational commitment is applicable to a Kenyan setting	Concentrated only on fulltime staff, both academic and non-academic.
Martin, S. S. (2006).	To analyze the most important dimensions and antecedents of the employee's commitment to the firm using a multidisciplinary perspective.	Employee gender, level of studies, offspring and firm size and belonging to a group show a moderating effect on the global model.	Information was only been collected from the employee and only in Spain. Hence, the finding are not generalizable in other cultural and labour contexts..
Zafar, S. & Chughtai, A. A. (2006)	To determine if selected personal characteristics, significantly explained variance in the organizational commitment of Pakistani university Teachers.	The results of the study indicate that the personal Characteristics was significantly related to organizational commitment of teachers. Moreover, commitment was found to be negatively related to turnover intentions.	The study focused on fulltime faculty in university staff, not on part-time staff.The study was done on Pakistanand hence difficult to generallize to other settings.

2.4 Research Gaps

Literature review has indicated an imbalance in the attention that has gone into studies on commitment. Most studies still continue to view commitment from a unidimensional rather than from a multidimensional perspective (Thomas, 2006; Murphy 2010; Kipkebut, 2010). This is contrary to the studies that previously set out

the multidimensional nature of the construct (Wong *et.al,* 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1977). The unidimensional focused studies limit a lot on the practical applicability of the findings in contexts different from those of the researches. Furthermore, as the construct has continued to advance elsewhere it creates an impression of a simplistic construct. It would therefore be prudent for other studies to make a remarkable contribution in this field by addressing the constant from a multidimensional perspective. This study has filled this gap by looking at organizational commitment using the three component model, which model is multidimensional.

Some studies on commitment of part-timers have focused on comparison between academic and non-academic staff in higher education (Kipkebut, 2010; Dooreward *et al.,* 2009; Shirbagi, 2007; Laka – Mathembula, 2004). These studies are very relevant from an academic and institutional general management standpoint. However, a focus on part-time academic staff for comparison with other institutions would be more useful. It is also worth nothing that the working situations for part-time academics may be uniquely different from non-academics. Hence, a pure study of academic staff who work on part-time basis would provide useful results for comparison and policy guidelines. This study has specifically focused the organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIsin Kenya, thereby filling in the previously identified knowledge gap.

Past studies that have made impact in Educational Administration area, and with specific emphasis to instructional techniques in higher education, have focused on a dichotomy of full-time versus part-time academics. This perspective, which puts a demarcation on staff on the basis of tenure, has produced a large following among researchers in this field (Gaylor *et al.,* 2005; Umbach, 2008; Borchers, 2005). These studies have provided useful insights into the understanding of the dynamics of full-time and part-time faculty. However, the requirements for the management and retention of full-time academics are clearly spelt out in the "terms and condition of employment'' which are specific in each institution. This is not necessarily the case with part-time academics to which this statement would apply "same time, next year?'' (Ainsworth, 2007). The challenge has persisted on how to manage and retain part-time academics in an increasingly competitive labour market among the professoriate. By focussing on commitment of part-time academics only, the study

attempts to provide useful guidelines for relevant human resource policy formulation on part-time academic staff in HEIs.

In conclusion, studies on commitment of part-time academics in HEIs have been extensively conducted in western countries (Murphy, 2010; Zafar, 2006; Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). Indeed few studies have been carried out with regard to the construct in Africa (Kipkebut, 2010; Laka-Mathembula, 2004). This lack of sufficient studies addressing the issue of commitment in Africa has raised many controversies in the local context with many unsubstantiated allegations that, "part-time academics are not qualified to teach in universities,'' and that 'part-timers give students a raw deal'' (Muindi, November 14, 2010). No published findings on these controversies have been provided from non-Western and African contexts. The question is whether the same factors that influence commitment of part-time academics (in countries that have a strong social security system) and their corresponding frameworks, models or theories are applicable in poor countries suffering high unemployment rates. Moreover, it has been argued that people's attitudes, beliefs and values vary across countries, cultures and continents. Hence, this study was set out to address the questions on the applicability of same factors of Western studies in a less developed, non-Western context like the Kenyan context.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and procedures used for the study. The chapter is organised as follows: First, it presents the highlights and justification for the choice the quantitative research design approach. Second, the proposed data collection methods and sampling procedures are described. Last, reliability and validity of the measurement scales, pilot testing and data analysis techniques are discussed.

Research Philosophy

The research was concerned with understanding of the present with a view to being able to predict the future situation. Research philosophy is the foundation of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge contains important assumptions about the way in which researchers view the world (Saunders et al., 2007). Research methods are influenced by philosophical orientations. Epistemologically, there are two broad research philosophies that dominate the literature in the social sciences: positivism and phenomenology. These philosophical approaches are defined by assumptions concerning reality (ontology), epistemology (knowledge, human nature (predetermined or not) and methodology. According to Cooper and Schindler (2006), positivism takes the quantitative approach and is based on real facts, objectivity, neutrality, measurement and validity of results. The roots of positivism lie particularly with empiricism, that is, all factual knowledge is based on positive information gained from observable experiences, and only analytic statements are allowed to known as true through reason alone. Positivism maintains that knowledge should be based on facts and not abstractions; thus knowledge is predicated on observations and experiments based on existing theory. It sees the need to know in a context when the truth is one and to predict as the important means to knowledge creation. Positivism emphasizes that the observer is independent from what is being observed, the choice of what to study is determined by objective rather than beliefs, and that the concepts need to be operationalized in such a way that they can be measured in a sample and generalized to the whole population. This research was therefore grounded on

positivist research paradigm, a paradigm characterized by a belief in theory before research, statistical justification of conclusions and empirically testable hypothesis, the core tenets of scientific methods (Cooper and Schindler, 2003).

This required that the facts must be established for casual relationships that may be observed. Empirical studies based on hypothetical and deductive research approach in which the study begins with a hypothesis, are most appropriate for this kind of investigations. This study of organizational commitment, family responsibilities, job-related factors, economic factors, and organizational factors is a study that essentially seeks to establish possible relationships among these variables and the strength of such relationships if they do exist. This study therefore was inclined to a positivist research approach. The phenomenological paradigm may be viewed as qualitative. Phenomenology suggests, that knowledge is subjective, based in the experiences, personal knowledge and interpretation of the individual. Its emphasis is on the world as experienced by a person, not the world or reality as something separate from the person (Saunders et al., 2007). The phenomenological approach does not begin from an established theory and then proceed to collect data to either vindicate or reject the theory. This study was guided by the positivist paradigm because it was anchored on theory from which hypotheses were derived, followed deductive reasoning and employed quantitative methods to ensure precision, logic and evidence testing.

3.2 Research Design

In this study, a quantitative and quantitative research designs were used. Quantitative research relies on the principle of verifiability, that is, confirmation, proof, or substantiation, using appropriate measurements of the study variables. Some of the research designs which may be categorized as quantitative research are experimental design, causal- effect, and correlational research and survey design. According to Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (2002) there are several advantages associated with quantitative designs. First, quantitative designs enable greater precision in measurement because they require well-developed reliability and validity theory to assess measurement errors. This provides a solid foundation upon which researchers can place confidence in their findings. Second, they have a well-established statistical method, which allows data to be easily summarized to foster the

communication of results. Third, quantitative methods facilitate comparison. Since quantitative designs provide the opportunity for researchers to obtain reactions of a large number of people they can make comparisons across those individual reactions. Finally, they provide a more stable basis for generalizing findings beyond the study sample.

The methodology used in this study compares favourably with that of previous empirical studies (Bakalis & joiner, 2006; Gallagher & Connelly, 2004; Jacobsen, 2000; Lebatmediene *et al.*,; Kipkebut, 2010; Murphy, 2009; Chunghtai & Zafar,2006; Shirbagi, 2007). In all these studies, the quantitative approach by use of surveys done by administration of questionnaires was the primary methodology employed in studying organizational commitment. This study adopted a similar methodology to enhance the comparability of findings across the board.

The specific quantitative method used in this research was the survey method. A survey is an appropriate method for collecting data for descriptive or exploratory studies (Pettit, 1993) about a well-defined population (Foddy, 1996). Survey research is concerned with the relationship between two categories of variables. Smither, Houston, and McIntire (1996) stated "employee opinion surveys have become a mainstay data gathering technique of organizational development practitioners in large organizations" (p. 160). It can be used in studies in which individuals are the unit of analysis. It is best suited for measuring attitudes, obtaining personal and social facts, and assessing beliefs (Babbie, 1983; Foddy, 1996; Kerlinger, 1986) in a confidential manner (Smither *et al.*, 1996). The design allows a large number of individuals to be surveyed in a shorter time frame and at less cost than either direct observations or interviews (Kerlinger, 1986). Answers are shown in percentages or means of employee response to options for each question. The strength of this type of study is that the variables are measured in real social settings as they exist at the time of the study. They also provide useful information about a population without the cost and effort of surveying the entire population. If designed properly, surveys can obtain a wide variety of information which tends to be within the sampling error (Kerlinger, 1986).

Survey focuses on the breadth of information, not necessarily the depth of information. While survey provides accurate information, sampling error can

dramatically impact results (Foddy, 1996). A cross-sectional research which has been popularly used in most organisational commitment and other employee attitude studies was used in this study. This choice was determined by three factors, namely, the purpose of the study, the time period over which the data is to be collected and the type of analysis. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2005), a cross-sectional study is one that produces a 'snapshot'of a population at a particular point in time. In this study, data was collected from a sample of part-time academic employees teaching in Business departments from 13 universities in Kenya which are geographically located in Nairobi and Mombasa cities only.

This is in contrast to longitudinal studies which involve the study of the same subjects over along period of time which may take years (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Cohen *et al.,* 2005). Unlike cross-sectional studies, the strength of longitudinal studies lies in the fact that the researcher is able to identify patterns of developments or changes in the characteristics of the participants in the study. Further, time, which is always a limiting factor in cross-sectional studies, enables the researcher greater opportunity to observe trends and distinguishes real change from chance occurrences (Cohen *et al.,* 2005).

However, longitudinal studies have their disadvantages. Firstly, they are time consuming and expensive because the researcher has to collect data over a long period of time. Secondly, sample mortality is likely to be high (Cohen *et al.,* 2005). During the course of long-term study, subjects are likely to drop out or refuse to cooperate. This would have been the most probable danger for longitudinal designs in this study given that part-time academics are engaged on contracts each semester and the employer or employee may opt not to renew such contracts. Thus, follow up of the subjects over a long period of study would have been impractical. The main advantage of the cross-sectional research selected for this study was that the researcher was able to collect and compare several variables in the study at the same time (Kipkebut, 2010). In addition, the collection of data was less expensive in terms of time and cost; the researcher was also able to secure the cooperation of the respondents since the data was collected at one point in time. It was be practicable to trace the respondents on the basis of availability at the place of work. The one major disadvantage of this method is that it has a possibility of leaving some subjects (part-

time academics) who would have been very useful in this study but are currently unavailable at the time of data collection.

3.3 Population

The population in this study consisted of part-time academics and chairpersons or cordinators or directors of business schools or business-oriented faculties or departments engaging part-time academics in the selected HEIs in Mombasa and Nairobi cities in Kenya. Business schools or faculties have been selected for study out of the many other schools or faculties the HEIs have. This is because, it has been noted that these schools locally have expanded most and have engaged more part-time academics than the others. Acasual survey (prior to this study) has also indicated a widespread mounting of business courses by most HEIs in Kenya.

Feldman (1990) distinguishes between five dimensions according to which part-time work can be categorized: permanent or temporary; organisation and/ or agency-hired; year-round or seasonal; main or second job; voluntary or non-voluntary. Different combinations of the five dimensions may constitute different types of what the European Union calls ``atypical employment'' (Hernes, 1992), and may have very different effects (Feldman, 1990). Furthermore, a sixth dimension omitted by Feldman can be added: hours of work per week as a proportion of what could be termed the normal (or expected) hours of work per week. Part-time work may be a continuous variable, i.e. taking on different degrees ranging from almost zero per cent of a full-time job to almost 100 per cent. Athough prevoius literaure alludes to this broad spectrum of part-time categories, the study will focus a local categorization involving internal part-timer and external part-timer. The particular categorisation is widespread in the local Kenyan setting and is recognized in the internal humanr esource management policies for academic staff locally.

The target population, therefore, will comprise of the part-time academics drawn from business schools or business-oriented faculties or departments in the 13 universities that were operating in Mombasa and Nairobi in the period February through June 2013. These universities are present in the two selected geographical areas in different forms: as main campus (headquarters) university as is the case with University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Strathmore University, Daystar University, Catholic University

campuses in Nairobi City. The same universities could also exist as constituent colleges as is the case with Kenya Polytechnic University College and Mombasa Polytechnic University College; as campuses/branches as is the case with Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, Maseno University and Moi University campuses in Nairobi and Mombasa cities. In this study, the branches/campuses will be taken to be the same as and part of the main university while the university colleges will be treated as separate entities and each will be treated as a university. The total population was estimated at 864 distributed Table 3.1 as shown in the below.

Table 3.3 : Population of study

	Nairobi City		Mombasa City	
	Part-time Academic Staff	Academic Heads of Departments	Part-time Academic Staff	Acameic Heads of Departments
UON	56	8	24	1
JKUAT	45	3	34	1
MKU	78	4	44	1
Daystar	58	3	34	1
KU	45	3	24	1
MU	34	3	38	1
SU	45	3	-	-
CUEA	54	3	-	-
St.Paul's	42	3	-	-
PUEA	43	3	-	-
Nazarene	36	2	-	-
KPUC	45	2	-	-
MPUC	-	-	85	1
Total	581	40	283	7

Key: UON= University of Nairobi, JKUAT=Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, MKU= Mount Kenya University, CUEA=Catholic University of Eastern Africa, PUEA= Presbyterian University of Eastern Africa, KPUC=Kenya

Polytechnic University College, MPUC= Mombasa Polytechnic University College, SU=Strathmore University, MU= Moi University, KU=Kenyatta University

3.4 Sampling Frame

The sampling frame for this study was developed as there was no readily available list to resort to. The Commission for University Education in the Republic of Kenya maintains a list of all institutions of higher learning in the country. This provided a useful guideline for developing the sampling frame. The sampling frame was not readily available and was gradually developed in the course of the study. This is in line with the writings of Kothari (2011) who asserts that in the absence of a readily available list of the study population, a list can be developed.

As at January 2013, the number of universities in Kenya was as follows: 7 public universities; 13 constituent colleges; 11 chartered private universities; and 10 private universities with letters of Interim Authority (see Appendix IV). The sampling frame consisted of a list developed by collecting names of part-time academics in the business schools or business-oriented faculties or departments of the 17 universities in Mombasa and Nairobi cities in the Republic of Kenya as at the semester of study. The choice of the two locations in Kenya was informed by the fact that most local HEIs in Kenya have opened branches in the two urban areas. The expansion of HEIs into the cities has also resulted in use of part-time academics as a means of cutting-down on costs. Hence, there is a high probability of locating the sample elements of study in these areas. The opinions of the part-time academics in an urban set-up are not likely to be different from those in rural set-ups. Hence it becomes feasible to choose a representative sample of the population of part-time academics in Kenya from those part-time academics operating in the cities.

The nature of part-time academic work in HEIs in Kenya is that it is seasonal. The engagement of part-time academics is also discretionary in such a way that at the end of each semester some part-time academics are dropped and replaced in the subsequent semester. The formalisation of the contracts for part-time teaching has also been a problem in the country. Hence, it was not almost always certain that the institutions could have a formal list of part-time acdemics so easily available on request. At the same time, given emerging opportunities and challenges in life, some

part-time academics usually opt out at the end every other semester. This trend made it certainly challenging to have a definite sampling frame prior to the semester of data collection. The other thing is that the semester dates and academic calendars of HEIs in Kenya is not harmonized but remains highly customized and specific to each university.

There was no readily available list of the subjects of study to constitute the sampling frame for part-time academic staff in most HEIs. A need to develop the sampling frame therefore arose. This practice is echoed by Kothari (2013) who recommends that in the absence of such a list, a sampling frame has to be developed. Certain peculiarities with sampling for part-time academic staff were also identified. First, many of the studies had difficulty in accessing and assembling the sampling frame (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Feldman, 2005; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2005). Second, the studies achieved a significantly low response rate: 43% in a study by Jacobsen (2000); 28% in a study by Bakalis and Joiner (2006); 38% in a study by Murphy (2009). This trend send very strong early warnings on the likely dangers of sampling for part-time staff. This has been supported by Bryson and Blackwell (2006) who assert that although part-time teachers form a large proportion of temporary workers in the UK, they have largely been excluded from personnel records creating an "invisible faculty" (Husbands, 1998). This caused this research to consider exploring sampling for hard-to-reach populations.

Sampling methods for the hard-to-reach populations have been of interest to researchers as these pose a challenge as they deviate from the conventional probabilistic sampling methods. (Marpsata & Razafindratsimab, 2010). Several types of difficulty (often overlapping) populations have led researchers to classify a population as 'hard to reach' (Marpsata & Razafindratsimab, 2010). For one, this may be that the population of interest has relatively low numbers, which makes an investigation throughout the general population very expensive (e.g. those fostered as children tourists, those with a very high income, etc.). Again this population may consist of members of the population of interest who are hard to identify. Third, it may be that what the population members have in common is not easy to detect and is only rarely recorded. This is the case with some homeless persons and injecting drug users and persons who have unprotected sex with multiple partners. Fourthly, for such populations there is no sampling frame or only a very incomplete one that yields

biased results, for example where a survey on the health of homeless people is conducted only at health centres. Lastly, the persons concerned may not wish to disclose that they are members of this population of interest, because their behaviour is illicit (drugs consumption and confusion of statistical survey with police activity), because it is socially stigmatised (prostitution), because they have no desire to revisit a painful past (persons who have been in foster care), or because they refuse to allow any meddling in their affairs (persons with very high income or assets).

The characteristics of the populations descrided above fit the nature of the population in this study. Part-time staffs have been described in employment relationship literature as 'the invisible faculty" (Husbands, 1998) in human resource records and the "missing persons" (Jacobsen, 2000) in research. As such, most HEIs did not have records of part-timers. On the other hand, many of those engaged in part-time teaching would not want their details to be publicly given out. The fear is that they work under cover and would not want these secrets to be revealed in certain quarters for fear of victimization or any other consequences that would result. As it is with other similar populations, the hard-to-reach sampling methods proved very valuable for sampling this group.

The sampling frame was developed through capture-recapture or contact-recontact methods. Capture-recapture methods have been used since the sixteenth century (Cowan, 1991). Their name comes from their use in estimating the numbers of a population of animals in the wild. These models were recently applied to mobile human populations such as migrant agricultural workers. There have been some applications to the homeless, mainly in the United Kingdom under the name of the contact-recontact method (Fisher *et al.,* 1994; Bloor *et al.,*1994; Shaw *et al.,* 1996; Williams *et al.,* 1995; Williams & Cheal, 2002).

The method is also applied in deviance situations, such as taking drugs or prostitution and used to evaluate the rate of cover of a census or exhaustive survey and in epidemiology, where several sources of information coming from the same population about a given disease may be encountered and the number of cases that are not identified by any of the sources is estimated by capture-recapture. It is assumed that the population will be stable over the observation period, i.e. that there will not be any new members or departures of old ones. The technique is based on at least two

independent observations (or sources) of this population. In order to estimate the size N of the population, it is important to know: n, the number of persons in the population observed the first time (or in the first source), m, the number observed the second time (or in the second source) and M, the number of persons observed on both occasions. N is then estimated by (n*m)/M.

The persons have to be identified (by whatever identifier) in order to be included in the population, M on the second occasion (Sudman *et al.,* 1988). This was the done in this study by making visits to each of the selected HEIs and being assisted to identify from the lesson timetables on the noticeboards the part-time academics then to capture them first time. On a subsequent visit, an effort was made to recapture the same subjects. This helped in developing the sampling frame. The list developed was refined by deleting any subjects that had been captured in another station as many part-time academics service more than one HEIs.

3.4 Sampling techniques and sample size

Having identified the population of study, multiphase sampling technique was employed to select the subjects of study. First, stratified sampling was used to select the HEIs for the study. This resulted in a sample of the HEIs from those operating in the study area. According to Kothari (2004), stratified sampling is used when a population from which a sample is to be drawn does not constitute a homogeneous group. This is the case with the categorization of universities into public versus private; chartered versus Letters of Interim Authority; main university versus university campuses; and university versus constituent college.

Ghauri and Grønhaug (2002) outlined the procedure for drawing a sample as consisting of the following steps: defining the population, identifying the sampling frame, selecting a sampling procedure, determining the sample size, selecting the sample units and collecting data from the sampled units. Sampling from the population is an important process in research because it can be quite impracticable to survey the entire population (Saunders *et al.,* 2007) as in the case of all the part-time academics in the selected Kenyan HEIs.

Second, using stratified sampling technique again, the population of the selected HEIs in the selected HEIs was divided into several sub-populations that are individually more homogenous than the total population. Stratification was first be on the basis of ownership of the university, that is, whether public or private. This generated two distinct sub-populations – public HEIs and private HEIs. The geographical location also formed the second basis for stratification resulting in other two categories – HEIs in Nairobi City and HEIs in Mombasa City. The result of the multiple-stratification will give rise to four strata: public HEIs in Nairobi; private HEIs in Nairobi; public HEIs in Mombasa; and private HEIs in Mombasa.

A proportionate simple random sample representing 50 per cent from each of the HEIs in the 4 categories was selected on an equal basis of representation (2 public HEIs in Nairobi and 2 public HEIs in Mombasa; and 2 private HEIs in Nairobi and 2 private HEIs in Mombasa, in a mutually exclusive way). In each of the selected university, the researcher developed the list of part-time academics engaged that semester. A proportionate random sample consisting of the part-time staff from each of the sampled university was selected. The HEIs are in the two cities by way of branches; and that the same sample elements might be found in both localities. In another note, a sample element is likely to be in different selected HEIs at the same time. As a result, this creates a situation of double entries for the sampled elements. The researcher prepared a long list of all the selected sample elements and sorted the list by eliminating and replacing any repeated names. This method helped in reducing sampling bias and achieving a high level of representation (Saunders *et al.*, 2007; Sekaran, 1992).

The sampling method for the part-time academic staff used for this study is time-location sampling (TLS). This is a relatively new approach that has seen increasing use in recent years. It takes advantage of the fact that some hidden populations tend to gather or congregate at certain types of locations (Muhib, *et al.*, 2001). In time-location sampling (TLS), such sites are enumerated in a preliminary ethnographic mapping or presurveillance assessment exercise; the list of sites so developed is used to prepare a sampling frame from which to choose a probability sample of sites, and data are gathered from either all or a sample of subgroup members found at the site during a pre-defined time interval (e.g. a randomly chosen

3-hour time period on a randomly chosen day of the week). Because probabilities of selection can be calculated, TLS qualifies as a probability sampling method.

The location in this case was the centre or department or venue where the teaching services were being delivered. The time was taken as the scheduled lesson time as per the teaching timetable. To ensure proper coverage the time was extended to two weeks of lesson time in one station. Each station was taken as a stratum and a simple random sample was taken from each stratum to constitute the sample size for the study. The chairpersons of academic departments from the institutions to be interviewed in this study were directly picked as a census from each of the selected institutions.

The sample size for this study was obtained using a combination of a formula developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) as shown in Appendix IV. In order to simplify the process of sample size determination for researchers, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) created a table based on the formula which shows the population of a study and the expected sample size thus ensuring that the researcher obtained a representative sample for the study. According to the writers, "as the population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases" (p.607). The formula is shown below and table is shown in Table 3.2.

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$$

Where:

S= the required sample size

X^2= the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (i.e. 3.841)

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size)

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (in this study, it is set at 5%).

The application of the above formula to select a sample from a population of 864 part-time academics gives us a sample of 267. Simple random sampling was used to select 20% (8 individuals) of the chairpersons of academic departments of institutions included in this study. The final sample matrix is as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Sampling matrix for part-time academic staff in the selected HEIs in Nairobi and Mombasa cities

	Nairobi City				Mombasa City			
	Part-time academic staff		Academic Heads of Departments		Part-time academic staff		Academic Heads of Departments	
	Target population	Sample	Target population	Sample	Target population	Sample	Target population	Sample
UON	56	17	8	1	24	7	1	1
JKUAT	45	14	3	1	34	10	1	1
MKU	78	24	4	1	44	14	1	1
Daystar	58	18	3	1	34	11	1	1
KU	45	14	3	1	24	7	1	1
MU	34	11	3	1	38	12	1	1
SU	45	14	3	1	-		-	-
CUEA	54	17	3	1	-		-	-
St.Paul's	42	13	3	1	-		-	-
PUEA	43	13	3	1	-		-	-
Nazarene	36	11	2	1	-		-	-
KPUC	45	14	2	1	-		-	-
MPUC	-	-	-	-	85	26	1	1
Total	581	180	40	12	283	87	7	7

Key: UON= University of Nairobi, JKUAT= Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, MKU= Mount Kenya University, CUEA=Catholic University of Eastern Africa, PUEA= Presbyterian University of Eastern Africa, KPUC=Kenya Polytechnic University College, MPUC= Mombasa Polytechnic University College, SU=Strathmore University,MU= moi University, KU=Kenyatta University

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instruments in this study included a questionnaire and an interview guide. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (EOQ) was used to

measure the variables in this study. This OCQ has been largely used to measure organizational commitment over the last four decades (Benkhoff, 2000). OCQ has had several versions with Meyer and Allen's (1990) version EOQ being the predominant version. It has been used to measure 48 variables affecting commitment in several parts of the world. The factors postulated by various researchers have continued to vary overtime but they have all been measured using a Likert scale. The instrument was been chosen to promote consistency in measurement of the concept ((Allen & Meyer, 1997; Kipkebut, 2010) and also to facilitate comparison of findings.

The OCQ was used with permission of the developers. The questionnaire (Appendix 2A) with closed – ended questions and a customized Five–Part Likert Scales was used [(Meyer & Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale)] to collect data from the part-time academics. The questionnire consisted of six parts. Part one consisted of items to measure personal datails of the part-time academic staff (questions Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 & Q5). This part was also important since it at the same time measured family responsibilities, which was the first category of independent variables in the study. The family responsibilities category consists of specific variables as the age, gender, marital status, sibling status and the average ages of the siblings. The scales in this part were various including nominal, ordinal and scales. Part two of the questionnaire consisted of items to measure job-ralated category of independent variable (questions Q11, Q12, Q13, & Q14). The specific variables in this category, which were fewer than in the previous category, consisted of supervisor support, co-worker support, access to resources in the employing university and role clarity. The scale used in this case was Likert scale.

Part three of the questionnaire had items focussing on organizational characeristics hypothesied to have a relationship with organizational commitment (questions Q15, Q16, Q17, & Q18). These were variables such as socialization into the employing university, job tenure, existence of opportunities for advancing with post-graduate studies at the university, and the poosibility of possessing a second job. The fourth part of the questionnnare was on the category of economic factors affecting organizational commitment, including perceived opportunism, perceived uncertainty and perceived dependance arising from the employment relationship (questions Q19, Q20, & Q21).

The fifth and second last section of the questionnare consisted of items on organizational commitment (ECQ). This instrument includes 24 items on a Five -point Likert scale which ask respondents to indicate agreement with each item (question Q22). The instrument focusses has 8 items for each of the three components of organizational commitment, that is affective commitment (Q22.A1 - Q22.A8), normative commitment (Q22.N1 - Q22.N8), and continuance commitment (Q22.C1 - Q22.C8). Each item has a 5-point scale ranging from 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 =Indifferent, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

Part six of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended items to collect responses on any issues and challenges faced in the course of carrying out part-time teaching duties and some of the suggestions they could offer. An interview guide (Appendix III) was used to collect qualitative data from the heads of academic departments in the selected HEIs. The items focussed on issues relating to their experiences in engaging and supervising part-time academic staff.

3.5.1 Description of the Likert method

The OCQ is based on a Likert scale. This is an measurement scale developed by Likert Rensis. Likert, in 1932 proposed a method of attitude measurement (Likert, 1967); the same method remains in use today, and was appropriate to the current context. Likert scale questionnaire surveys had been widely used for measuring perceptions and attitudes (Ap & Crompoton, 1993; Lankford, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994) of respondents towards an object and its impact.

The research variables were measured on a 5- point Likert-type scale, with a score of 1 representing ‘strangely disagree’ (‘completely dissatisfied’ or ‘much worse’) and a score of 5 representing ‘strangely agree’ (‘completely satisfied’ or ‘much better). The scale was designed to elicit respondents’ opinion on a range of issues related to the respondents organizational commitment.

In such scales no judges are used to rank the scale statements: it is assumed that all subjects will perceive ‘strongely agree’ as expressing greater favour towards

the attitude statements than ‘moderately agree’ and ‘strongely disagree’ (Likert, 1967; Lankford, 1994). Some of the item statements, should be expressed positively and some negatively to encourage respondents not to respond automatically, but to think about every item. Ideally there should be roughly equal numbers of positively and negatively worded items (Lankford, 1994).

Although Likert scales contain ordinal data, they are often used with interval techniques for scales containing at least five items (Mukherji & Rustagi, 2008). Jaccard and Wan (1996) supported this point by stating that ordinal Likert scale items are commonly used with interval procedures provided that the scale has at least five categories. Labovitz (1970) and Kim (1975) have reported that parametric coefficients are robust to ordinal distortion. In addition, literature review by Jaccard and Wan (1996) indicated that even severe departures from interval-ness do not significantly affect statistical tests based on Likert scales. Individual items can be, and normally are, analyzed by counting how many respondents gave a particular response to the item. A subject’s score is tabulated by assigning a numerical value to each of the answers, ranging from 1 for the alternative at one end of the scale to 5 for the alternative at the other, and then calculating the sum of the numerical values of the answers to all questions (Jennings, 2001). However, Ramchander (2004) pointed out that, the principal objective, which is not uncontroversial, is to arrive at an overall score for all the items combined together.

3.6 Pilot Tesing

A pilot study for the instrument was carried out to ensure that the items in the questionnaire are stated clearly, have the same meaning to all the respondents, and also to give the researcher an idea of approximately how long it would take to complete the questionnaire. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a pilot test is conducted to detect weaknesses in design and instrumentation and to provide proxy data for selection of a probability sample. It should, therefore, draw subjects from the target population and simulate the procedures and protocols that have been designated for data collection. If the study is a survey to be executed by mail, the pilot questionnaire should be mailed. If the design calls for observation by an unobtrusive researcher, this behavior should be practiced. The size of the pilot group may range

from 25 to 100 subjects, depending on the method to be tested, but the respondents do not have to be statistically selected.

Validity and reliability in research are issues that the researcher should address in the design of the study and analysis of the results so that the research can withstand a quality test (Patton, 2002). Justifications on the validity and reliability of the instruments have been discussed below.

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the ability of a measurement instrument to produce the same answer in the same circumstances, time after time (Johnson & Harris, 2002; De Vaus, 2002). This means that if people answered a question the same way on repeated occasions, then the instrument can be said to be reliable. There are three different techniques for assessing reliability in data. These are test-retest, split-half and internal consistency. *Test-retest* method of assessing reliability of data was not found to be suitable for this study because it involves administering the same instrument twice to the same group of subjects, with a time lapse between the first and second test.

This technique is more suitable for longitudinal studies and not for cross-sectional studies. Another disadvantage with this process is that respondents may be sensitised by the first testing or may remember their responses during the second testing thus resulting in artificially high coefficients. The *split-half* reliability technique involves splitting items in a scale into two halves and correlating the results of each half with each other. If the correlations are high, then both parts of the scale are deemed to be measuring the same construct (Johnson & Harris, 2002). The disadvantage with this method is that when the items in the scale are an odd number, for example, 13 or 15 items, one half will have more items than the other half.

In this study, internal consistency method was used. The rationale for internal consistency is that the individual items should all be measuring the same constructs and thus correlates positively to one another (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). The most widely used measure for determining internal consistency is the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The test of reliability is calculated using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Scientist). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges between 0 and 1 (De Vaus, 2002). Higher alpha coefficient values means that scales are more

reliable. As a rule of thumb, acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 or above (Hair *et al.*, 1998; De Vaus, 2002; Maizura, Masilamani & Aris, 2009). However, the value of Cronbach alpha may vary for different studies. For instance, in exploratory research, a Cronbach alpha value of 0.60 is acceptable (Hair *et al.,* 1998; Maizura *et al.,* 2009). Other studies have recommended that reliability coefficient of 0.50 or 0.60 was sufficient for exploratory studies (Nunnally, 1967; Davis & Cosenza, 1988). Further, De Vaus (2002) suggests that the relationship between one item and the rest of the items in the scale should be at least 0.30. Therefore, items with coefficients below 0.30 are considered to be unreliable and should be deleted resulting in improved alpha.

Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale's reliability and validity has been well established by prior researchers (Mowday, *et al.,* 1979; Lee & Johnson, 1991; Eberhardt & Moser, 1995; Martin & Hafer, 1995). Cronbach alpha values in these studies, for example, have ranged from .81 to .93. These results on previous studies on the reliability of the instrument that has been used extensively elsewhere, and which has been adopted for this study, therefore leaves little doubt that it is reliable. It is on this basis that the instrument was subjected to less reliability tests in this study.

One of the most popular form, *pretesting*, relies on colleagues, respondent surrogates, or actual respondents to refine a measuring instrument. This important activity has saved countless survey studies from disaster by using the suggestions of the respondents to identify and change confusing, awkward, or offensive questions and techniques. A total of 35 questionnaires were administered to part-time academics in one private university (Kenya Methodist University) and in one public university (Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology). Thirty one (31) questionnares were returned, out of which 29 were usasble These institutions were not be included in the main study to avoid contamination of the respondents (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). In choosing the respondents for the pilot study, care was also taken that the same part-time academic staff are not teaching in other private or public universities to avoid contamination (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). The respondents were informed that the questionnaire is a pilot for a larger study. A short questionnaire was attached at the end of the main questionnaire in which respondents in the pilot test were asked to indicate the length of time it took to complete the questionnaire; highlight questions that they would find to be ambiguous or which they

would be uncomfortable with and to make any other comments that would improve the questionnaire.

The results of the pilot study indicated a few corrections to the questionnnare administered then. Firstly, a total of six questions were reported to be too long and having unnnecessry repetition. The action taken to improve the items was to rephrase them and make them brief and comprehensive. Secondly, the ordering of items in the Likert scale which were reverse-keyed in the order raised some concerns of possible confusion. The reverse-keyed items were reworded by adopying the normal and standard order with 5 = highly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Indifferent, 2 = Disagree, and 1= Highly Disagree.

The relability tests for the questionnaire in this study gave an overall Cronbach coefficient alpha for the three commitment scales (affective, continuance and normative) of .82. The results of the other reliability tests are shown in Table 4.1 below (See Appendix VI for the detailed scores). However, the individual Cronbach coeffient alpha for normative commitment was rather low at .64. The coefficient for family responsibilities was not computed since the scales used for the various items in this set of characteristics varied greatly to yield any useful findings. As such this set was left out. The coefficient alpha for the rest of the items were within the ranges identified in previous studies (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Kipkebut, 2010).

Table 3.6: Summary of Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for study variables

	Variables	No. of Items Per Variable	Reliability Coefficient Aph a
1.	Family responsibilities	4	N/A
2.	Job-Related Characteristics	4	0.77
3.	Organizational factors	4	0.73
4.	Economic Factors	3	0.76
5.	Affective Commitment	8	0.91
6.	Continuance Commitment	8	0.88
7.	Normative Commitment	8	0.64
8.	Overall Organizational Commitment	24	0.82

Content validity was used in this study. Content validity is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents the content of the concept being measured (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). To ensure content validity, the researcher carried out a thorough review of the literature in order to identify the items required to measure the concepts, for example, organizational commitment, family responsibilities, job characteristics, and organizational factors. The measurement of the concept of organizational commitment, although it has been extensively debated, seems to follow Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualization. The measurement instrument used in this study is adopted (with permission) from of Meyer and Allen's tool based on the same conceptualization. As a means of trying to identify and isolate important determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics, the instrument has an additional section of questions relating to those factors as hypothesised in the local context of this study.

3.7 Data collection procedures

The data collection procedure in this study first involved seeking for authorization from the particular university administration to collect data. Questionnaires were administered through self-report means. The researcher identified the respondents then proceeded to introduce himself and request to drop the questionnaires with the respondent and follow up to collect answered instruments in a in a weeks' time or so afterwards. A covering letter with each questionnaire explained the objectives of the study and assured respondents' confidentiality, and urged them to participate in the study. The respondents' willingness to participate in the survey and provide the data was sought in keeping with the ethical requirements in research. Any respondent who declined to willingly participate was replaced by another one from the same institution in the same category.

The respondents were expected to complete the questionnaires that included responses on family responsibilities, job-related characteristics, organizational factors, economic factors and the three-dimensional measure of organizational commitment. The questionnaire method was selected because it is a relatively unobtrusive and inexpensive method for data collection (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2002). Since the population of the study was large and geographically scattered, it would not have been practicably possible, in terms of time and cost, to have face-to-face encounters (Babbie, 1995). In addition, telephone costs would been prohibitive, which ruled out the possibility of carrying out telephone interviews. Postal surveys were also ruled out because postal services in Kenya are unreliable and would, therefore, affect the response rates.

The main advantages of using questionnaires were as follows: they contained standard questions which were administered to a large number of respondents in Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya within a short time and at minimum cost. Through questionnaires, one does not encounter the difficulties arising from interviewer/interviewee interaction (Oppenheim, 1992). Again, respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality and this enabled them to complete the questionnaire when it was convenient and in their own time (De Vaus, 2002). Data collected using questionnaire is also amenable for analysis using statistical packages.

The interviews schedule involved face-to-face interviews among heads of academic departments in each of the selected institutions. These were administered following the findings of the questionnaires. The purpose of these interviews was be to investigate in depth the emerging trends from the findings of the questionnaires administered so as to provide more evidence to clarify and support on data collected through questionnaires.

3.8 Data Management

The data collected was checked for accuracy before proceeding with analysis. The data files were checked for accuracy and any missing that some respondents did not answer and these were deleted. Only cases with full answers were considered. The paved way for testing for the distribution of the data. One way of looking to see whether the distribution as a whole deviates from a comparable normal distribution is to administer tests of normality to the data (Field, 2005)). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (K-S) tests are some of the tests that help to do this.They compare the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of score; with the same mean and standard deviation. If the test is non-significant ($p > .05$) it tells us that the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution (i.e. it is probably normal). If, however, the test is significant ($p < .05$) then the distribution in question is significantly different from a normal distribution (i.e. it is non-normal). These tests seem great: in one easy procedure they tell us whether the scores are normally distributed.

The findings of the K-S analysis carried out for the sample data in this study is as shown in Appendix XIII . In all the cases represented in Appenxix XIII, all the probabilities ($D(227) = .00$, $p < .05$) are less than .05 (the typical alpha level), hence the data is normally distributed. This finding meant that parametric methods were applicable to test the hypothesis in this study.

3.9 Data processing and analysis

This was a major part of the research next following the field work. The details here are divided into three. First, it explains about the measurement of the

variables of the study. Second, it proceeds to explain how quantitative data was analysed. Lastly it explains how qualitative data was analysed.

3.9.1. Measurement of the variables

This study involved measurement and of eight sets of factors: family responsibilities, job-related characteristics, organizational factors, economic factors, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and overall organizational commitment. Family responsibilities have previously been considered in previous studies as determinants of commitment in line with the side-bet theory (Becker, 1960; Mayer & Allen,1984). Age and the average ages of siblings were measured in years on a grouped distribution showing several age groups. Gender, marital status and sibling status were measured as dichotomous variables (gender:1 = male, 2 = female; mariatal status:1 = married, 2 = not married; sibling status:1 = I have children, 2 = I have no children). This has been used in a previous similar study (Veled-Hecht & Cohen, 2010).

Job-related characteristics in this study applied quite a number of separate measures. Supervisory support was measured using an instrument based on Gartner and Nollen's (1989) and Taylor and Bower's (1972) measures on a Likert sacle. Access to resources was measured using an instrument adapted from Spreitzer (1996) while role clarity was was measured using a scale by Rizzo *et al.,* (1970).

One of the organizational factors included a second job (1 = Yes; 2 = No). The rest of the organizational factors were measured using a Likert scale following a scale developed by Haueter, *et al.,* (2003) in line with earlier measures that consider that socialization is part of organizational learning and can be measured (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Economic factors, which were actually measurements of perception, were measured using a model on a Likert scale. The dependence scale was based on the items used by Allen and Meyer (1990), Ruyter and Wetzels (1999) and Antia and Frazier (2001). The uncertainty scale was based on a scale by Martin, (2008). However, this particular scale has been validated in past research (Martı´n, 2003). Finally, the perception of firm opportunism (searching self-interest over mutual interest, hiding or distorting information, deceiving or non-fulfilment of agreements)

was measured following the scales proposed by John (1984), Ping (1993), Morgan and Hunt (1994) and Achrol and Gundlach (1999). Organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative and overall organizational commitment) was measured using Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire.

3.9.2 Analysis of quantitative data

Data obtained from the questionnaire was initially coded in to numerical representations so that a series of statistical analysis could be performed using the software application package, the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) version 20. The SPSS software enables the researcher: to enter and store data; to utilize retrieval strategies; to engage in statistical analysis; and to generate relevant graphs, and figures. The Likert scale used in the questionnaire had instructions to the the respondents to rank their responses to the questions according to the scale levels provided. This facilitated the coding of the data. Coding in quantitative analysis differs from that of qualitative coding in that the raw data is turned into numerical representations to allow for statistical analyses to be conducted on the aggregated data (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001). A code was developed for each of the response sets in the questionnaire, and numerical codes were assigned for each response. These responses were then turned into a series of numbers for capture using the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) software for further statistical analysis. The researcher checked and cleared the data by examining the coded data for any incorrectly assigned codes and correcting these errors by reviewing the original data. Any missing cases were eliminated. This paved way for various types of analysis using SPSS.

The use of quantitative methods in social science generally means the application of a statistical model to social science data, and a statistical model is simply a set of compatible probabilistic assumptions. This study was basically set to develop a model of predictors of organizational commitment among part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. To achieve this goal, and in line with quantitative analysis, there are assumptions that must apply. Fundamentally, assumptions are modelling choices made by a researcher concerning the distribution of the data to be modelled, how the parameters of that distribution change over observations or time, and the dependence of one observation on another. The assumptions serve the dual

purpose of reducing the number of parameters in the model that must be estimated and imbuing potential estimators with certain properties. According to Field (2006) the goals of the modelling process are description and inference, and how well a model accomplishes these goals is a direct function of how appropriate its assumptions are for a particular data set.

A statistical model is a mathematical representation of the actual process in the world that generated the data (known as a data generating process or DGP) (Cooper & Schindler, 2004). The point of creating a statistical model is both to describe the data produced by the DGP and to make inferences about features of the DGP that are unknown. As such, the model, itself consists of a set of assumptions. Assumptions are characteristics of models and not characteristics of data, and the question to ask of a model is not whether it is true or false, but how descriptively useful is it. Models are more or less useful in describing a given data set, and when an assumption fails to be useful in the process of description, the error lies with the model, not the data. The practice and art of data analysis lies in understanding which assumptions, and therefore which models and estimators, are appropriate for a given data set. This understanding comes from three sources: the data themselves, theory, and substantive knowledge. Some assumptions can be tested, but such tests are often inconclusive, work only under specific conditions, and rarely provide more than vague recommendations. Information drawn from theory and substantive knowledge of the process being modelled are far more reliable guides.

There are various assumptions of the Linear Regression Model. Most discussions of model assumptions begin with the linear regression model. Although linear regression is no longer the workhorse of social science pride of place goes to the generalized linear model—the linear regression model serves as a good starting point as the various roles that the assumptions play in the model are clear, and some simple results can be established. Five assumptions commonly comprise the linear regression model. These are: 1) no exact linear relationships exist among the regressors (X has full column rank); 2) X is nonstochastic (regressors are fixed in repeated samples); 3) the expectation of the disturbance term is zero (E[ ] = 0); 4) homoscedasticity and no autocorrelation (spherical disturbances, E[σ 2 I); and 5) the disturbances are normally distributed (~ N (0, σ 2)).] The linear regression model makes these assumptions, not because they are substantively likely to describe a data

set (more on this later), but because they imbue the least squares estimator with certain properties that are considered good, namely unbiasedness and efficiency. These will be shown how they apply or held true in the account of data analysis in this study.

"Univariate data analysis is the analysis of single variables" (Ramchander, 2004, p.121). This was done through descriptive statistics. According to Mouton (2001), descriptive statistics organize and summarize the data to render it more comprehensible. Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to describe trends in the data and also to determine whether relationships exist between variables. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data generated by the survey in terms of the distribution of responses for each variable and the relationships between variables. For this study, the researcher used of the several descriptive statistics, with a range of aims. First, the calculation of frequencies and percentages expressed as tables. Frequencies are commonly performed to count how many people answered each question with each particular response (Anderson, MacLellan-Wright, & Barber, 2007).

The distribution of responses for the independent variables, and the dependent variable were summarized using frequency tables and measurements of central tendency namely mean. The mean is the sum of the individual scores in a distribution, divided by the number of scores (Vogt, 1993). The mean can be found for ordinal and interval variables; third, measurements of dispersion of the data using the standard deviation (SD) of the measurements. The SD is a measure of how much, on average, the scores in a distribution deviate from the mean score (Vogt, 1993). This provides a reflection of how homogeneous or heterogeneous a population is. The SD further provides an indication of the average distance from the mean (Vogt, 1993). "A low SD would mean that most observations cluster around the mean. A high SD would indicate considerable variation in the responses" (Ramchander, 2004, 122).

The analysis of two variables, or bivariate analysis, became necessary for this study. Correlations as instruments of bivariate analysis and testing the significance of a difference between means were used. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), "For bivariate linear correlation, the correlation of x and y produces an estimate of linear association based on sampling data. The coefficient of determination explains

common variance of x and y. For bivariate linear regression, the correlation of Y-X is the same as the correlation between the predicted value of Y and observed value of Y. The coefficient determines the proportion of variability of Y explained by its least-square regression on X" (p.580).

The hypothesis testing aimed to answer the research questions of this study by testing their respective hypotheses (see Section 1.5). The first hypotheses (H_1) were concerned with testing the correlation beyween family responsibilties and organizational commitment. The next hypotheses H_2, H_3, and H_4, were concerned with testing correlations between the TCM of organizational commitment and job-related factors, economic factors and organizational factors. The final hypothesis concerned the testing the model fit of organization and its predictors (H_6). The relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables (affective, normative, continuance, and overall organizational commitment) were investigated using the bivariate test of significance Pearson Correlation analysis. However, the final hypothesis was tested using bivariate Linear Regression Analysis that investigated the effect of the selected and hypothesised independent variables on the dependent variable (organizational commitment).

The Pearson correlation coefficient is used to measure the degree of linear relationship. The Pearson (product moment) correlation coefficient varies over a range +1 through 0 to -1. The designation r symbolizes the coefficient's estimate of linear association based on the sampling data. Correlation coefficient was used to reveal the magnitude and direction of relationships between the variables under study. The magnitude is the degree to which variables move in unison or opposition. When stronger relationships are apparent (for example the +-.90 correlation) the points will cluster close to an imaginary straight line passing through the data. The weaker relationships (+-.40) will depict a more diffuse data cloud with points spread further from the line. Should the values correspond in this way the two variables will have a positive relationship. As one increases the other will also increase. In cases were variables are inversely related, large values on the first variable will be associated with small values on the second and vice versa.

Multivariate analysis has been defined as "those statistical techniques which focus upon, and bring out in bold relief, the structure of simultaneous relationships

among three or more phenomena" (Cooper & Schindler 2003, p.611). For the analysis of multivariate data, a range of more complex parametric tests were conducted on the data. In this study criterion and predictor variables exited in the research questions, so there was an assumption of dependence. Multiple regression analysis is a technique where criterion or dependent variables and predictor or independent variables are present (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Multiple regeression was done in this study to establish the independent variables that predict the dependent variables, at the same time dropping those that do not.

3.9.4 Steps in quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data from the questionnaire was analysed in several stages. First, the data was cleaned of any inconsistent responses and incomplete responses. The data was coded using a statistical software (Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) version 20). The sample was also subjected to descriptive analysis and finally inferential statistical analysis. The procedure that was used to establish the dimensionality of organisational commitment was factor analysis using principal component analysis (PCA). Factor analysis and PCA are related techniques which are used to analyse groups of related variables and reducing them into a small number of factors or components. This procedure was used to find out whether three factors could be extracted from the twenty four items of organisational commitment to represent affective, normative and continuance commitment. Three main steps were followed in conducting factor analysis namely; assessment of the suitability of the data; factor extraction, and factor rotation and interpretation (Pallant, 2006). Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed (Hair *et al.,* 1998; Pallant, 2006). The sample size of this study was above the recommended limit for factor analysis (Hair *et al*., 1998).

The stepwise regression (backward) method begins by placing all the predictors in the model and then calculating the contribution of each one by looking at the significance value of the t-test for each predictor (Field, 2005). The significant value is compared against a removal criterion (which can be either an absolute value of the test statistic or a probability value for that test statistic). If a predictor meets the removal criterion (that is, if it is not making a ststistically significant contribution to how well the model predicts the outcome variable) it is removed from the model and

the model is re-estimated for the remaining predictors. The contribution of the remaining predictors is then reassessed.

3.9.5 Analysis of qualitative data

According to Blanche and Durrheim (1999), qualitative data analysis tends to be primarily an inductive process of organizing data into categories and identifying patterns. Babbie (1995) stated that, the most general guide to analyzing qualitative data involved looking for similarities and dissimilarities. The focus must be on those patters of interactions and events that are generally common to what the researcher is studying (Babbie, 1995). This type of analysis formed the core of analyzing the qualitative data collected during this study. Themes were identified, and the data was then classified into categories and themes (Ramchander, 2004).

Qualitative data collected (through the unstructured section of the questionnaire and the interview guide) was coded, and repeated themes (responses) or concepts were recorded until saturation was achieved (Jennings, 2001; Veal, 1997). The essence of the analysis procedure was to return to the terms of reference, the research problem and questions of the research, and begin to sort and evaluate the information gathered in relation to the question posed (Finn *et al.,* 2000). In this way an explanation of the actual meaning of the data and logical reasoning could be achieved (Babbie, 1995).

3.9.6 Procedure for hypothesis testing

To test a hypothesis means to tell (on the basis of the data the researcher has collected) whether or not the hypothesis seems to be valid. In hypothesis testing the main question is whether to accept the null hypothesis or not or to accept the null hypothesis. Procedure for hypothesis testing refers to all those steps that we undertake for making a choice between the two actions i.e., rejection and acceptance of a null hypothesis. Although there is no generally accepted number of steps in the procedure for hypothesis testing, there are however some common and impoertant steps (Kothari, 2004; Field, 2005; Cooper & Schindler, 2002). These are steps include: making a formal hypotheis statement of both the null hypothesis (H_0) and also the alternative

hypothesis (H_a); selecting a significance level, which can be set at 5%level or 1% level; deciding the sampling distribution to use; selecting a random sample and computing an appropriate value of the test statistic; calculating of the probability; and comparing the probability with the specified value to make a decision to reject or not to reject the null hypothesis.

As has been stated above that hypothesis testing determines the validity of the assumption (technically described as null hypothesis) with a view to choose between two conflicting hypotheses about the value of a population parameter. Hypothesis testing helps to decide on the basis of a sample data, whether a hypothesis about the population is likely to be true or false. Statisticians have developed several tests of hypotheses (also known as the tests of significance) for the purpose of testing of hypotheses which can be classified as parametric tests or standard tests of hypotheses and non-parametric tests or distribution-free test of hypotheses.

Parametric tests usually assume certain properties of the parent population from which we draw samples. Assumptions like observations come from a normal population, sample size is large, assumptions about the population parameters like mean, variance, etc., must hold good before parametric tests can be used. The important parametric tests are: (1) z-test; (2) t-test; (*3) X^2-test; and (4) F- test. All these tests are based on the assumption of normality i.e., the source of data is considered to be normally distributed. In some cases the population may not be normally distributed, yet the tests will be applicable on account of the fact that we mostly deal with samples and the sampling distributions closely approach normal distributions. The test statistic used in this study was the F- test and χ^2 test.

The F-test is based on the normal probability distribution and is used for judging the significance of several several statistical measures, particularly the mean. The relevant test statistic, F, is worked out and compared with its probable value (to be read from table showing area under normal curve at a specified level of significance for judging the significance of the measure concerned. F-test is generally used for comparing the mean of a sample to some hypothesized mean for the population in case of large sample, or when population known. The χ^2 test was applied to the first set of hypotheis since the data was categorical and did not yield iteself to being analysed using other tests.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the methodology used in the study. The quantitative study design by use of survey was used for the study. The population, clasified as hard-to-reach, consisted of part-time academic staff and departmental academic administartors from selected HEIs in Nairobi and Mombasa cities. There was no readily available list of part-time academics available for the study and therefore the sampling frame was developed through capture-recature method. The sampling technique used was muti-stage consisting of sevral stages of srtatified and simple random sampling and time-location sampling. Data was collected through the administering of questionnaires to part-time academic staff and conducting interviews with the academic heads of departments.

Job-related factors were measured using an instrument by Gartner and Nollen's and Taylor and Bower's (1972) questionnaire. Organizational factors were majorly measured using a Likert sacle by Hauerter *et al.,* (2003). Economic factors were measured on a Likert scale Allen and Meyer (1990), Ruyerand Wetzels (1999), Antier and Frezier (2001) and Martin (2008).Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics; and qualitative analysis. The relationship between variables was was analysed using Pearson correlation analysis while the test of factors predicting independent variable was done through regression analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussions of the study. The chapter is divided into four parts. Part one presents a summary of the response rate for the study. Part two is a summary of the reliability and validity tests of the data for the study. Part three presents the research findings based on the six hypotheses classified under affective, normative and continuance commitments together with discussions of the results of the study. Part four is a summary of the hypothesis testing of the study and a conlusion for the chapter.

PART I: PRE - ANALYSIS

This part presents results of pre-analysis for this study. The major pre-analysis conducted included basic tests of reponse rate, and descriptive statistics of the study sample. An attempt was made at checking the applicability of the TCM of organizational commitment in Kenya. These are as discussed below.

4.2 Response Rate

The total population of part-time academic staff in the selected HEIs was 864 where a sample of 267 was targeted. A total of 267 questionnaires were delivered to the respondents in the sample. 243 qustionarres were returned but 16 were not in useable form leaving a total of 227 in usable form. This represents a response rate of 85% for the part-time academic staff in the sample. Out of the 19 academic heads of departments who were selected, 12 accepted and were interviewed representing 63%. This response rate has been considered to be adequate in survey research (Baruch, 1999; Roth and BeVier, 1998). Baruch (1999) suggested that an average response ratye of 55.6% was adequate while Roth and BeVier (1998) suggetsed that 50% was usually adequate. This was an improvement to previous studies on surveys for part-time academic staff that achieved a much less response rate (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006; Murphy, 2009).

4.3 Demographic characteristics of respondents

The results indicated that there was a larger percentage of male part-time lectures (70.5 %) compared to the female ones (29.5%). This is as shown in Figure 4.3 (a) . The results show that the 30-39 age bracket is more actively involved in part-time teaching. This is closely followed by the 40-49 bracket. This is dispalyed in Figire 4.3 (b). The findings on marital status shows that 83 % of the respondents were married. A small percentage (17%) were unmarried.

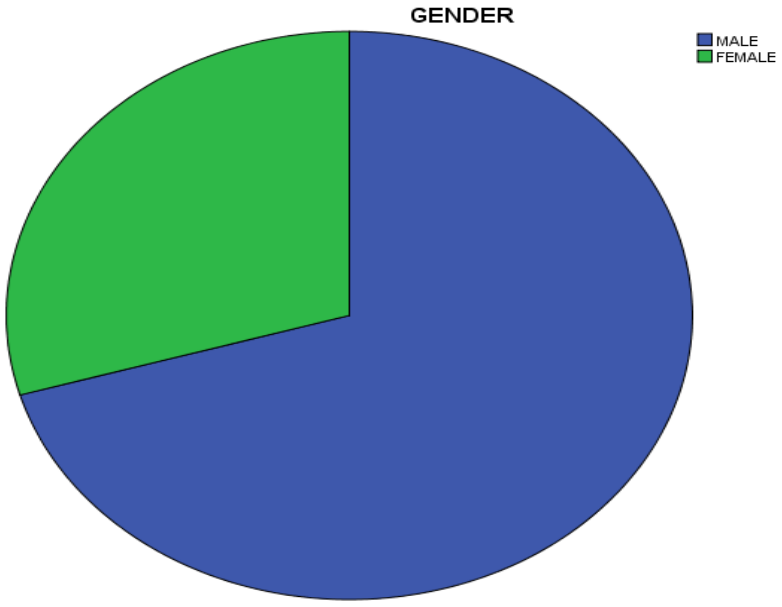


Figure 4.3 (a) Respondents'Gender

The findings show that with regard to sibling status, 83% of the respondents reported that they have children. The findings also indicate that most (59%) of part-time lecturers have children below the teen ages. This is in agreement with the average ages since on average most parents under 45 tend to have small children below the age of 12. The aspect of longevity of servive in part-time teaching gave mixed results. On one hand, there were many entrants (32%). On the other hand, there were almost equally similar number (29%) who had a service in excess of 10 semesters.

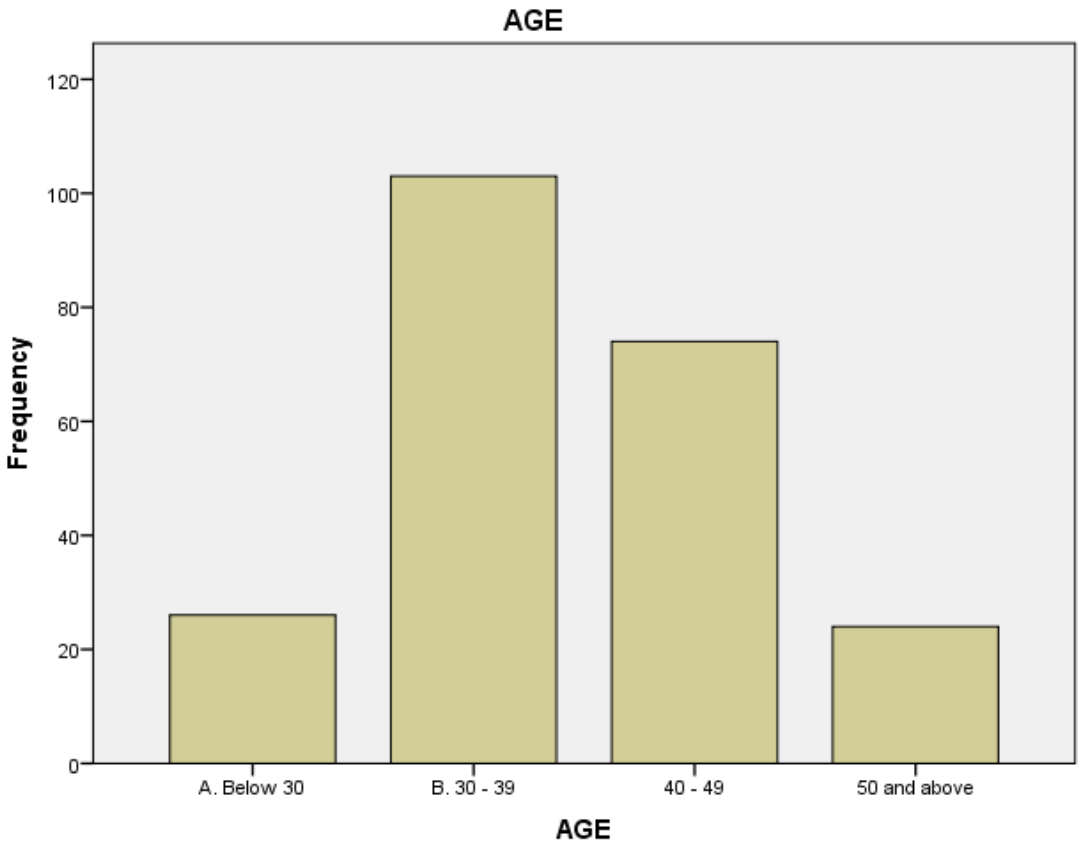


Figure 4.3 (b) Respondents'Age

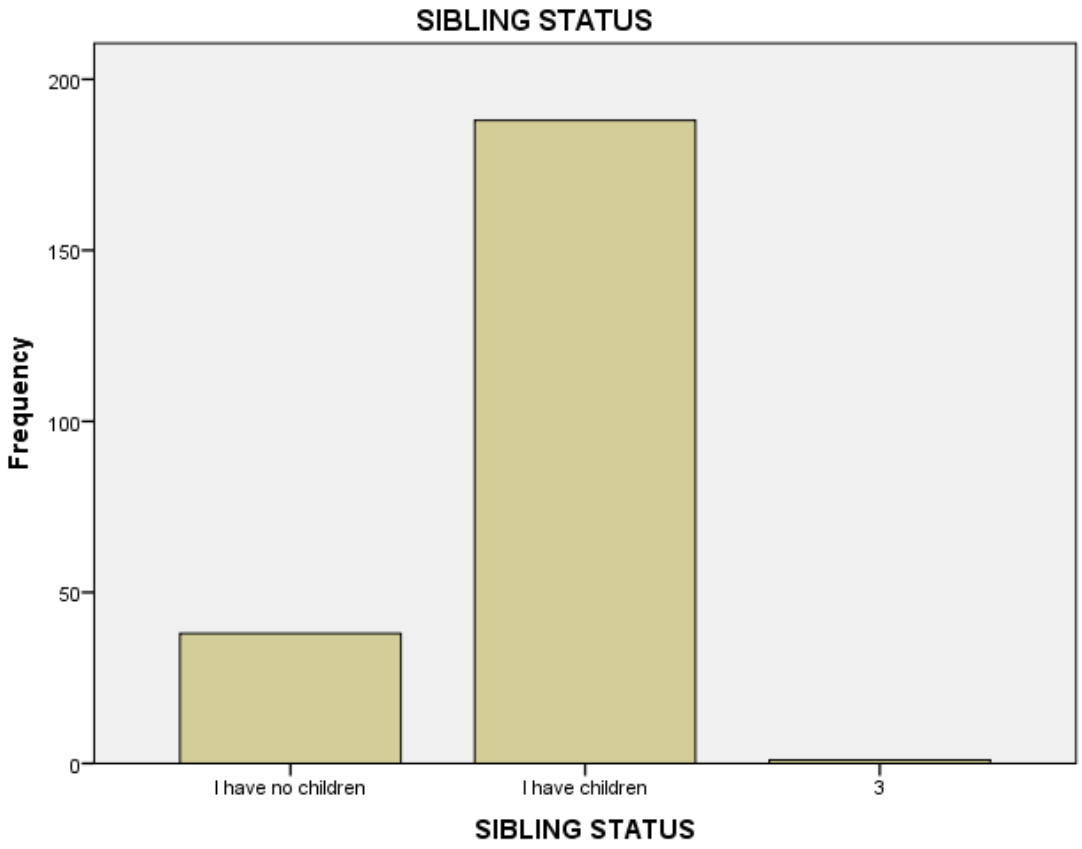


Figure 4.3 (c) Respondents' Sibling Status

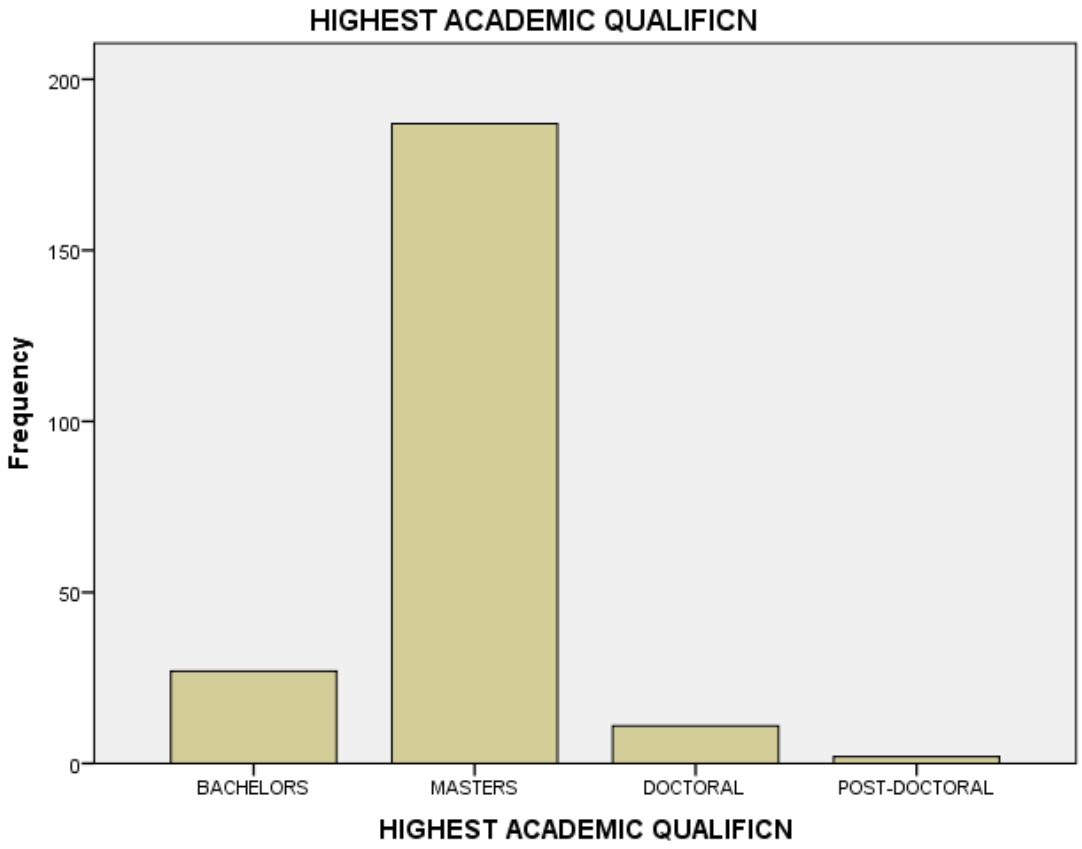
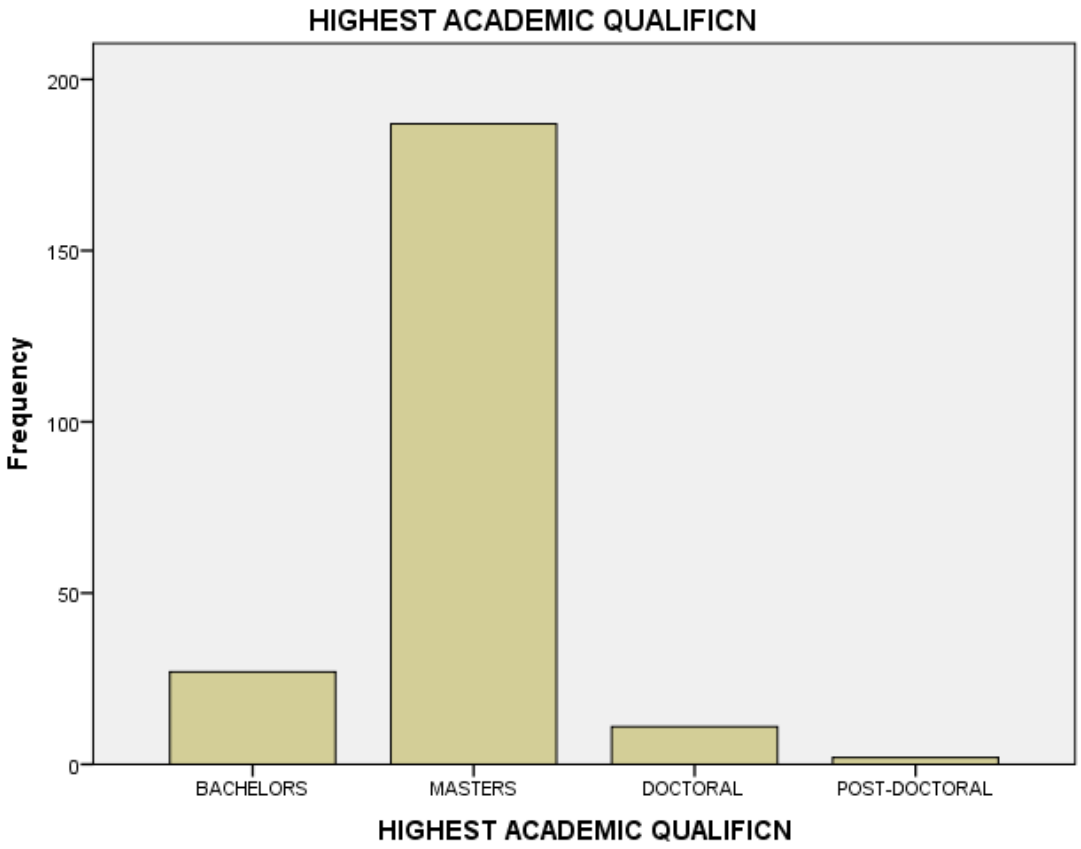


Figure 4.3 (d) Respondents'Highest Academic Quaifications

The result of the item on highest academic qualifications possessed by respondents show that most of the staff are holders of masters degree (82%). This trend is worrying compared to the 5% who possess doctoral degree and above. The study had an item solociting for responses on the nature of other income generating activities part-time academics are engaged in. The results show that most of them have a full-time job and hence the part-time teaching is just as moonlighting activity. However, 29% reported that they are solely involved in part-time teaching as their only income-generating activity.


HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICN
Frequency
200
150
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50
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BACHELORS
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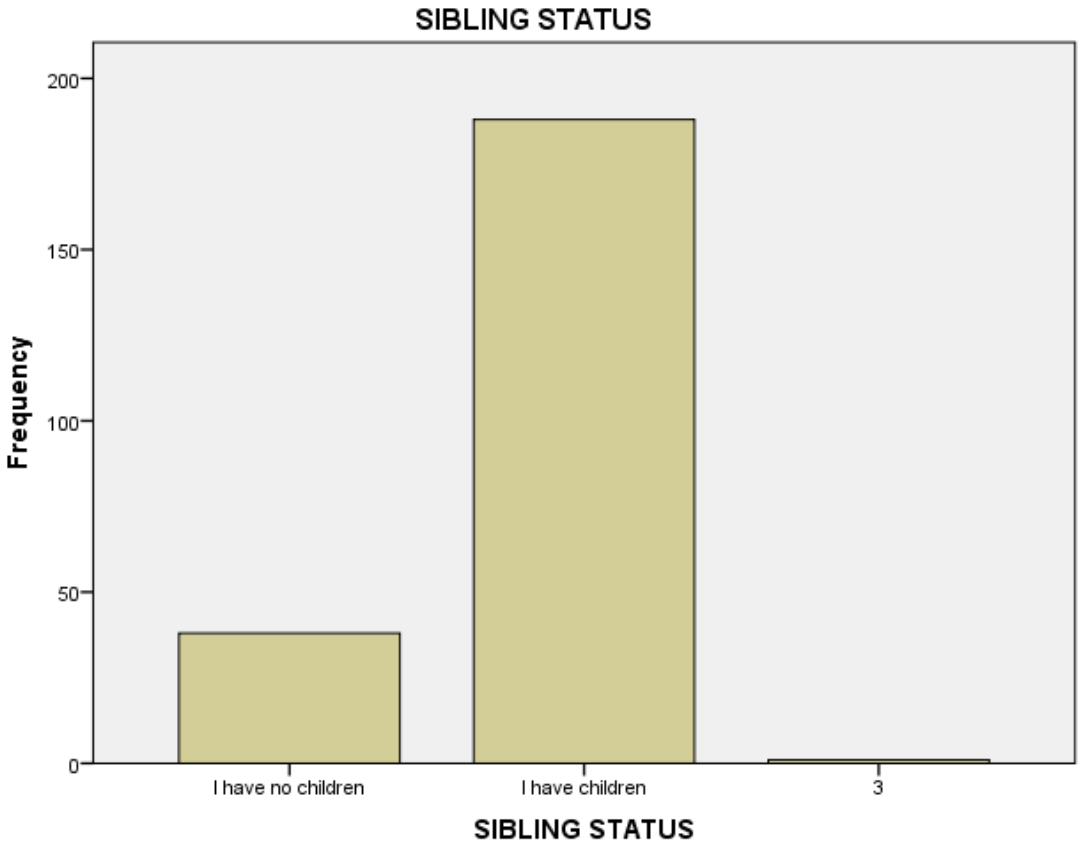
SIBLING STATUS
Frequency
200
150
100
50
0
I have no children
I have children
3
SIBLING STATUS

On whether the respondents had full-time jobs, 58% were on the affirmative. This study set out to find the work sector where the part-time academics work on a full-time basis. While 40% confirmed that they have no full-time job, the bulk of the rest were in the education and training sectors. The results are as represented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Demographic Characteristics of respondents

Characteristic	Classes	Frequency	Percent
Age of Respondents	Below 30	26	11.5
	30 – 39	103	45.4
	40 – 49	74	32.6
	50 and above	24	10.6
Marital Status	Married	189	83.3
	Not Married	38	16.7
Gender	Male	160	70.5
	Female	67	29.5
Sibling Status	I have no children	38	16.7
	I have children	188	82.8
Average ages of children	1-6	76	33.5
	7-12	58	25.6
	13-18	34	15.0
	19 and above	25	11.0
	Missing	34	15.0

Table 4.4 Organizational Factors

Characteristic	Classes	Frequency	Percent
Total semesters in university teaching	1-3	73	32.2
	4-6	43	18.9
	7-9	40	17.6
	10 and above	65	28.6
	Missing	6	2.6
Income generating activiries involved in	Part-Time Teaching	67	29.5
	Consultancies	24	10.6
	Business	51	22.5
	Full-Time Job	83	36.6
	Others	2	.9

This means that the same full-time staff in HEIs participate a lot in part-time teaching; and this is supported by those who work in the secondary eduacation sector and the tartiary training sector.

4.3.1 Descriptives on job-related factor

A summary of the descriptive statistics on job-related factor is shown in Table 4.3.1. The results show that the mean ranged from 3.59 to a high of 4.22. This indicates a trend towards a normally distributed sample. The standard deviation also

indicates a situtation of consistency in the way the factors were rated by the respondents.

Table 4.3.1: Job-related factor

	N	$\bar{x}$	σ
Supervisor Support	227	4.19	.938
Co-Worker Support	227	3.98	.833
Access To Resources	227	3.59	1.079
Role Clarity	227	4.22	.863

4.3.2 Descriptives on organizational factors and economic factors

The organizational and economic factors used in the study were also subjected to descriptive statistical analysis. The results are summarised in Table 4.3.2. The results in Table 4.3.2 above show that most respondents were in between being indifferent and being in agreement in all the organizational factors and economic factors: existence of socialization for part-time academic staff ($\bar{x}$ = 3.56); second job ($\bar{x}$ = 3.67); opportunities for further studies ($\bar{x}$ = 3.56); organizational factors ($\bar{x}$ = 3.37); perceived dependability ($\bar{x}$ = 3.58); perceived opportunism ($\bar{x}$ = 3.65); and perceived uncertainty($\bar{x}$ = 3.09). . This indicates a situation of not being sure to take a positive stand on the employing HEIs ability in the past to impact positively on the part-time academic staff on these aspects of their nature of part-teaching role.

Table 4.3.2: Organizational Factors and Economic Factors

	N	$\bar{x}$	σ
Employee Socialization	227	3.56	1.133
Second Job	227	3.67	1.423
Opportunities Further Studies	227	3.56	1.230
Organizational factors	227	3.37	1.196
Perceived Dependability	227	3.58	1.055
Perceived Opportunism	227	3.65	1.196
Perceived Uncertainty	227	3.09	1.281

Key: n = Sample Size, $\bar{x}$ = Mean, σ = Standard Deviation, n = 227, $\bar{x}$ was calculated from a Likert scale consisting of 5 levels, 1-5.

The results similarly indicate that the sample was normally distributed and the responses were consistent with a very small difference in the scores for standard deviation.

4.3.3 Descriptives on affective commitment

Affective commitment is one of the dimensions in the Three Component Model of organizational commitment (TCM). The results of the scores of the organizational commitment were subjected to descriptive statistical analysis. The results are shown in Table 4.4.3. The results show that the mean are slightly above the 50% and that most respondents were between being indifferent and being in agreement about their feelings or affections towards the employing HEIs. This means that although part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya are not negative about the

employing HEIs, they are however not very positive about the same. This aspect of being slightly above the borderline indicates that not many part-time academic staff has been very impressed by the employing HEIs and hence can barely and slightly be affectionately attached to the HEIs.

Table 4.3.3: Descriptives on Affective Commitment

Affective Commitment Statements	n	$\bar{x}$	σ
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	227	3.63	1.192
I enjoy discussing the university with people outside of it	227	3.53	1.098
I really feel as if this employing university's problems are my own	227	3.01	1.203
I think I could not become as easily attached to another employing university as I am to this one	227	3.08	1.130
I do feel "emotionally attached" to this university	227	3.32	1.132
I do feel like "part of the family" at this university	227	3.52	1.102
This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me	227	3.54	1.082
I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my university	227	3.59	1.062

Key: n = Sample Size, $\bar{x}$ = Mean, σ = Standard Deviation, n = 227, $\bar{x}$ was calculated from a Likert scale consisting of 5 levels, 1-5.

4.3.4 Descriptives on continuance commitment

The descriptives statistical anaalysis of the continuance commitment component of the TCM was also done. The summary results are shown in Table 4.4.4. The results show that there was not a very big difference in the range. The standard

deviation scores are all around 1 which indicates a consistency in the ratings. The means for the most aspects on continuance commitment ranged below 3.0 (being indiferrent) indicating that they disagreed with regard with the aspect of continuing to work for the employng HEIs on part-time basis despite the fact that they currently performed those part-time teaching roles. This finding holds some correlation with previous reports (Odour, 2004) that part-time lecturers have no commitment to the university. Muindi (2012) called this trend “travelling lecturers” referring to the tendency of part-time lecturers not sticking to one employer. This could as well lead to the conclusion that part-time lecturers have low continuance commitment to the organizaions.

Table 4.3.4: Descriptives Cotinuance Commitment

Continuance Commitment Statements	N	$\bar{x}$	σ
Right now, staying with this university is a necessity as much as a desire	227	3.48	1.118
It would be very hard for me to leave this university right now, even if I wanted to	227	2.92	1.228
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this university now	227	2.99	1.206
I feel that I have to few options to consider my employing university where I teach on part-time basis	227	2.91	1.011
One of the major reasons that I continue to work for this e university is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice of benefits that I cannot get elsewhere.	227	2.84	1.145
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university basis would be the scarcity of available alternatives	227	2.97	1.213
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job right now without having another one lined up	226	3.02	1.327
It would be too costly for me to leave this university in the near future	226	2.67	1.185

Key: n = Sample Size, $\bar{x}$ = Mean, σ = Standard Deviation, n = 227, $\bar{x}$ was calculated from a Likert scale consisting of 5 levels, 1-5.

4.3.5 Descriptives on normative commitment

Normative commitment is the third component in the Three Component Model of organizational commitment. The data on normative commitment was also subjected to descriptive statistical analysis. The results are shown in Table 4.4.5. The results indicate that most respondents were indifferent about the adhering to the values and norms of the organizations. This means that the loyalty and trust by part-

time academic staff is low. There has been an inherent fear that part-time academic staff are just out for economic gain notwithstanding that the organization has values thay should adhere to like integrity, honesty, fair dealing, professionalism, customer focus etc. These findings seem to confirm such fears as having some basis, a matter which could result in the downfall of an organization.

Table 4.3.5: Descriptives Normative Commitment

Normative Commitment Statements	N	$\bar{x}$	σ
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one employer	227	3.13	1.194
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave this university	227	2.69	1.191
I think that people these days move from employer to employer too often	227	3.58	1.038
I do believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her employer	227	3.64	1.073
Jumping from one employing university to another university to teach on part-time basis does not seem at all unethical to me	227	3.42	1.257
One of the major reasons that I continue to work here is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore, feel a sense of moral obligation to remain	227	3.15	1.170
Things were better in the days when people stayed with one employer for most of their careers	227	2.73	1.143
I do think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company woman” is still very sensible today.	227	3.01	1.018

Key: n = Sample Size, $\bar{x}$ = Mean, σ = Standard Deviation, n = 227, $\bar{x}$ was calculated from a Likert scale consisting of 5 levels, 1-5.

The results are similar to the results of the other dimensions in the TCM of organisational commitment. The mean scores do not show a big range and hence the data was normally distributed. The scores on standard deviation also indicate a consistency in the ratings across the board.

4.4 Dimensionality of organizational commitment

The Three-Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) was developed in the US (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It was initially tested there and this has spread to other developed economy contexts (Jarus, 2007: Watsi, 2003). It has been posited that models developed in the developed world have limited applicability in the developing world contexts (Kipkebut, 2010). The TCM has been scarcely tested in developnig country contexts. This study has made a rare attempt to assess the applicability of this model in the developng country context.

The procedure that was used to establish the dimensionality of organisational commitment was factor analysis using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Factor analysis and PCA are related techniques which are used to analyse groups of related variables and reducing them into a small number of factors or components. This procedure was used to find out whether three factors could be extracted from the twenty four items of organisational commitment to represent affective, normative and continuance commitment. Three main steps were followed in conducting factor analysis namely; assessment of the suitability of the data; factor extraction, and factor rotation and interpretation (Pallant, 2006).

Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Pallant, 2006). The sample size of this study was above the recommended limit for factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998). An inspection of the correlation matrix of the 24 organisational commitment items revealed that most of the correlation coefficients (r) were greater than 0.30 ($p < 0.05$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.809, which was above the recommended value (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Pallant, 2006). In addition, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p < 0.01$) which indicated the factorability of the correlation matrix. The results are shown in Appendix XVIII. The factor analysis shows that organisational commitment had six components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 explaining a combined variance of 64.05 % of the variance. In this regard, it was decided to retain the six factors for further analysis. Varimax rotation was

performed to aid in the interpretation of the six extracted factors, as shown in Table: 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Factor analysis of the various items representing the 3 dimensions of organizational commitment using varimax rotation.

Organizational Commitment items	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	.844	-.006	.068	.047	.151	-.186
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	.842	.031	.122	-.036	.194	-.109
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.827	-.024	.069	-.009	.125	-.219
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	.817	.084	.068	.096	-.018	.063
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	.663	.128	-.007	-.011	.110	.210
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	.660	-.015	-.005	.211	-.265	.005
I think I could become as easily attached to anotherorganization as I am to this one	.614	.159	-.012	.045	-.139	.381
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it	.577	.228	.125	-.116	-.164	-.237
Right now, staying with my organization is a necessity as much as a desire	.528	.243	-.049	.186	.315	.134
It would not be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future	.133	.811	.103	.063	-.100	-.110
One of the major reasons that I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here	.073	.788	.036	.151	.121	.123
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	.095	.737	.123	-.059	-.060	.123
I feel that I have to few options to consider leaving this organization	.019	.723	-.102	.211	-.002	-.051
I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job right now without having another one lined up	.013	.706	.151	-.346	.279	-.169
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	.034	.693	.152	-.277	.224	.241

It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	.214	.671	.169	.247	-.213	.195
I do not think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company woman” is sensible anymore	.013	-.008	.780	.021	.123	.029
Thing were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers	.029	.191	.730	-.034	-.130	.005
One of the major reasons that I continue to work here is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore, feel a sense of moral obligation to remain	.163	.222	.692	.166	-.088	.211
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization	.044	.100	.557	.413	.194	-.391
I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization	.152	-.131	.476	.454	.140	.183
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization	.077	.162	.154	.766	.143	-.003
I think that people these days move from company to company too often	.158	.024	.021	.181	.794	.102
Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me	-.185	.201	.269	.053	.226	.677

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Organizational commitment was measuresd using Meyer and Allen’s Organizational Comitment Scale which includes 24 items. Exploratory factor analysis of Meyer and Allen’s (1997) organizational commitmnet scale (affective, continuance and normative commitment) using principal component analysis with varimax rotation for all the three scales produced a five-factor model. The criterion of extraction was Eingen value of > 1. The first factor included 8 of the items loading onto affetcive commitment and 1 loading onto continuance commitment items. Therfore the first factor was named affective commitment. Factor 2 included 7 items, all of them loading onto coninuance commitment and was therfore named

continuance commitmnet. Factor 3 had 5 items all loading onto normative commitment and therefore qualified to be named normative commitment. Fctor 4, 5 and 6 loaded very poorly across the affective, normative and continuance commitment and were dropped on account of the scanty loadings.

Factors that had correlation coefficients of 0.50 and above were retained. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989, p. 640) recommended that "only variables with a loading of .30 and above are interpreted". The organisational commitment items which loaded on each factor were clustered together and sorted in order of the size of their correlations. The interpretation of the three factors was consistent with previous studies on the Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment scales, with affective commitment items loading strongly on Factor 1, continuance commitment items on Factor 2 and normative commitment items on Factor 3.

Factor 1, affective commitment, corresponds with the dimension of organisational commitment that Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) defined as "employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation". The highest loadings on Factor one are items: AC8, AC7, AC6 and AC5 measuring employees' emotional attachment, sense of belonging and identification. Factor 2 comprised eight items which were originally designed to measure continuance commitment and corresponded to the dimension that Meyer and Allen referred to as the "awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation". These items did not overlap with any of the affective commitment items. The main loadings on Factor 2 were CC8, CC3 and CC5, CC6, CC2, CC4 and CC7 which measure low perceived alternatives. Factor 3 comprised items measuring normative commitment. The main loadings on Factor 3 are NC8, NC7, NC6 and NC1 which measure loyalty and moral obligation to the university by the part-time academic staff.

PART II: REQUISITE TESTS

This part presents results of the mandatory tests for this study. Factor analysis was a requisite test as iit was meant to teduce the previously large number of theoretically derived independent variables into few manageable variables for further analysis. This is as discussed below.

4.5 Factor analysis on the variables presumed to affect organizational commitment

The number of variables included in the factors assumed to affect organizational commitment was quite large. The regression model representing the presumed relationships is as shown in below:

(E) $Y = \alpha+\beta_1 x_1+\beta_2 x_2+\beta_3 x_3+\beta_4 x_4+ \varepsilon$

Where:

α represents a constant

β_i represents the contribution of the independent variable x_i

x_1 represents family responsibilities

x_2 represents job-related factors

x_3 represents economic factors

x_4 represents organizational factors

Y represents organizational commitment.

As a result, factor analysis was employed in an attempt to reduce the variables to a manageable size. A principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 16 items with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization giving the results shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5.1: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.683
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	905.656
	Df	120
	Sig.	.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = 0.68 (good according to Field, 2009). Barlett's test of spherity χ^2 = 905.66, $p < 0.001$, indicated that the correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data. The results are shown in Appendix XVIII. The criterion of extraction was Eingen value of > 1. The results show that there were five factors presumed to affect organizational commitment.. Variables that had correlation coefficients of 0.50 and above were retained. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989, p. 640) recommended that "only variables with a loading of .30 and above are interpreted". The variables which loaded on each factor were clustered together and sorted in order of the size of their correlations.

The 7 variables loading onto factor 1 are supervisor support (.766), employee socialization (.731), co-worker support (.725), access to resources (.713), role clarity (.610), perceived dependability (.583) and opportunities for further studies (.473). This factor were named job-related factors and this naming is in line with previous studies (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006). Age (.822), marital status and sibling status (.711) are the 3 variables that loaded onto factor 2. These variables have been seen not only to be related to family responsibilities but more specifically relate to family responsibilities as regards part-time employment. Therefore factor 2 was named family responsibilities. Perceived dependability (.393), perceived opportunism (.834), and perceived uncertainty (.771) are the variables that loaded onto factor 3. Factor 3 has previously been named economic factors (Martin, 2008) . Factor 4 had 4 variables loading onto it: perceived dependability (.353), security of tenure (.879), and

opportunities for further studies (.531). This factor was named organizational factors and is similar the naming by Kushman (1995). Factor 5 had only one vaiable loading onto it and was dropped on account of inadequacy to qualify as a factor.

Five components had Eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 60.75 % of the variance. Given the large sample (n = 227), and the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser's criterion on five components, this was the number of components that were retained in the final analysis.Table 4.7.3 below shows the factor loadings after rotation. In summary of the analysis resulted in the selection of 4 factors for further analysis in this study. These four had sufficient loadings to qualify them as factors for the puposes of this study . The four factors therefore are family responsibilities, job-related factors, economic factors, and organizational factors factors. These were to be subjected to further analysis to establish the extent to which they influence organizatinal commitment.

Table 4.5.2: Summary of factor loadings for influences on organizational commitment questionnare (N = 227)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Supervisor Support	.766	.057	-.033	-.146	-.014
Employee Socialization	.731	-.038	.231	.115	-.070
Co-Worker Support	.725	-.212	-.114	.014	.161
Access to Resources	.713	-.040	-.076	.138	.210
Role Clarity	.610	-.025	-.032	.035	-.163
Perceived Dependability	.583	.090	.392	.393	-.075
Sibling Status	.059	.822	.071	.037	-.050
Marital Status	.105	-.810	-.187	-.050	-.162
Age	-.074	.711	-.250	.015	.063
Perceived Opportunism	-.097	.045	.834	.046	.057
Perceived Uncertainty	.019	.016	.771	-.052	.221
Highest Academic Qualificn	-.215	.198	-.364	.332	.138
Organizational factors	.066	-.018	.002	.879	-.015
Opportunities Further Studies	.473	.140	-.045	.531	.265
Second Job	.173	.096	-.008	.025	.792
Gender	.133	-.032	-.234	-.061	-.632

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

SECTION III: ANALYSIS OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES AND INFERENTIAL ANALYSIS

The section that follows here highlights findings of both descriptive and inferential analysis of the study variables. The relationships between variables was facilitated by use of chi-square analysis and correlation analysis. This is followed by results of inferential analysis facilitated through regression analysis.

4.6 Results of relationship between variables

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors influencing organizational commitment among part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. Four objectives were formulated with family responsibilities, job-related factors, organizational factors and economic factors being independent variables and organizational commitment being the dependent variable. The relationship between independent and dependent variables in this study was facilitated by use of chi-square analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. This was also used to test the hypothesis. Chi-square was used for the set of categorical data while the scale data was analysed through correlation and regression analysis.

4.7. Results of Chi-Square test for family responsibilities and its relationship with organizational commitment

The first objective of this study was to establish whether family responsibilities influence organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. Arising from this objective three hypotheses were formulated. The results of the analysis on the relationships between the family responsibilities and orgaizational commitment are presented below. The results of factor analysis gave rise to empirical hypothesis as opposed to the theoretical hypotheses earlier used to guide this study. The results that follow are based on the empirical hypotheses.

4.8..1 Relationship between age and organizational commitment

Age was found to be a variable loading onto the family responsibilities factor in the factor analysis carried out. An investigation into the relationship between age and organizational commitment is as shown in the table below.

Table 4.8. 1 : Results of Chi-Square Tests indicating the relationship between age and organizational commitment

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	660.207[a]	429	.000
Likelihood Ratio	534.974	429	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.300	1	.584
N of Valid Cases	227		

a. 576 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .11.

Result: χ^2 (429, N = 227) = 660.207, p = 0.000

The results of chi-square analysis on Table 4.8.2 shows that the calculated χ^2 statistic, for 429 degrees of freedom, is 660.207. Additionally, it indicates that the significance value (0.000) is less than the usual threshold of 0.005. In conclusion therefore, there is a significant relationship between age and organizational commitment.

4.8.2 Relationship between sibling status and organizational commitment

Additionally, a chi-square analysis wascarried out to establish the relationship between sibling status and organizational commitment. The results are as shown in the Table 4.8.2 below.

Table 4.8.2 : Results of Chi-Square Tests indicating the relationship between sibling status and organizational commitment

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	444.425[a]	286	.000
Likelihood Ratio	209.930	286	1.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.028	1	.867
N of Valid Cases	227		

a. 432 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Result: χ^2 (286, N = 227) = 444.425, p = 0.000

The results of chi-square analysis on Table 4.8.3 shows that the calculated χ^2 statistic, for 286 degrees of freedom, is 444.425. Additionally, it indicates that the significance value (0.000) is less than the usual threshold of 0.005. In conclusion therefore, there is a significant relationship between sibling status and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 1

The hypothesis on the relationship between family responsibilities and organizational commitment was stated as follows:

H_1 : Family responsibilities influences organizational commitment

Arising from the establihed independent relationships between age and sibling staus with organizational commitment, the hypothesis H_1 was confirmed. In conclusion therefore, there is a significant relationship between sibling status and organizational commitment.

4. 9 Results of correlation analysis – job related factors and three dimensions of organizational commitment

The second objective of this study was to establish whether job-related factors influence organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. Arising from this objective four hypotheses were formulated. The results of the analysis on the relationships between the job-related factors and orgaizational commitment are presented below. The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between job-related factor and affetcive commitment are shown on Table 4.9. The results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between job-related factor and affective commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .544, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed. This means that, that job - related factor is positively correlated with affective commitment was confirmed (r (227) = .544, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed).

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between job-related factors and continuance commitment are shown on Table 4.9. The results indicate that there is a significant correlation between job-related factor and continuance commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .214, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed. This implies that job - related factors are correlated with continuance commitment (r (227) = .214, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed). The desire to stay in the part-time teaching job has also been seen to be a function of job-related factors. This is not to overemphasize the value of jobs and the structure of jobs in increasing organizational commitment of employees. This has implications on the way part-time jobs are structured in HEIs in Kenya. A lot more can be done to include those factors that are considered imporant by employees as a means of enhancing organizational commitment. This implies that HEIs in Kenya should relook at the ways part-time teaching jos are structured as a means of enhancing commitment.

Table 4.9 : Results of correlation analysis – job related factor and TCM organizational commitment elements

		JRF	AC	CC	NC	0C
JRF	Pearson Correlation					
	Sig. (1-tailed)					
AC	Pearson Correlation	.544**				
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000				
CC	Pearson Correlation	.214**	.241**			
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	.000			
NC	Pearson Correlation	.114*	.183**	.291**		
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.043	.003	.000		
OC	Pearson Correlation	.408**	.661**	.747**	.696**	
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed). N = 227

KEY: JRF = Job- Related Factor, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, OC = Organizational Commitment

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between job-related factors and normative commitment are shown on Table 4.9. The results indicate that there is a positive significant correlation between job-related factor and normative commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .114, p = 0.043, one-tailed. Hence, job - related factors are positively correlated with normative commitment (r (227) = .114, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.05$, one-tailed). This means that job-related factor does positively influence normative commitment.

Hypothesis 2

H_2 : Job-related factor is positively related to organizational commitment

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between job-related factor and organizational commitment are shown on Table 4.9. The results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between job-related factor and organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .408, p = 0.000, two-tailed. The hypothesis $H_{2,}$ that job - related factor is positively correlated with normative commitment was confirmed (r (227) = .408, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, two-tailed. This means that job-related factor has an influence organizational commitment.

4. 10 Results of correlation analysis – economic factors and TCM organizational commitment elements

The third objective of this study was to establish whether economic factors influence organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. Arising from this objective three hypotheses were formulated. The results of the analysis on the relationships between the economic factors and orgaizational commitment are presented below. The results of correlation analysis of economic factors and the components of organizational commitment are shown in Table 4.10. The discusions of the particular relationships follow.

Table 4.10 Results of correlations analysis among the three elements of TCM of organizational commitment and economic factors (EF)

		EF	AC	CC	NC	0C
EF	Pearson Correlation					
	Sig. (1-tailed)					
AC	Pearson Correlation	.057				
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.194				
CC	Pearson Correlation	.330**	.241**			
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000			
NC	Pearson Correlation	.109	.183**	.291**		
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.051	.003	.000		
OC	Pearson Correlation	.242**	.661**	.747**	.696**	
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). N=227

KEY: EF = Economc Factor, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, OC = Organizational Commitment

The variables loading onto the economic factor investigated in this study were three and they included perceived dependability, perceived opportunism and perceived uncertainty. The scores of these three were avaraged to obtain a composite score for the factor. The approach of averaging responses when the variables have the same objective and measured on a similar scale, is popular and has been recommended by several researchers such as Klevin (2010), Baptisat (2011). Opportunism is the measure of the extend to which there is a non-fulfilment of an explicit contract (Williamson, 1975). It is said to appear in a passive form (hiding information about relevant characteristics or shirking responsibilities and efforts) or in an active form (lies, deliberate distortion of facts, prohibited behaviour and quite obvious non-fulfilment of agreements). Dependance in a relationship os the extent to which one party needs to maintain a relationship with another party to reach desired goals (Ganesan, 1994; Andaleeb, 1996; Meyer *et al.*, 1995). Uncertainty on the other

hand implies the possibility of erring in decision making (Nguyen, 1997). The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between economic factors and affective commitment are shown on Table 4.10. The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between economic factor and affective commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .057, p = 0.194, one-tailed. This means that economic factor is not positively correlated with affective comitment (r (227) = .057, 225 degrees of freedom, $p > 0.01$, one-tailed). This means that economic factor does not influence affective commitment.

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between economic factor and contnuance commitment are shown on Table 4.10 (pg 127). The results indicate that there is a significant correlation between economic factor and continuance commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .330, p = 0.000, one-tailed. This means that economic factor is correlated with affective comitment (r (227) = .330, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed). This means that economic factor does influence continuance commitment. The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between economic factor and normative commitment are shown on Table 4.10 The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between economic factor and normative commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .109, p = 0.051, one-tailed. This means that economic factor is not correlated with normative commitment (r (227) = .109, 225 degrees of freedom, $p > 0.01$, one-tailed). This means that economic factor does not influence normative commitment.

Hypothesis 3

H_3 : Economic factors positively influence organizational commitment.

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between economic factor and organizational commitment are shown on Table 4.10. The results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between economic factor and organizatioal commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .242, p = 0.000, one-tailed. The hypothesis H_3 that economic factor is positively correlated with organizatioal commitment was confirmed (r (227) = .242, 225

degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed). This means that economic factor has a positive influence on organizational commitment.

4. 11 Results of correlation analysis – organizational factors and the three TCM organizational commitment elements

The fourth objective of this study was to establish whether organizational factors influences organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. The results of correlation analysis between organizational factors and the TCM of organizational commitment are shown in Table 4.11

Table 4.11 Correlations among the elements of TCM of organizational commitment and organizational factors (OF)

		OF	AC	CC	NC	0C
OF	Pearson Correlation					
	Sig. (1-tailed)					
AC	Pearson Correlation	.340**				
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000				
CC	Pearson Correlation	-.006	.241**			
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.463	.000			
NC	Pearson Correlation	.136*	.183**	.291**		
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.020	.003	.000		
OC	Pearson Correlation	.215**	.661**	.747**	.696**	
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed). N = 227

KEY: OF = Organizational factors, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, OC = Organizational Commitment

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between organizational factors and affective commitment are shown on Table 4.11. The results indicate that there is a significant correlation between organizational factors and affective commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .340, p = 0.000, one-tailed. This shows that organizational factors is correlated with affective commitment (r (227) = .340, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed). This

means that organizational factors has a positive influence on affective commitment. The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between organizational factors and continuance commitment are shown on Table 4.11. The results indicate that there is no significant correlation between organizational factors and continuance commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .006, p = 0.463, one-tailed. This shows that organizational factors is not positively correlated with continuance commitment (r (227) = .006, 225 degrees of freedom, $p > 0.01$, one tailed-tailed). This means that organizational factors has a negative influence on continuance commitment.

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between organizational factors and normative commitment are shown on Table 4.11 The results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between organizational factors and normative commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .136, p = 0.020, one-tailed. This shows that organizational factors is positively correlated with normative commitment (r (227) = .136, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.05$, one - tailed). This means that organizational factors has a significant positive influence on normative commitment.

Hypothesis 4

H_4 : Organizational factors is positively related to organizational commitment

The results of correlation analysis establishing the relationship between organizational factors and organizational commitment are shown on Table 4.11. The results indicate that there is a significant correlation between organizational factors and overall organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya, r (227) = .215, p = 0.001, one-tailed. The hypothesis on organizational factors H_4, that organizational factors is positively correlated with organizational commitment was confirmed (r (227) = .215, 225 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.01$, one-tailed). This means that organizational factors has a significant positive influence on organizational commitment.

4.11. Factors predicting organizational commitment

The findngs from this study were aimed at developing a complex model with several predictors for each of the three components of Organizational Commitment, *viz*, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment. An aggregated complex overall model for Organizational Commitment would then be developed. The predictors to be included in the models were to be based on the regression coefficients arising from the results of a given regresssion method. The variables included in the model of study were based empirical variables identified in this study. One approach used to do this was to carry out a regression analysis with the organizational commitment components being the dependent variables and the factors influencing them to be independent variables for each of the components initially, and eventually for the overall model.The stepwise regression method was selected to facilitate this analysis.

The stepwise regression (backward) method begins by placing all the predictors in the model and then calculating the contribution of each one by looking at the significance value of the t-test for each predictor (Field, 2005). The significant value is compared against a removal criterion (which can be either an absolute value of the test statistic or a probability value for that test statistic). If a predictor meets the removal criterion (that is, if it is not making a ststistically significant contribution to how well the model predicts the outcome variable) it is removed from the model and the model is re-estimated for the remaining predictors. The contribution of the remaining predictors is then reassessed.

4.11.1 Stepwise regression analysis of factors predicting affective commitment among part-time academic staff

Stepwise regression was used to analyse the predictors of affective commitment. The results are shown in Table 4.11.1. The results of Stepwise regression analysis show that four out of 16 independent variables accounted for 37% (R^2 =.341) of the variance in affective commitment among part-time academic staff. The beta coefficients show that co-worker support (β = .319) and perceived dependability (β = .1129) contributed to the largest variance in explaining affective commitment among part-time academic staff.

Table 4.11.1: Stepwise regression analysis predicting affective commitment among part-time academic staff

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.788	.247		3.194	.002
Co-worker support	.319	.063	.329	5.079	.000
Perceived dependability	.129	.046	.169	2.804	.005
Opportunities further studies	.117	.039	.178	3.001	.003
Supervisor support	.114	.057	.132	2.010	.046

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

R = .594 R^2 =.353 Adjusted R^2 =.341 F = 30.232 p = .000

4.11.2 Stepwise regression analysis of factors predicting continuance commitment among part-time academic staff

Stepwise regression was used to analyse the predictors of continuance commitment. The results are shown in Table 4.11.2 . The results of Stepwise regression analysis in Table 4.11.2 show that three out of 16 independent variables accounted for 19.6% (R^2 = .186) of the variance in continuance commitment among part-time academic staff.

Table 4.11.2: Stepwise regression analysis of factors predicting continuance commitment among part-time academic staff.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(constant)	1.846	.331		5.582	.000
Employee socialization	.269	.053	.342	5.051	.000
Perceived uncertainty	.097	.051	.140	1.894	.060
Perceived opportunism	.127	.054	.170	2.366	.019

a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

R = .448 R^2 =.201 Adjusted R^2 =.186 F = 13.951 p = .000

The beta coefficients show that employee socialization (β = .269) and perceived uncertainty (β = .097) contributed to the largest variance in explaining continuance commitment among part-time cademic staff while perceived opportunism (β = .127) contributed the least variance.

4.11.3 Stepwise regression analysis of factors predicting normative commitment among part-time academic staff

Stepwise regression was used to analyse the predictors of normative commitment. The results are shown in Table 4.11.3.

Table 4.11. 3 Results of stepwise regression analysis of factors predicting normative commitment among part-time academic staff

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.726	.317		8.598	.000
Access to resources	.227	.050	.295	4.513	.000
Role clarity	-.198	.063	-.206	-3.131	.002
Perceived uncertainty	.097	.041	.150	2.377	.018

a. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

$R = .357$ $R^2 = .127$ Adjusted $R^2 = .116$ $F = 10.852$ $p = .000$

The results of Stepwise regression analysis in Table 4.11.3 show that 3 out of 16 independent variables accounted for 16% ($R^2 = ..127$) of the variance in normative commitment among part-time academic staff. The beta coefficients show that perceived uncertainty ($\beta = .097$) and access to resources ($\beta = .227$) contributed to the largest variance in explaining normative commitment among part-time cademic staff while Role Clarity ($\beta = - . 198$) contributed the least variance.

4.11.4 Results of regression analysis of factors predicting overall organizational commitment

The empirically tested scale-based factors in this study which are correlated to organizational commitment were used to establish which ones predict organizational commitment. The three factors used here are job-related factors, economic factors, and organizational factors. The average scores for each of these factors were all regressed against the organizational commitment score. Initially, each variable was independently correlated with Y_1 to assess plausibility of relationship. Subsequently, a

multiple regression equation was fitted and hypothesis tested against α_1, α_2, and α_3 that correspond to job-related factors, economic factors and organizational factors coefficients, respectively.

$$Y_1 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_1 + \alpha_2 X_2 + \alpha_3 X_3$$

To test the research hypothesis, that there is relationship between job-related factors (α_1), economic factors (α_2) and organizational factors ($\alpha_{3)}$ on organizational commitment of part-time academics"; then both $\alpha_1 \neq 0$, $\alpha_2 \neq 0$ and $\alpha_3 \neq 0$. In which case the regression equation was subjected to significance test as follows:

Table 4.12: Significance test on Y_1, X_1 and X_2 and X_3

$2S(\alpha_i)$	**α_i**	**If $2S(\alpha_i) \leq \alpha_i$ then it is "significant"**
2 × (.226) = .452	1.334	Significant
2 × (.054) = .108	.316	Significant
2 × (.032) = .064	.123	Significant
2 × (.038) = .076	.041	Insignificant

Table 4.13: Model parameters of factors predicting organizational commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.334	.226		5.893	.000	.888	1.780		
Job Characteristics	.316	.054	.372	5.810	.000	.209	.423	.852	1.173
Economic Factor	.123	.032	.226	3.821	.000	.059	.186	.998	1.002
Organizational factors	.041	.038	.070	1.092	.276	-.033	.116	.854	1.171

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Since α_3 is insignificant, the multiple regression to the equation below that depicts the value of $\alpha_3 = 0$

$$Y = 1.334 + .316x_1 + .123x_2$$

Since $\alpha_3 = 0$; reject the research hypothesis and conclude that job-related factors, economic factors and organizational factors not all have relationship with organizational commitment of part-time academics.

The model therefore predicting organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs is:

$$Y = 1.334 + .316x_1 + .123x_2$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment function

X_1 = Job-Related Factors

X_2 = Economic Factors

Table 4.14 ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17.562	3	5.854	21.145	.000[b]
	Residual	61.738	223	.277		
	Total	79.300	226			

a. Dependent Variable: organizational commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), organizational factors, economic factor, job characteristics

The test of how well the model accurately predicts the outcome was done by using the F-test. In the ANOVA Table 4.14, the F-score is 21.15 which is significantly greater than 1, which is very unlikely that it happened by chance ($p < 0.001$). Therefore it can be concluded here that the model is a better and significant predictor of organizational commitment of part-time cademic staff.

The model was also tested with regard to diagnostic statistics. In this case multicollinearity was tested through VIF (Variance Inflating Factor) The varage VIF was found to be below 10 and greater than 1 (VIF1 = 1.173. VIF2 = 1.002. VIF 3 = 1.171.) indicating an average VIF of 1.67. Since the VIF value is close to 1, this confirms that collinearity is not a problem for this model.

Discussion

The fact that the results shows a significant relationship betwen age and organizational commitment is an important breakthrough in this study given that age is a determinant of ability to work and also indicates family responsibilities. The findings in Table 4.1 indicated that most of the respondents from HEIs in Kenyan

context were in the 30-49 age bracket. This is probably the active working age in the country. This implies that most of those who seek for part-time working in Kenya the active employement age and have family responsibilities to take care of. Arising from this, it is clear that age cannot be ignored in sourcing for part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. The only caution is those who are younger than 30 years and those who are beyond 50 who might have been ignored or who might have other income generating options available apart from part-time teaching. These findings are similar to those of other studies (Steers, 1977; Matieu & Zajac, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1981 and Zafar, 2006). This is in line with the interviews coducted in this study that idicated that most part-time academic staff in Kenya are in the age bracket shouldering heavy family responsibilities. However there other studies that are inconsistent with the fidings of this study, which studies established that age is negatively correlated with organizational commitment (Mowday, 1987; Iverson & Buttigieg,1999).

The results of the chi-square analysis of family responsibilities variables above show that age and sibling status have an influence on organizational commitment. The study established that most part-time academic staff in Kenya are in the middle age brackets of 30-39 years (57%) and the 40-49 years (33%). A majority of the part-time academics being in those brackets leaves a mere 10% for young people in the below 30 years bracket and another 10% in the above 50 years bracket. The below 30 years bracket could be justified by the fact that not many young people have the requisite qualifications to teach in a local university. The same justification could apply for the above 50 years bracket. On another note, the same staff teaching full-time in the HEIs in Kenya get part-time teaching apppointments in the same institutions thereby making the ages for full-time academic staff the same for part-time academic staff.

These findings are consistant with previous research (Kipkebut, 2010; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Jacobsen, 2000). The fact that age is a correlated with affective commitment shows that age of part-time academics in the country has an effect on emotional feelings about their emplying HEIs. In the same tone, that age is a significantly correlated with normative commitment shows that the part-time academics locally are set to upholding the values of their employing HEIs and feel a moral obligation to stay. This is quite encouraging given the modal age brackets of the part-time academic staff in Kenya is 30-39 years.

Sibling status was also explored as determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in Kenya . This variable, contributing to what is generally referred to as family responsibilities or kinship responsibilities, has been associated with organisational commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Angle & Perry, 1983; Mottaz, 1988; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). The extent to which an individual depends on one's income would influence the extent to which an employee feels locked into an organisation and therefore employees with greater kinship responsibilities would be more reliant on the organisation to fulfill their financial needs (Angle & Perry, 1983; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). This was an important variable to explore given that Kenya is a less developed economy and that the average incomes are generally low.

The findings of this study established that 83% of the respondents had children while 17% of the respondents did not have children. This implies that a greater majority of the part-time academics in the country have family responsibilities to take care of their siblings. The economic thrust to cater for siblings might as well be the drive to secure a part-time teaching job for among many in the local HEIs, and also the reason to do all one can do to keep it.

The results of the interviews confirmed that the reasons for engaging in part-time teaching among the respondents locally was to supplement their income as well as cater for the education of their children. Indeed, some heads of academic departments interviewed confessed that the applicants (part-time academic staff) for part-time teaching positions cited the dire need to take care of their families as the major drive into such jobs. This situational variable is seen in this study to affect emloyees emotional attachent, attachment to the norms and the desire to continue working for the organization as a part-time academic. *Ceteris paribus,* HEIs should capitalize on this factor as the basis for recruitment of staff to part-time teaching positions as it seems to yield some good returns. The results show that age is a negative predictor of affective commitment and a positive predictor of normative commitment. The results here are consistent with previus research (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006, Zafar & Chughtai, 2006; Murphy, 2004).

Age is a positive predictor of normative commitment and a negative predictor of affective commitment. Age in this case refers to young part-time academics or age

part-time academics. This is consistant with previous research (Kipkebut, 2010; Joiner and Bakalis, 2006; Jacobsen, 2000). Young part-time academics feel no affection towards the employing university and would almost readily quit as they still have along life to live. Experienced and old part-time academics have an emotional attachment as they see the employing university as fulfilling a social need to a large extent.

Sibling status and ages of children have also been explored as determinants of organizational commitment. These, generally reffered to as family responsibilities or kinship responsibilities, have been associated with organisational commitment (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Angle and Perry, 1983; Mottaz, 1988; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). The extent to which an individual depends on one's income would influence the extent to which an employee feels locked into an organisation and therefore employees with greater kinship responsibilities would be more reliant on the organisation to fulfill their financial needs (Angle and Perry, 1983; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999).

According to this theory, academics who are married and who have greater family responsibilities (e.g., more children) would more likely have higher levels of affective and continuance commitment (Hackett et al., 1994; Iverson 1992). Alternatively, consistent with the work/family conflict literature (see Byron, 2005), academics with increased family obligations may choose to resolve their conflict by choosing to favour family needs first over organizational needs (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). Additionally, the findings of Zafar and Chughtai (2006) did not find any relationship between age, tenure, marital status and level of education and organizational commitment. Najhof, Jong and Beukhof (1998) did not also find any strong relationship between personal characteristics and commitment.

Job-related factor is seen in the above analysis as having an influence on part-time academics' intention to stay in the part-time teaching jobs in Kenya and having a positive attitude towards staying with the HEIs. This could imply that the way in which jobs are structured in HEIs in Kenya could be a source of motivation to the part-time staff creating a positive change in attitudes towards the employing organization. The structure of jobs is therefore important to ensuring that positive

attitudes are created in employees as means of creating their commitment. Employers are therefore at an advantage by redesigning the jobs to include those factors seen to create affective commitment. As a matter of some freedom and flexibility in the job could be a big sucess in forstering positive attitudes among part-time academic staff in Kenya.

The desire to stay in the part-time teaching job has also been seen to be a function of job-related factors. This is not to overemphasize the value of jobs and the structure of jobs in increasing organizational commitment of employees. This has implications on the way part-time jobs are structured in HEIs in Kenya. A lot more can be done to include those factors that are considered imporant by employees as a means of enhancing organizational commitment. This implies that HEIs in Kenyashould relook at the ways part-time teaching jos are structured as a means of enhancing commitment.

The way the job is structured and way the organization supports the performance of the job does lead to the upolding of values of the organization. This means that the upholdimg of the values of the organization among part-time academic stafff in HEIs largely depends on the job. This aspect could raise many moral integrity issues concerning part-time teaching. The results of this finding could support the numerous cases and concerns raised in the local press in Kenya that part-time lecturers offer a raw deal to the students in HEIs (Muindi, 2010). This could mean that there are instances where the structureof the job is loosely done leading to a moral degradation on the part-time academic staff holding those jobs. This is important since it mans that the part-time teching job should be properly checked to see whether its design allows for loopholes and loose ends that could encourage unethical behaviour among the jobholders.

The overall result of job-related factor and organizational commitment clearly indicates that job-related factor has an influence on organizational commitment among part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. This is in spite of the normative commitment component not being influenced by job related factor. Four job-related factor variables were found to be corrrelated with affective, continuance and normative commitment of part-time academic staff. These variables are supervisor-

support, co-worker support, access to resources, employee socialization, perceived dependability and role clarity.

Results from this study show that job-related factor variables carry a particularly important influence in the organizational commitment of part-time academics. The first variable is supervisor support. The supervisors of many of the part-time academic staff locally consist of the lecturer in-charge of the subject or unit for which the part-time university academic staff member has been employed to teach; or alternatively the academic head of department. The interviews conducted in this study render support that the academic head of department plays a major role not only in identifying vacanies for part-time teaching but also in recommending the persons to be employed, assigning them work and supervising them. This was found to be the case in Technical University of Kenya, The Mombasa Polytechnic University College and Moi University. However, this was different in the Daystar University and the Catholic University of Eastern Africa.

In certain instances, for example at The The mombasa Polytechnic University College, the part-time lecturer did not come into contact with any other administrator except the academic head of depaertment. The supervisor was therefore expected to offer support, share concerns and provides useful job-related information likely to have a positive influence on part-time university academic staff member's organisational commitment. This study established that supervisor support is a strong predictor of affective commitment in Kenya. Part-time academic staff experienced some emotional satisfaction and gave positive comments about the employing HEIs based on the perceived support they got from supervisors. This one aspect of commitment was also found to be key in influencing the normative and continuance commitment among part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya.

The results of the survey in Kenya on supervisor support to part-time academic staff shows that 87 % of the respondents were on the affirmative that their supervisors were supportive. This perceived support rating is quite high and encouraging given the unique nature of part-time teaching locally. It implies that academic heads of department seemed to take this aspect seriously as a means of ensuring that those staff engaged on part-time teaching contracts deliver the service effectively and efficiently. This can also be attributed to the fact that the same supervisors were instrumental in

the recruitment, selection and deployment of the part-time academic staff and hence felt a moral obligation to support them. Supervisor support among part-time acdemics in Kenya is a commentable issue that should be highly encouraged across the HEIs in the world.

Co-worker support was another variable investigated in this study as a predictor of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. Co-workers in this study means any staff members who carry out work in the same HEIs in both teaching and non-teaching capacities. The support could be moral, material, informational or service. Strong co-worker support contributes to affective commitment, highlighting the value of these relationships to part-time university academic staff. Academic co-workers provide mutual support for one another in terms of providing information and assistance which in turn increases their sense of connection and commitment with the university. The results of this study shows that most part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya confirmed that they perceived a strong co-worker support (82%) in the HEIs they offer their services in Kenya. Indeed very few (6%) were of the opinion tht co-worker support did not exist in the HEIs where they worked. This gives an impression of team working among the staff to the extend that part-time academic staff felt well catered for in this regard. Co-worker support was found to be predictor of affective and continuance commitment. This means that with regard to the Kenyan case, co-workers to part-time academic staff rendered a lot of support and service to enable the part-time academic staff not only settle down quickly but also perform the work effectively. As a result of the perceived co-worker support, part-time academic staff felt a strong desire to continue working for the same in future times.

Another important job-related factor variable assumed to predict organizational commitment was role clarity. Not unrelated to the above theme, this study found that increased information about the job (role clarity) was associated with heightened affective commitment among part-time academic staff. This study found out about the unique nature of recruitment and deployment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. The nature of the part-time academic jobs locally is such that members are often employed on short notice in response to unexpected shortage of full-time members in a particular subject. The recruited part-time academic staff may not have worked at the HEIs previously or might not have taught in the particular

subject area previously in any other HEIs. This was found to be the case with branches of fast expanding HEIs like the University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology and Moi University. The situation was found to be even worse for HEIs operating as constituent colleges like The Mombasa Polytechnic University College and the Kenya Polytechnic University College as they did not have such subject units in the past.

Documentation, such as job descriptions was found to be scarce for part-time university academic staff. Thus, any information about job responsibilities, rights and requirements offered to part-time academic staff which is meant to increase the part-time university academic staff members' commitment to the organisation, was lacking. Role and job-related information in this study was not found to be communicated formally by providing the documentation to new staff. This documentation was not available to many part-time academic staff as confirmed by the interviews with their supervisors. In Kenya, as per this survey, there exists little formal documentation for guiding part-time academic staff. Alternatively and additionally, such information was found to be unintetionally communicated informally by among other mechanisms, via co-workers and supervisors. The finding indicate that notwithstanding the fact that such documentation was unavailable, 88% of the respondents agreed that their roles were clear to them. This is a positive aspect given that teaching roles can be sometimes confusing to members who have not undertaken the teaching pedagogy. This does not however prevent an alternative conclusion that this response may have been influenced by a fear among the part-time academic staff that a negative response would endanger their future with the employing HEIs. The findings indicate that role clarity in was only associated with affective commitment among the part-time academic staff. The members felt a sense of emotional attachemnt and spoke positive things about the employing HEIs in effect.

The other job-related factor variable assumed in this study to affect organizational commitment of part-time academic staff was access to resources in the HEIs by the part-time academic staff. Access to resources includes access to such resources as photocopying, computing facilities, printing, stationary and office space, library and internet connectivity services. This can in no doubt impact on the ability of part-time university academic staff members to undertake their work. Access to resources, however, also subtly communicates to the academic their value to the

organisation. Lack of resources, or punitive attitudes towards the distribution of such resources, can signal a lack of organisation caring and commitment to the staff, exacerbating the part-time academics staff's own organisational affective commitment. The findings on responses with regard to access to resources indicate that 59% part-time academic staff were on the affirmative that they have access to resources. However, interviews with the academic heads of department had a slightly different opinion on the same aspect. According to the interviews with academic heads of department, many HEIs in Kenya neither have a policy nor a system for making these important resources available to part-time academic staff. The interviews indicated that except at the Momasa Polytechnic University College (MPUC) and the Presbyterian University of East Africa for example, there was not even a designated office or staff room specifically set aside for part-time academic staff in many of the rest surveyed. Part-time academic staff at the the MPUC, for example, were allowed to use the library resource but were not allowed to borrow the books to carry them outside the library. Wireless Internet access was found to be acccessible part-time academic staff at Kenyatta University (KU).

The aspect of access to resources by part-time academic staff in Kenya was found to take a different dimension when some academic heads of department interviewd indicated that the part-time academic staff members themselves did not come forward to seek for such resources. This aspesct was echoed by many other heads of academic departments who stated during the interviews that many part-time academic staff did not have the time to even attend important academic staff meetings for which they were invited owing to their busy schedules elsewhere. As a result, many such part-time academic staff in were found to operate from their other offices or from their cars to the lecture room. The interviews also indicated that the timing of the lessons assigned to part-time academic staff members, that is, the bulk of them being scheduled during the evenings and weekends permitted no time for part-time academic staff to seek for such necesary resources. This implies that there is a need for HEIs in Kenya to deliberately develop systems and policies to increase the part-time academic staff members' access to resources.

Socialization, variously referred to by such other terms as induction or orientation or indoctrination is one of the most important variable in part-time working. This is especially so given that part-time academic staff in Kenya's HEIs

may not be required to officially report everyday to the HEIs workplace where they are engaged except on the days and times when they have lessons. This is further complicated by the concept of "travelling lecturers" (Muindi, 2010, November 14). who criss-cross the counties in Kenya in different HEIs offering teaching services. Such members have been found to end up having to possess very scanty knowledge and information about the employing HEIs, which turns out to be a very big disadvantage to both the part-time academic staff members themselves and the students.

In this study, 35% of part-time academic staff surveyed indicated that they were not offered any socializaton into the HEIs systems, policies culture and environment. This means that they continued to carry out their teaching roles notwithstanding that they did not understand well into the work environment. However 62% were in agreement that they received socilaization prior to embarking on the work. This aspect is closely connected to other aspects earlier explained about part-time academic staff members characteristics such as their availability, supervisor support and co-worker support. The findings from interviews conducted indicate that socialization of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya is not suppoted by any formal policy as is the case with full-time and permanent academic staff members. The academic heads of department interviewed reported that socialization of part-time academic staff members is presumed to occur on its own through co-workers. This is sad given that some of the members are not only new to the profession but they are also new to the HEI organizations. As this is the case, the young members of part-time academic staff in Kenya seem to have missed out on very important opportunity of mentoring which could be initiated as part and parcel of the socialization process.

Results from this study show that job-related factors play a particularly important role in the affective commitment of part-time academics. This is consistent with the findings of previous research (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Najhof, Jong & Beukhof,1998). Strong co-worker support and supervisor support both contribute to affective commitment, highlighting the value of these relationships to part-time university academic staff. The supervisor is the lecturer in-charge of the subject for which the part-time university academic staff member has been employed to teach. A supervisor who offers support, shares concerns and provides useful job-related information is likely to have a positive influence on part-time university academic

staff member's organisational commitment. This is consistent with a study in Pakistan by Zafar and Chungtai (2006) who found that supervision was positively correlated with organizational commitment. Likewise, the results from one of the previous study (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006) suggest that academic co-workers provide mutual support for one another in terms of providing information and assistance which in turn increases their sense of connection and commitment with the university. Not unrelated to the above theme, our study (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006) found that increased information about the job (role clarity) was associated with heightened affective commitment.

The results show no relationship between economic factor and emotional attachment in Kenya. This could be described as rational-economic thinking. It implies that there is no relationship between attitudes and the economic factor – the relationship is purely rational among the staff in HEIs in kenya . This could be an intersting finding to imply that the motive behind part-time working in this country is basically to improve the economic status of the part-time academic staff. The emotional or attitudinal elements do have a place in this relationship. Part-time academic staff have rational economic reasons for continuing to participate in part-time teaching in HEIs in Kenya.

The fact that economic factor has an influence on continuance commitment implies that part-time academic staff are motivated to continue working on part-time basis in the same HEIs in Kenyan case. This could reflect the likely loss of income or opportunity costs associated with switching or losing the part-time teaching job. Owing to the economic gains perceived to accrue to the part-time academic staff, the desire to keep the part-time teaching jobs and keep earning the income is quite high. Although there is a rising number of HEIs in Kenya, the perceived opportunity costs of leaving a HEI by part-time academic staff is still high. This is an imprtnant comitment aspect which can be used to improve on performance in terms of staff stability and continuity thereby saving on hiring and training costs for part-time academic staff in Kenya's HEIs.

The results on correlation analysis between economic factor and normative commitment shows that economic factor does not influence upholding and identification with of organizational values among the part-time academic staff in Kenya's HEIs. This is to imply that that part-time teaching does not seem to get the

staff to appreciate the morals and ethics of the organization. This is a potentially dangerous situation in Kenya since teaching in a HEI anywhere entails some organizational ethics and professional ethics. The failure to identify and uphold these ethical requirements could result in the degrading of the outcomes from teaching in the affected organizations. This could lead to a conclusion that most part-time academic staff are unwilling to be ethical in their teaching. It also raises concerns about the orientation of part-time academic staff as to give them the ethical codes in the profession in Kenya. It is intersting that despite economic factor not being an influence on affective and normative commitment, it influences the overall organizational commitment. This implies that that continuance commitment accounts for a very significant and positive influence on organizational commitment that it more than substiutes results of the other two elements of the TCM.

The results of this study show that all the economic factors are significantly correlated with organizational commitment of part-time academics in HEIs in Kenya. The results showed that 61% (Table 4.42) of the respondents in Kenya perceived that the part-time teaching contract was dependable. This is supported by the fact that HEIs in Kenya have been expanding very fast since 2004 and part-time teaching jobs have been readily available across the country. On another note, most of those members on part-time teaching since 2004 have continued to experience a steady flow of income every year arising from their part-time teaching engagemnts. This could have created a positive perception of dependability.

The economic impact of the above perception turned reality may have been encouraging on the part of part-time academic staff. Interviews with the academic heads of department from public HEIs in Kenya like UON, KU, JKUAT and MU confirmed that as a result of this situation their HEIs have put in place policies on managing part-time teaching activities and modalities for part-time payment. As an extension, some of these HEIs have as part-of their academic policies a provision for internal part-time lecturers. An internal part-ime lecturer is a lecturer on full-time and permanent contract who takes on extra teaching load in the same HEIs they teach on full-time basis. This was clearly spelt-out for examle in the academic policies of KU, UON, and MPUC. This perceived dependability is in line with the finding that dependability is significantly correlated with affective commitment among part-time academic staff in Kenya.

The findings on perceived opportunism among the part-time academic staff in Kenya was a 63 % response (Table 4.42) in the affirmative. The opportuninty cost of leaving the part-time engagemnt was seen as being vey high given the stakes in part-time teaching in HEIs in Kenya. This is in line with the finding that opportunism is a predictor of continuance commitmant among part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. The interviews with the academic heads of depaertments revealed this in another way. The interviws pointed out that there were "cartels" of part-time academic staff members controlling the teaching opportunities in some of the HEIs like JKUAT Mombasa, MU in Mombasa, KU in Nairobi and Mombasa and UON. The members of these "cartels" did not as it were permit any newcomer into their territories. The goal of these informal and underground organizations was stated as being to defend or guard their territorial integrity from any intrusion by outsders intending to benefit from them. Perceived opportunism was hence found to be a negative predictor of normative commitment. This means that the tendency to hide information to their benefit was working against the rules of morality, fairness and justice among the HEIs in Kenya.

Perceived uncertainty got a score of 58 % (Table 4.42) with respondents indicating that they did not agree that there was uncertainty associated with the part-time teaching HEIs in Kenya. This was quite a high score with many of the respondents, possibly by basing on their predictions of the directions of the reforms in HEIs in Kenya, seeing relative stability in part-time teaching oportunities in th ecountryset to continue. The interviews with academic heads of departments in the selected HEIs in Kenya confirmed that given the shortage of individuals possessing the minimum university teaching qualifications, and given the expension of university education in the Kenya, part-time teaching was certainly gong to continue in the near future. As such many part-titme academic staff hoped to continue with the HEIs in their part-time teaching capacities. Furthermore, this created another situation of moral obligation to stay and espouse the values of the HEIs by the part-time academic staff.

According to the study by Martin (2006), among the economic antecedents of commitment, employee perception of dependence is shown to be a possible generator of affective commitment, whereas it can be reduced by the perception of opportunism practised by the firm. The results are inconsistent with the results by Matin (2006)

who found out that none of these economic variables seems to affect the feeling of obligation towards the firm (normative commitment). In his study, owing to the low-effect size of the corresponding coefficient, the results showed that the perception of uncertainty reduces normative commitment to some extent

The above discussion seems to suggest that the unemployment condition prevailing in Kenya may have an influence on the commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs. This is due to the fears associated with leaving the job, the investiments made in the HEI and the holding out that the staff have high moral standards increasing the chances of being engaged on permanent basis in future by the same HEI. This situation may also have been contributed to by the fact that local Kenyan HEIs have been noted to fill in teaching vacancies by converting into permanent those who have shown loyalty and morality in part-time teaching work. It is also in support of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which suggests that people's relationships can be partially explained by implied reciprocal obligations.

The results shows that the organizational factors causes some emotions among the part-time academic staff and can result in a positive attitude and increase organizational commitment. This aspect of organizational factors is quite interesting given that these are part-time academic staff. This could imply that perceived organizational factors really raises strong emotions among part-time academic staff resulting in them having positive comments about the employong HEIs. This is closely connected with and supports the findings that part-time academic staff are keen on economic benefits. Organizational factors would seem to guarantee the security of earnings for the staff.

The results is rather interesting given that one would have expected that organizational factors would lead to staying with the employing HEIs. This could then imply that organizational factors is an individual's competitiveness to get part-time teaching jobs in any available HEIs without at any one time being out of such jobs. The combination of the economic and organizational factors gets a new dimension that part-time academic staff would really want to enjoy security of earnings from part-time teaching irrespective of whether it is from one employing

HEI. The interest therefore is on earning but not necessarily on the commitment to the organization.

The fact that organizational factors is related to normative commitment implies that the part-time academic staff will develop a sense of upholding the values of the employing HEIs on account of their perceived security of tenure in the employing HEIs. This is important since identification with and upholding of such values is an indicator of comitment to the organization. The provision of organizational factors seems to be avenue to getting part-time academic staff to identify with the morals of the organization. This could be important to employing HEIs that to get the part-time academic staff to embrace the organizational ethics, elements of organizational factors should be provided.

The organizational factors factor as it relates to organizational commitment is an importat factor and has been onfirmed in this study. A rather important aspect of organizational factors significantly correlated with organizational commitment was opportunities for post-graduate study at the employing HEIs. Postgraduate study with the employing HEI is supposed to enhance part-time HEI academic staff members affective and continuance commitment. Studying and working within the same institution creates multiple commitments, and this may be compounded where the part-time HEI academic staff member is employed as a tutor by their PhD or Master's degree programme supervisor. Also, part-time HEI academic staff members who are studying at their workplace may not be able to leave the HEI because of the postgraduate study commitment, and thereby experience enhanced continuance commitment.

The results on perceived opportunities for post-graduste studies in in this study indicated that 61 % were positive that they they percived that there existed opportunities for further studies at the emplying HEIs in Kenya. This was echoed by the results of the interviews which indicated that some local HEIs like MPUC, KU, JKUAT, UON and CUEA still value the aspect of their members taking further studies with them. HEIs like MPUC and JKUAT had the aspect of taking tutorial fellows as part of their part-time academic staff from those doing fairly well in the post-graduate programmmes offered by the same HEIs. However, some HEIs like MU cited the university's policy on academic recruitment as being a barrier to the

enagement of tutorial fellows from among their students as the jobs were supposed to be competitively advertised.

With respect to affective commitment, the values of those part-time academic staff who were also students in the same HEIs were found to be more congruent with the values of the HEI, compared to part-time HEI academic staff who were not students in the same HEIs. Interviews in this study among academic heads of departments in Nazarene University , UON and KU indicated that postgraduate students who were found to be part-time academic staff members were of the view that they have a far greater opportunity to be inculcated with the organisation's values, norms and behaviours by virtue of the greater intensity of their relationship with the organisation and its members. This may explain the link between part-time academic staff studying at their place of work and their greater connection and affective commitment toward the employing HEI. A clear policy implication from this finding would be the need for the preferential hiring of the universities' postgraduate students to undertake part-time teaching roles.

Job security was a difficult aspect to study in the Kenyan context. This is because part-time academic staff are temporary and are employed from the academic heads of departments' recommendation and discretion. Security of part-time teaching tenure in the Kenyan context therefore means a situation whereby the recruiting officer continues to offer the same job opportunities to the same part-time academic staff every other subsequent semesrter as long as the part-time academic staff member shows up or is invited for work.

The findings of the survey indicate that 54 % of the part-time academic staff members surveyed were positive that they perceived that there was organizational factors. The rest (46 %) did not perceive that such security exist. In some HEIs like MPUC, as long as the workload was there, the unwritten policy was that the contract was always renewd. In KU, a list of part-time academic was found to exist and that list was resorted to always when the need to allocate the available extra workload arose. In UON, the tendency was one of approving the qualification of proposed part-time lecturer before allocating the work. In JKUAT, such security of part-time teaching tenure was found not to exist as the academic heads seemed to have the prerogative to "hire" and "fire" at will.

The major objective of this study was to establish the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time acadmics in HEIs in Kenya. This study has established the determinants as job-related factors and economic factors. This means that we can use the model to predict organizational commitment score (y) given the values of job –related factors and economic factors of part-time academic staff. These findings are not congruent with findings from other studies (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006) who established quite a large number of factor s as being predictors of organizational commitment.

4.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the results of the study. Initially the results of data analysis were discussed. The demographic characteristics of the repondents show that 70.5 % of the part-time academic staff were male,with most of the staff falling in the 30-39 age bracket, and 83% of the tatoal were married. Similarly 83% had siblings who were majorly below the age of 12. Majority of the respondents (83%) possess a masters degree. The instrument used in the study passed the results of the validity and reliability tests.

In the first set of research hypotheses linking family respnsibilities with organizational TCM organizational commitment elements, all the research hypothesis ($H1b_1$ and $H1b_2$) were accepted indicating that age and sibling status are factors influencing organizational commitment of part-time acdemic staff in Kenya. The second set of research hypotheses were on job-related factor and the TCM of organizational commitment elements (H_2). The hypothesis H_2 was confirmed indicating that job-related factor has a positive influence on overall organizational commitment. The third set of research hypotheses were on economic factors and the TCM of organizational commitment elements (H_3). The hypothesis H3 was confirmed indicating that economic factors have a positive influence on overall organizational commitment. The fourth set of research hypotheses were on organizational factors and the TCM of organizational commitment elements (H_4). The hypothesis H_4 was confirmed indicating that organizational factors has a positive

influence on overall organizational commitment. The results of regression analysis trying to test which of the factors positively correlated with organizational commitment are predictors of organizational commitment show that only job-related factors and economic factors are determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in Kenya's HEIs.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of major findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents a summary of the major findings of the study as guided by the research objectives set out at the beginning of this study. The second section deals with conclusions of the study drawn from the results. The third section presents recommendations of the study in the light of the justification and significance of the study set out earlier in Chapter 1. The fourth section sets out suggested model and suggestions for future research.

5.2 Summary of findings

The major objective of this study was to establish the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in selected HEIs in Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were: to find out whether family responsibilities affect organizational commitment; to find out whether or not job-related factors affect organizational commitment; to find out whether or not organizational factors affects organizational commitment; and to find out whether or not economic factors affect the organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. In this regard the study investigated whether or not empirically identified and selected family responsibilities, job-related factors, organizational factors and economic factors are determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff.

The first objective of the study was to find out whether or not family responsibilities affect organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. This objective was supported by the research question: Do family

responsibilities affect organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya? There were several sub-variables making up the family responsibilities variable: age, gender, marital status, education level, sibling status, second job, number of children. Factor analysis was carried out to and it resulted in a reduction of the subvariables to only two subvariables, namely age and sibling status. The age group where most part-time academics in this study fell is the 30-49 group. The sibling status descriptives show that most have 2- 3 chilren age between 3-12 years. The results of chi-square analysis show that family responsibilities variables are significantly correlated with organizational commiment. Family responsibilities as a factor, when regressed together with other factors against organizational commitment was not however found to be a significant predictor of organizational commitment. These findings are consistent with the findings of similar studies in Australia (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006) and in China (Zafar & Chungtai, 2006). However , they are incosistent with those from the Western context (Mowday, 1987; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999).

The second objective of this study was to determine whether or not job-related factors affect the organizational commitment of part-time academics in HEIs in Kenya. This objective was supported by a leading question: Do job-related factors affect the organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya? Six job-related variables were found to load well into job-related factors in the factor analysis. These factors are supervisor-support, co-worker support, access to resources, employee socialization, perceived dependability and role clarity. The results of bivariate correlation analysis between the avaraged score of job-related factors and the TCM organizational commitment elements show that job-related factors is significantly correlated with affective commitment; significantly correlated with continuance commitment; but not significantly correlated with normative commitment. However, job-related factor is significantly correlated with overall organizational commitment. The results of the regression analysis indicate that job-related factor is a significant predictor of organizational commitment. As such job-related factor was one the factors in this study found to have very significant practical implications on part-time teaching in HEIs. Indeed, most of the organizational commitment challenegs relate in one way or another to job-related factors. These findings are much in agreement with findings of previous studies (Bhuian & Menguec, 2002;

Morley & Flyan, 2004;Liu et al., 2005). Indeed, such factors were found to affect OC of part-time tartiary academic staff in Australia (Joiner & Bakalis).

The third objective of the study was to find out whether not organizational factors affect organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. This objective was supported by the research question: Do organizational factors affect organizational commitmentof part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya? The study variables that were selected in factor analysis as loading very well, and therefore measures of organizational factors are perceived dependability, organizational factors and opportunities for further studies. The average score of these three factors was used as the score for organizational factors factor and correlated with the TCM organizational commitment elements. The results showed that organizational factors is significantly correlated to affective commitment, normative commitment and overall organizational commitment but not correlated significantly with continuance commitment. These findings are similar to those of other previous researchers (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Kushman, 1992; Mayer & Allen, 1990; Loui, 1995). The results of regression analysis indicated that organizational factors is not a significant predictor of organizational commitment.

The fourth objective of this study was to find out whether or not economic factors affect organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. This objective was supported by the research question: Do economic factors affect organizational commitmentof part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya? Earlier studies (Martin, 2007; Kanter, 1994) started exploring the relationship between economic factors and commitment of staff. However, these studies did not link economic factor s to the commitment of part-time academic staff. The variables loading onto economic factors investigated in this study were three and they included perceived dependability, perceived opportunism and perceived uncertainty. The results of this study economic factors are significantly correlated with continuance commitment and overall organizational commitment. However, economic factors are not signicantly correlated to affective commitment and normative commitment. Economic factors is a significant predictor of organizational commitment as per the results of regression analysis.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions can be made arising from the findings of this study. First, the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment is applicable in Kenya, a developing country context, as it is applicable in the Western context. Second, family responsibilities have been found to be significantly correlated with organizational commitment although it cannot be used as a predictor of organizational commitment. Third, job-related factors (supervisor support, co-worker support, access to resources, employee socialization, and role clarity) has been found to be avery important determinant of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. These are the key drivers, which when induced into the part-time employment relationship could build and sustain organizational commitment. The more these factors are present at the workplace, the more the potential of greater organizational commitment from part-time academic staff. Economic factors, relating to perceived fears and costs of leaving a part-time teaching job and being jobless are important psychological factors influencing commitment. The more these factors are communicated to part-time academic staff, the better for their organizational commitment.

In terms of contribution to knowledge in Human Resource Development, the findings of this study have filled a gap which existed by way of dearth in empirical literature on organizational commitment from a non-Western context. Indeed this study is among the few studies, if any, in Kenya and in Africa, on a non-Western setting, that has shed light on the determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs using the Three Componet Model (TCM). On another note, this study is the ia among the few studies that have tested the application of the Three Component Model of Organizational commitment as it applies to part-time academic staff in an African set-up. Furthermore, the study has achieved some methodological improvement by resorting to hard-to-reach or hidden populations-based sampling techniques as a means of improving response rate.

5.4 Recommendations

Several reasons were advanced as a justification of the significance of the proposed findings of this study. These form the basis for the recommendations of this study. First, education managers should come up with policies which would enable HEIs to attract and retain high quality faculty at their respective HEIs. Indeed it is worth noting that management of part-time academic staff has not been guided by explicit human resource management policies. These findings should inform such policy formulation and implementation.

Second, a fundamental question in human resource management have been addressed by the findings of this study: What structures and processes should be put in place to increase the commitment of part-time academic staff? In addressing these questions, this study recommends that those part-time academic staff employed should be supported and facilitated with elements of job-related factors to as ameans of enhancing their organizational commitment. The line managers should also create a human resource systems to facilitate continued indoctrination and learning of part-time academic staff about the job and the organization. The head of department or supervisor, the study recommends, should endeavour to provide personal support and especially to new part-time lecturers. It also recommends that new part-timers should be linked with co-workers who could be full-time members to facilitate in mentoring, coaching or counselling.

This study strongly recommends that part-time academic staff should be provided with access to resources to enable them carry out their duties. Notable among the resources they could be allowed to access are staffrooms, offices, photocopying services, printing, internet facilities and library resources. These have a notable role in enhancing organizational commitment. As most part-time academic staff are concerned about losing the part-time enagagement relationship for fear of remaining jobless among other reasons, and that part-time academics are careful not to loose the attachment due to investiments in the organization, this study recommends that HEIs consider new academic staff for any vacancies that might arise from those who have been taking part-time teaching with them.

This study established the predictors of affective, continuance and normative ecommitment and also indicated the significant relationships, between them. These

factors are combined to form the model of common determinants of organizational commitment for part-time academic staff. The model in Figure 5.4 shows a model of variables which are common determinants of organizational commitment among part-time academic sfaff in HEIs in Kenya.

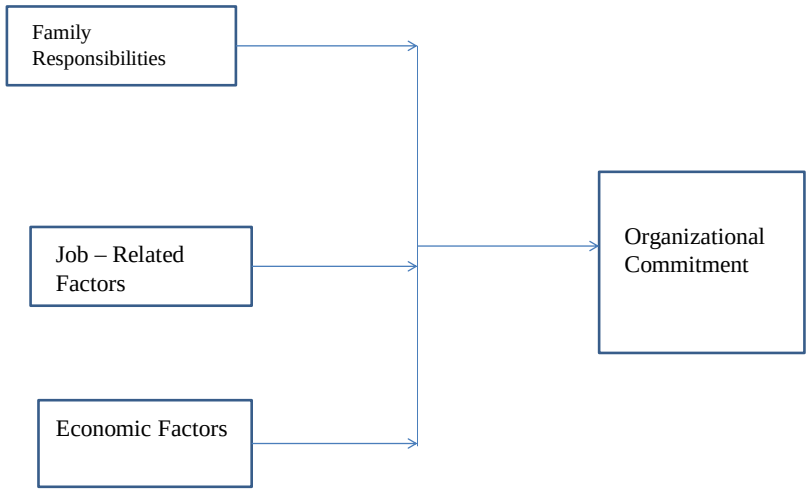

Figure 5.4 Proposed model of common determinants of organizational commitment among part-time academic staff.

Normative commitment was not found to be predicted by any of the factors under study and was therefore omitted from the model. The model shows that family responsibilities is significantly cirrelated to both affectiveand normative commitment and is therefore a predictor of organizational commitment. The model also indicates that job-related factors is significantly correlated to both affective and continuance commitment and is therefore a predictor of organizational commitment. The model shows that economic factors is only significantly correlated to continuance commitment and is also a predictor of organizational commitment

5.5 Areas of Further Research

While the objectives of this study were successfully accomplished, it however suffered several limitations which may require to be addressed by future research. First, this study focussed on the concept of organizational commitment but there exists several foci of commitment like professional, departmental, occupation, team or workgroup. Future reseaech should consider the determinants of either of the other

commitments. Second, this study was confined to selected public and private universities Nairobi and Mombasa cities in Kenya. Future research should consider extending the focus to many more HEIs not necessarily operating in the cities in Kenya. Research could also focus on other African countries where the use of part-time academic staff is being practised. Alternative research could also narrow down and look at organizational commitment within a single HEI. This could shed more light for particularized decision making on part-time staff.

Third, this study used only empirically selected variables as predictors of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. Furure research could explore other variables as the effect of leadership styles, organization culture, the pay rates or human resource practices on organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. Lastly, future research should also look at the outcomes of organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. In this regard, such studies should aim to measure the organizational commitment levels and the effect of such commitment on outcomes such as students' performance, the quality of instruction and students' progression and retention rates.

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APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a postgraduate student currently pursuing Ph. D at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. The title of my study is "Determinants of organizational commitment of Part-Time Kenyan Academics in Institutions of Higher Education". A questionnaire has been developed addressing several factors related to your job and the influences of your commitment to the job which have an impact on your attachment to your institution. Based on your work experience and knowledge, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with a given statement on the space provided. The questions have been simplified and therefore should not take more than 30 minutes to complete.

Your university has been selected to participate in this study and consequently, you have been selected as a respondent through a random sample of employees from your university. Even if you feel that some of the items may not directly apply to your work experiences, please do not ignore them. Your answers are essential in building an accurate picture of the issues that are important in improving part-timer academics commitment to their respective HEIs.

I also wish to assure you that the information you provide will only be used for academic purposes and will be treated with strict CONFIDENTIALITY. You can be assured that no one else will ever know how you responded to the questions. Please do not write your name anywhere in this questionnaire. I hope you find completing this questionnaire enjoyable and let me thank you taking the time complete it. If you have any queries or would like further information about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on the address below.

Thank you for your assistance,

Matata Kilungu

jmkilungu@yahoo.co.uk Cellphone : +254721474719

APPENDIX II: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete the following section by ticking, circling the right choice answer or writing down your opinion.

Name of university: ---------- Campus/College.....

Location/City----------

Internal part-timer ☐ External part-timer ☐

1. Gender *(Please tick)*:

Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Age:

Below 30

A. 30 – 39

B. 40 – 49

C. 50 and above

3. Marital status:

A. Married

B. Not Married

4. Please indicate the children/siblings status

A. I have no children

B. I have children

5. What is the average age of your children?

A. 1-6

B. 7-12

C. 13-18

D. 19 and above

6. How many semesters of part-time teaching have you served in the university?

A. 1 - 3

B. 4 - 6

C. 7 - 9

D. 10 and above

7. Please select the highest educational qualification you hold from the list shown below:

A. Bachelor's degree

B. Masters

C. Ph D

D. Post Doctoral

8. Which of the following income generating activities are you involved in (tick as many as applicable):

A. Part time lecturing *(e.g. other institutions or parallel programmes)*

B. Consultancies

C. Privately- run business

D. Full-time employment

E. Other *(Please specify)*:

9. Do you have a full-time job anywhere?

A. Yes

B. No

10. Please indicate the sector where you work on a full-time basis

A. Higher Education

B. Secondary Education

C. Tertiary Education

D. Transport and Communication

E. Public Service

F. Financial Sector

G. Manufacturing Sector

H. Building And Construction

I. Informal Sector

J. Health Sector

K. Agriculture

L. Non- Governmental Organization

M. No full-time job

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following aspects relating to your employment relationship in the university where you are engaged to teach as a part-time lecturer (insert a tick (√) in the appropriate box).5 = Strongly Agree 4 = Agree 3 =Indifferent 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	Description	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Indifferent**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Q11.	My supervisor encourages me to give my best effort	5	4	3	2	1
Q12.	Other people in this university are willing to help me whenever I have a problem	5	4	3	2	1
Q.13	When I need additional resources to do my job at the university, I can usually get them	5	4	3	2	1
Q.14	My part-time teaching roles in the university are very clear to me	5	4	3	2	1
Q.15	I was properly socialised when I joined the university as a part-time academic	5	4	3	2	1
Q.16	Although I work here in the university as a part-time academic I have another job	5	4	3	2	1
Q.17	As a part-time lecturer I see opportunities for postgraduate studies at the employing university	5	4	3	2	1
Q.18	The engaging officer in the academic department does guarantee to renew my part-time contract every new semester	5	4	3	2	1
Q.19	I perceive that my part-time teaching	5	4	3	2	1

	employment relationship with the university is dependable					
Q.20	I would not want to be jobless; hence I would rather have a part-time teaching job	5	4	3	2	1
Q.21	The high costs of looking for a job cause me to keep to my part-time teaching job	5	4	3	2	1

22. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following aspects relating to your academic assignments in the university as a apart-time lecturer (insert a tick in the appropriate box).1 = Strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 =Indifferent 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree.

	AFFECTIVE COMPONENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly Agree
A1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	1	2	3	4	5
A2	I enjoy discussing the university with people outside of it	1	2	3	4	5
A3	I really feel as if this employing university's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
A4	I think I could not become as easily attached to another employing university as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5
A5	I do feel "emotionally attached" to this university	1	2	3	4	5
A6	I do feel like "part of the family" at this university	1	2	3	4	5
A7	This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5

A8	I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my university	1	2	3	4	5

	CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT SCALE ITEMS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly Agree
C1	Right now, staying with this university is a necessity as much as a desire	1	2	3	4	5
C2	It would be very hard for me to leave this university right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
C3	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this university now	1	2	3	4	5
C4	I feel that I have to few options to consider my employing university where I teach on part-time basis	1	2	3	4	5
C5	One of the major reasons that I continue to work for this e university is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice of benefits that I cannot get elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
C6	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university basis would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5
C7	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job right now without having	1	2	3	4	5

	another one lined up					
C8	It would be too costly for me to leave this university in the near future	1	2	3	4	5

	NORMATIVE COMMITMENT SCALE ITEMS	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Indifferent**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
N1	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one employer	1	2	3	4	5
N2	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave this university	1	2	3	4	5
N3	I think that people these days move from employer to employer too often	1	2	3	4	5
N4	I do believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her employer	1	2	3	4	5
N5	Jumping from one employing university to another university to teach on part-time basis does not seem at all unethical to me	1	2	3	4	5
N6	One of the major reasons that I continue to work here is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore, feel a sense of moral obligation to remain	1	2	3	4	5

N7	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one employer for most of their careers	1	2	3	4	5
N8	I do think that wanting to be a "company man" or "company woman" is still very sensible today.	1	2	3	4	5

23. Please indicate your reason/ reasons for choosing part-timeteaching by placing a tick (√) in the column against the item in the table below (tick as many as applicable).

REASONS FOR CHOOSING PART-TIME TEACHING	Major reason	Minor reason	No reason at all
Lack of full-time employment			
To supplement full-time income			
Stepping stone to full-time job with the university			
To reduce on my free time			
I have less responsibility at work			
To stay active in the field			
To explore a new career field			
To apply my expertise in a different job			
Transition to my retirement			
Loss of income			
Health reasons			
Caring for relatives			
Going to school/ college			
To cater for rising cost of living			
To fund my education			

To support the education of my children			

24. Briefly explain the how your family responsibilities influence your organizational commitment as a part-time lecturer?

.....
.....

25. What would you advise chairpersons of academic departments to do to increase your commitment as a part-time lecturer?

.....
.....
.....
.....

26. What organisational reforms would you suggest in HEIs to promote commitment of part-time academic staff?

.....
.....
.....
....

27. What economic challenges do you face as a part-time academic as a result of the university remuneration systems?

.....
.....
.....
.....

28. What remuneration changes would you suggest to be put in place in HEIs as a means of gaining the commitment of part-time academic staff?

.....
.....
.....

END

THANK YOU

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ACADEMIC HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND DEANS OF FACULTIES)

1. How many years of academic leadership experience do you have?
2. What is the proportion of full-time to part-time faculty in your department?
3. Why do you engage part-time academics in your department?
4. What is the University's policy on employment of part-time academics?
5. On average how many part-time academics are in use in your department per semester?
6. What factors do you consider before employing a part-time lecturer as a means of ensuring his/her commitment?
7. What measures has your department/University put in place to enhance commitment of part-time academics?
8. In your own opinion, and from your experience with the part-time academics you have so far engaged, are there differences in commitment among staff? Please elaborate.
9. In your own opinion, do part-time academics in your department show any emotional attachment to the department?
10. Are part-time academics in your department committed to stay with the department for several years?
11. In your assessment, do your part-timers show a sense of moral obligation resulting in a moral duty to remain with you?
12. Given the economic situation in Kenya, are part timers economically motivated to remain as long as their economic needs are being fulfilled?
13. What challenges do you face with regard to management of part-timers?

14. What factors do you think affect commitment of part-timers in your department?

15. What suggestions would you offer as a means of enhancing commitment of part-time academics in Kenya?

APPENDIX IV: TABLE OF SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION

Table 1: Table for determining sample size from a given population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	150	108	460	210	2200	327
15	14	160	113	480	214	2400	331
20	19	170	118	500	217	2600	335
25	24	180	123	550	226	2800	338
30	28	190	127	600	234	3000	341
35	32	200	132	650	242	3500	346
40	36	210	136	700	248	4000	351
45	40	220	140	750	254	4500	354
50	44	230	144	800	260	5000	357
55	48	240	148	850	265	6000	361
60	52	250	152	900	269	7000	364
65	56	260	155	950	274	8000	367
70	59	270	159	1000	278	9000	368
75	63	280	162	1100	285	10000	370
80	66	290	165	1200	291	15000	375
85	70	300	169	1300	297	20000	377
90	73	320	175	1400	302	30000	379
95	76	340	181	1500	306	40000	380
100	80	360	186	1600	310	50000	381
120	86	380	191	1700	313	75000	382
120	92	400	196	1800	317	100000	384
130	97	420	201	1900	320		
140	103	440	205	2000	322		

Notes: N = Population size; S = Sample size

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970, p.608).

APPENDIX V: LIST OF UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

A). PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

1. UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI (UoN)
2. KENYATTA UNIVERSITY (KU)
3. MOI UNIVERSITY(MU)
4. EGERTON UNIVERSITY (EU)
5. JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY (JKUAT)
6. MASENO UNIVERSITY (MSU)
7. MASINDE MULIRO UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (MMUST)
8. PUBLIC UNIVERSITY CONSTITUENT COLLEGES
9. KISII UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (KUC)
10. CHUKA UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (CUC)
11. KIMATHI UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY (KUCT)
12. MOMBASA POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (MPUC)
13. KENYA POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (KPUC)
14. PWANI UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (PUC)
15. SOUTH EASTERN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (SEUCO)
16. MERU UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (MUCST)
17. MULTI-MEDIA UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF KENYA (MMUCK)
18. KABIANGA UNIVERSITY COLLEGE
19. NAROK UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

20. BONDO UNIVERSITY COLLEGE
21. LAIKIPIA UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

B) CHARTERED PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

1. CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA (CUEA)
2. DAYSTAR UNIVERSITY (DU)
3. UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY (USIU)
4. AFRICA NAZARENE UNIVERSITY
5. SCOTT THEOLOGICAL COLLEGE
6. KENYA METHODIST UNIVERSITY (KEMU)
7. ST.PAUL'S UNIVERSITY
8. PAN AFRICAN CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY(PAC)
9. STRATHMORE UNIVERSITY
10. KABARAK UNIVERSITY
11. UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA, BARATON (UEAB)

C) UNIVERSITIES APPROVED FOR AWARD OF CHARTER

1. KENYA HIGHLANDS EVANGELICAL UNIVERSITY
2. AFRICAN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY (FORMRLY NAIROBI EVANGELICAL GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY) (AIU)

D) PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES WITH LETTERS OF INTERIM AUTHORITY

1. KIRIRI WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
2. AGA KHAN UNIVERSITY
3. GRETSA UNIVERSITY

4. GREAT LAKES UNIVERSITY OF KISUMU
5. KCA UNIVERSITY
6. PRESBYTERIAN UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA
7. ADVENTIST UNIVERSITY OF AFRICA
8. MT. KENYA UNIVERSITY(MKU)
9. INOORERO UNIVERSITY
10. THE EAST AFRICAN UNIVERSITY (TEAU)

E) REGISTERED PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

1. NAIROBI INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY (NIST)
2. EAST AFRICAN SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY (EAST)

(SOURCE: Commission for Higher Education – January 2013)

APPENDIX VI: CRONBACH-ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Affective Commitment	72.67	152.033	.428	.812
Affective Commitment	72.76	148.990	.554	.807
Affective Commitment	73.24	152.890	.444	.812
Affective Commitment	73.52	152.462	.456	.811
Affective Commitment	73.24	152.890	.426	.812
Affective Commitment	72.81	151.162	.563	.807
Affective Commitment	72.76	148.290	.601	.805
Affective Commitment	72.81	152.162	.551	.808
Cotinuance Commitment	73.48	149.662	.506	.808
Cotinuance Commitment	73.95	147.548	.608	.804
Cotinuance Commitment	73.52	149.662	.496	.809
Cotinuance Commitment	74.19	152.062	.568	.808
Cotinuance Commitment	73.71	151.214	.466	.810
Cotinuance Commitment	73.67	154.933	.322	.817
Cotinuance Commitment	73.57	156.657	.224	.823
Cotinuance Commitment	73.76	153.190	.428	.812
Normative Commitment	73.52	161.862	.135	.825

Normative Commitment	73.71	161.914	.144	.824
Normative Commitment	72.57	166.157	.028	.826
Normative Commitment	73.10	165.890	-.006	.832
Normative Commitment	73.38	164.348	.058	.828
Normative Commitment	73.62	153.148	.384	.814
Normative Commitment	73.86	156.829	.296	.818
Normative Commitment	73.71	163.714	.096	.825

APPENDIX VII: CRONBACH-APHA COEFFICIENTS FOR NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Normative Commitment	22.05	19.148	.436	.585
Normative Commitment	22.24	20.490	.323	.617
Normative Commitment	21.10	25.190	-.083	.690
Normative Commitment	21.62	19.048	.378	.601
Normative Commitment	21.90	20.990	.265	.632
Normative Commitment	22.14	17.229	.566	.541
Normative Commitment	22.38	22.048	.141	.665
Normative Commitment	22.24	17.990	.674	.527

APPENDIX VIII: CRONBACH-APHA COEFFICIENTS FOR CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Cotinuance commitment	19.62	48.848	.362	.891
Cotinuance commitment	20.10	46.190	.554	.872
Cotinuance commitment	19.67	43.333	.691	.858
Cotinuance commitment	20.33	45.333	.779	.854
Cotinuance commitment	19.86	43.529	.710	.856
Cotinuance commitment	19.81	43.262	.685	.859
Cotinuance commitment	19.71	40.614	.735	.853
Cotinuance commitment	19.90	44.790	.671	.861

APPENDIX IX: CRONBACH-ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Affective Commitment	24.86	43.629	.645	.907
Affective Commitment	24.95	43.148	.711	.900
Affective Commitment	25.43	44.257	.672	.904
Affective Commitment	25.71	42.714	.778	.895
Affective Commitment	25.43	43.757	.678	.903
Affective Commitment	25.00	45.000	.697	.902
Affective Commitment	24.95	43.048	.749	.897
Affective Commitment	25.00	44.200	.799	.894

APPENDIX X: CRONBACH-ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR ECONOMIC FACTORS

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Perceived Dependability	6.57	6.257	.510	.801
Perceived Opportunism	6.86	4.729	.582	.739
Perceived Uncertainty	7.24	4.190	.776	.495

APPENDIX XII: CRONBACH-APHA COEFFICIENTS FOR JOB-RELATED FACTORS

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Supervisor Support	12.71	3.014	.606	.699
Co-Worker Support	12.86	2.329	.615	.693
Access To Resources	13.10	2.290	.694	.636
Role Clarity	12.76	3.590	.419	.782

APPENDIX XIII: TESTS OF NORMALITY OF DATA

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Gender	.446	227	.000	.572	227	.000
Age	.263	227	.000	.864	227	.000
Marital Status	.505	227	.000	.450	227	.000
Sibling Status	.498	227	.000	.479	227	.000
Average ages of children	.223	227	.000	.842	227	.000
Total semesters taught	.202	227	.000	.846	227	.000
Highest academic Qualifications	.428	227	.000	.571	227	.000
Income Generating Activities	.225	227	.000	.810	227	.000
Whether On Full-Time Job	.381	227	.000	.628	227	.000
Work Sector	.270	227	.000	.712	227	.000
Supervisor Support	.288	227	.000	.745	227	.000
Co-Worker Support	.334	227	.000	.787	227	.000
Access To Resources	.244	227	.000	.886	227	.000
Role Clarity	.287	227	.000	.741	227	.000
Employee Socialization	.277	227	.000	.870	227	.000
Second Job	.269	227	.000	.803	227	.000
Opportunities Further Studies	.246	227	.000	.872	227	.000
Organizational factors	.237	227	.000	.889	227	.000
Perceived Dependability	.277	227	.000	.872	227	.000
Perceived Opportunism	.244	227	.000	.867	227	.000

Perceived Uncertainty	.184	227	.000	.906	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.240	227	.000	.868	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.273	227	.000	.863	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.186	227	.000	.904	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.180	227	.000	.916	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.241	227	.000	.884	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.300	227	.000	.850	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.304	227	.000	.848	227	.000
Affective Commitment	.305	227	.000	.844	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.308	227	.000	.845	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.196	227	.000	.902	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.205	227	.000	.903	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.202	227	.000	.900	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.201	227	.000	.906	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.199	227	.000	.904	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.208	227	.000	.893	227	.000
Cotinuance Commitment	.204	227	.000	.901	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.220	227	.000	.901	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.238	227	.000	.894	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.257	227	.000	.883	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.297	227	.000	.853	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.238	227	.000	.884	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.219	227	.000	.901	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.187	227	.000	.912	227	.000
Normative Commitment	.205	227	.000	.895	227	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

APPENDIX XVI: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS OF AFFECTIVE, CONTINUANCE AND NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.928	24.699	24.699	5.928	24.699	24.699	4.884	20.348	20.348
2	3.629	15.122	39.820	3.629	15.122	39.820	4.144	17.265	37.614
3	2.309	9.620	49.441	2.309	9.620	49.441	2.839	11.827	49.441
4	1.320	5.500	54.940						
5	1.102	4.591	59.532						
6	1.084	4.515	64.046						
7	.897	3.739	67.785						
8	.867	3.611	71.396						
9	.787	3.279	74.675						
10	.678	2.827	77.502						
11	.657	2.736	80.238						
12	.587	2.448	82.685						
13	.563	2.347	85.033						
14	.510	2.126	87.159						
15	.480	1.999	89.158						
16	.459	1.912	91.070						
17	.406	1.693	92.764						

18	.383	1.595	94.359
19	.353	1.472	95.831
20	.253	1.055	96.885
21	.231	.962	97.847
22	.209	.870	98.717
23	.187	.778	99.496
24	.121	.504	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX XVII: EIGENVALUES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT ITEMS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.928	24.699	24.699	5.928	24.699	24.699	4.836	20.148	20.148
2	3.629	15.122	39.820	3.629	15.122	39.820	4.116	17.151	37.300
3	2.309	9.620	49.441	2.309	9.620	49.441	2.414	10.058	47.357
4	1.320	5.500	54.940	1.320	5.500	54.940	1.468	6.118	53.475
5	1.102	4.591	59.532	1.102	4.591	59.532	1.306	5.440	58.914
6	1.084	4.515	64.046	1.084	4.515	64.046	1.232	5.132	64.046
7	.897	3.739	67.785						
8	.867	3.611	71.396						
9	.787	3.279	74.675						
10	.678	2.827	77.502						
11	.657	2.736	80.238						
12	.587	2.448	82.685						
13	.563	2.347	85.033						
14	.510	2.126	87.159						

15	.480	1.999	89.158
16	.459	1.912	91.070
17	.406	1.693	92.764
18	.383	1.595	94.359
19	.353	1.472	95.831
20	.253	1.055	96.885
21	.231	.962	97.847
22	.209	.870	98.717
23	.187	.778	99.496
24	.121	.504	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX XVIII: Results of Factor Extraction for variables presumed to affect organizational commitment

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.431	21.442	21.442	3.431	21.442	21.442	3.217	20.106	20.106
2	2.207	13.794	35.236	2.207	13.794	35.236	1.969	12.305	32.412
3	1.784	11.151	46.387	1.784	11.151	46.387	1.810	11.312	43.724
4	1.205	7.528	53.915	1.205	7.528	53.915	1.387	8.669	52.393
5	1.065	6.654	60.569	1.065	6.654	60.569	1.308	8.176	60.569
6	.974	6.089	66.657						
7	.882	5.513	72.170						
8	.761	4.756	76.926						
9	.675	4.220	81.146						
10	.636	3.977	85.123						
11	.549	3.430	88.553						
12	.461	2.882	91.436						
13	.407	2.545	93.980						
14	.375	2.346	96.326						
15	.302	1.886	98.212						
16	.286	1.788	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.