

**DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN
KENYA'S PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES**

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**Determinants of Organizational Commitment among Academic Staff in
Kenya's Public and Private Universities**

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DECLARATION

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

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife Susan and children Lynn, Kezia and William for their patience, understanding and encouragement during this study and the entire course.

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ACRONYMS

AC	Affective Commitment
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
CUE	Commission for University Education
EB	Employee Benefits
EIP	Employee Involvement and Participation
EPDM	Employee Participation in Decision Making
ET	Employment Terms
HRM	Human Resource Management
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
MMUST	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology
OC	Organizational Commitment
PCC	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
PM	Participative Management
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SHRD	School of Human Resource Development
TCM	Three Component Model
WLB	Work-life Balance
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Affective Commitment: Affective commitment is defined by Meyer and Allen (1991) as “an employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization”. It is a psychological state, or mind-set that increases the likelihood of an employee to remain with an organization. Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, rather than because they need to, or they ought to.

Continuance commitment: It refers to the extent to which the employee perceives that leaving the organization would be costly. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain because they have to do so (Bernard, 2012). The employee will stay because there are no alternatives even though the current job may have some undesirable elements.

Employee Participation: Employee participation represents the combination of task-related practices, which aim to maximize employees’ sense of involvement in their work, and human resource management practices that aim to maximize employees’ commitment to the wider organization (Bhatti & Nawab 2011). Employee Participation is generally defined as a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal.

Non-permanent Employee: Non-permanent employment can broadly be defined as all employment which is not based on an open-ended and continuous employment contract, but which is limited in time - the main types being employment on fixed-term contracts, temporary agency work and casual or seasonal work (Vosko, 2000).

Normative Commitment: This refers to the employee’s feelings of obligation to the organization and the belief that staying is the ‘right thing’ to do. Employees with strong normative commitment remain because they feel that they ought to do so going by the much the organization has done to them (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational Commitment: It refers to the relative strength of the individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organization (Armstrong, 2008). Commitment consists of three components: identification and involvement with and loyalty to the organization.

Workplace Spirituality: It is about employees who experience a sense of purpose and meaning in their work, and a sense of connectedness to one another and to their workplace community. Ashmos and Duchon (2000) have defined workplace spirituality as recognition that employees have an inner life which nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work, taking place in the context of a community.

Work-life Balance Practices: The concept of work-life balance is about employees achieving a satisfactory equilibrium between work and non-work activities. Work-life balance is a broad concept including proper prioritizing between work on one side and life (Health, child care, pleasure, leisure, family and spiritual development) on the other (Beauregard & Henry, 2009).

Employee Work Benefits: Employee benefits is defined as any form of compensation provided by the organization other than wages or salaries that are paid for in whole or in part by the employer. Examples include retirement plans, child care, elder care, hospitalization programs, social security, vacation and paid holidays (Ju, LaiKuan & Hussin, 2008).

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to investigate into the determinants of commitment among the academic staff in the public and private universities in Kenya. The five independent variables investigated included workplace spirituality, work-life practices, employee direct participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and terms of employment. Five research hypotheses were formulated in line with the objectives. In the literature review, theoretical framework was based on the organizational support theory, the social exchange theory and the theory of psychological ownership. In the conceptual framework the five predictors formed the independent variables with employees' level of commitment making the dependent variable. This survey study was a form of a cross-sectional study to establish whether significant associations among variables existed at some point in time. Both descriptive and correlational research designs were used. The study targeted all the academic staff in the public and private universities in Kenya and therefore a comparison of the two sectors was undertaken. Stratified sampling was used where sixteen universities were selected followed by simple random sampling to select both representative department and staff from the selected departments. Data for the study was collected by administering a 65-item questionnaire to a sample of 347 academic staff. During the analysis descriptive statistics were used. Correlation was measured using Karl Pearson's coefficient. Correlation analysis was also undertaken on independent and dependent variables. A multiple regression model for determining staff commitment was also developed and used to assess the joint effect of all independent variables on the dependent variable. Hypothesis testing of regression coefficients was used since the hypothesis involved relationships between variables. The study used *t*-test and F-test for that purpose. The findings were that there was a strong positive linear relationship between the independent variables workplace spirituality and employment terms and organizational commitment. The relationship between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment was also positive but weak. Employee participation in decision making and employee non-monetary benefits both had a moderate linear

relationship with organizational commitment. The t-test and F-test for all the variables led to the rejection of the null hypotheses and therefore the study concluded that there was a positive linear relationship between workplace spirituality, work-life practices, employee direct participation in decision making, employee benefits and employment terms and the dependent variable organizational commitment. This study recommended that university administrators should maintain a spiritual workplace so as to develop a whole person (mind, body, and also spirit). Governments need to support and assist universities, companies and other organizations whether public or private to implement and introduce policies for work-life balance. The study also recommended that employee participation in decision making should be increased especially in the private universities. Governments should make effort to enact laws that will make it compulsory for every employer to provide some form of benefits to their employees especially in the private sector where the application of these benefits is low. Universities should come up with policies and strategies to ensure that the high number of non-permanent employees in the universities is reduced.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

In the current dynamic working environment and severe competition, organizations are required to adopt techniques which are flexible, adaptive and competitive due to the competitive pressures and rapidly changing market conditions. Organizations need to have affectively committed workforce to survive such pressures. Employees are viewed as one of the most important assets for most organizations, in particular service-based organizations like universities because of the benefits of delivering successful performance (Colakoglu & Culha, 2010).

There is a substantial body of evidence demonstrating the benefits to organizations for having a strongly committed workforce. Indeed, meta-analytic reviews of various research demonstrate that employees who are committed and especially affectively committed to an organization are less likely to leave and more likely to attend regularly, perform effectively, and are good organizational citizens (Meyer & Martin, 2010).

1.1.1 Concept of Organizational Commitment

Commitment generally means attachment and loyalty. It refers to the relative strength of the individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organization. Employees' affective commitment has been considered an important determinant of dedication and loyalty. Affectively committed employees are seen as having a sense of belonging and identification that increases their involvement and their desire to remain with the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2001). Staff commitment is important because committed employees are less likely to leave for another job and are more likely to perform at higher levels. According to a research by Mathieu and Zajac (1990), the

outcomes with the greatest correlation with commitment (in order) were intention to search, intention to leave, and actual turnover.

As Armstrong (2008) suggested, organizational commitment plays an important part in Human Resource Management philosophy. Human Resource Management policies are designed to maximize employee commitment, flexibility and quality of work. A committed employee has a strong desire to remain a member of an organization and accept its values in addition to readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.

One of the models that have generated most research on organizational commitment is that developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). They labeled them: affective commitment (desire to stay), continuance commitment (perceived costs of leaving) and normative commitment (perceived obligation to stay) to distinguish the various types of commitment. According to them, more than one of each type of commitment may be present in an individual employee.

1.1.2 Overview of the Determinants of Organizational Commitment

Employers should not focus only on the extrinsic rewards such as compensation and benefit to boost organizational commitment. This study focused on the workplace spirituality rather than the extrinsic factors such as employee remuneration, promotion opportunities and training. It therefore investigated whether workplace spirituality had any effect on employee organizational commitment. Over the past few years, workplace spirituality has been recognized as a fundamental area of research in the academic world to add more meaning to one's workplace (Petchsawang &, 2009). If the employees are allowed to bring their spiritual attributes to the workplace, they will become more fulfilled but if the employees work in a dispirited workplace, they will manifest themselves in various work troubles like low morale, high turnover, and non-committed attitude to the organization.

According to Armstrong (2008), the work-life balance survey conducted by EMAR in 2003 established that one of the benefits of work-life balance policies is improved commitment and morale. This research was conducted by Employment Market Analysis and Research (EMAR), a multi-disciplinary team of economists, social researchers and statisticians based in the Employment Relations Directorate of the Department of Trade and Industry in the UK. Armstrong (2008) affirms that some of the major challenges of modern Human Resource Management include the changing mix of the workforce and the changing expectations of citizen-employees. There are more female employees, more married female employees and even more working mothers. This calls for organizations to come up with work-life balance policies to take care of such a diversified workforce. The concept of work-life balance is about employees achieving a satisfactory equilibrium between work and non-work activities. Examples of non-work activities include parental responsibilities and wider caring duties.

Work-life balance policies, employee participation in decision making, and employee non-monetary benefits are situational factors and relate to the HR practices of the organization. Participation of workers in the process of decision making, leads to higher levels of commitment and therefore to a higher worker and organization performance. Employee participation is considered as a combination of different tools designed to increase employee input of various degrees in managerial decision making and has various benefits like organizational commitment, reduction of employee intention to turnover and absenteeism, increase in productivity and motivation (Bhatti & Nawab, 2011). Organizational commitment is important to researchers and organizations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. In this case public and private universities in Kenya are not an exemption.

Employees are also awarded non-monetary benefits by their employer organizations. One of the aims of such benefits is to motivate the employees and obtain their commitment and engagement. There is a need for organizations to reward people fairly

equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organization if they are to remain committed. Balkinand Cardy (2007), states that employee's total compensation has three components. The relative proportion of each varies extensively by firm. The first and largest element of total compensation is the base compensation, the fixed pay an employee receives on a regular basis for example monthly. The second component is the pay incentives, programs designed to reward employees for good performance. This includes bonuses and profit sharing. Indirect compensation or benefits is the last component of total compensation. Examples of such benefits include health insurance, vacations, and unemployment vacations, retirement plans, medical plans, paid leave and educational assistance.

Employees at the universities are employed either on permanent or non-permanent employment terms. A non-permanent employee is an individual engaged by an organization to provide a specific set of services for a limited duration (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2008a). An employer-employee relationship is established pursuant to the terms and conditions of a written employment contract. In both permanent and non-permanent employment, contract delineates the length of employment, the salary and bonuses (if any) to be paid, and the other benefits that accrue to the contract employee. The contract also sets forth the specific role the employee will play. Unlike more traditional employees, non-permanent employees are engaged for a set term. Most likely the contract will include a provision for renewal under specific circumstances. Although the length of the engagement of a contract employee varies, the term typically is associated with the undertaking of a particular project or for a set number of years (very commonly in the two-five-year range).

1.1.3 University Education in Kenya

Universities have three main missions: teaching, research and service. For the universities to accomplish this mission they need a committed workforce. The world economy has increasingly become knowledge based. The demand for higher Education

has continued to increase considerably in African countries. In Kenya the increasing demand for higher education prompted the increase in the number of universities both public and private although higher education has historically been an exclusive domain of the public sector. Neo-liberalism led several states that originally funded university education fully to divest themselves of this role. The growth in numbers can be attributed to but not limited to the increased role of the private sector in the provision of the university education in Kenya (Mwiria & Ng'ethe, 2007).

Many factors contributed to the emergence and growth of the private university sector in the country. The major ones include: massive numbers of qualified students who could not secure admission in the public universities; increased demand for skilled labour and the need to educate for specific religious aims. The increase in the number of public universities failed to cater for the increased demands. Families that were able to finance their children opted to take them overseas for university education. This trend impacted negatively on the exchequer and the government was compelled to encourage private university establishment in the 1980s and the 1990s to check flow of funds out of the country (Brown, 1996). With the increase in the enrolment in the private and public universities, the number of employees both academic and administrative has also increased. Managers of the universities in Kenya are therefore required to come up with better ways of managing the rising number of university employees.

National strategy for university education in Kenya has made universities which were in the past clustered in urban areas, to spread their wings to more rural areas and offer locally appropriate courses such as dry-land farming, tourism and hospitality, marine sciences and environmental resources. This has put pressure on the universities both private and public to look for ways of attracting and retaining a committed workforce in such rural set-ups (University World News, 2013).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In the Kenya Vision 2030, Kenya aimed at expanding access to university education from 4.6% as per 2008 to 20% by year 2030 with an emphasis on science and technology courses. This target will be attained through the contribution of both public and private universities. In a study on public and private Universities in Kenya interviews with Universities' administrators revealed that acquisition and retention of academic staff was one the five key issues facing the development of private universities in Kenya (Obagi, Nzomo & Otieno, 2005). Research on academic staff commitment is essential so that the universities can add knowledge on acquisition and retention of affectively committed staff .According to Kirkebut (2010), affectively committed employees are predicted to be high performers, register less absenteeism and turnover less.

Commission for University Education statistics show that between 2010 and 2013 the number of professors working in Kenya's seven older seven public universities rose by a measly 11% over the three years while student numbers soared by 56%, highlighting the challenge the country faces in matching enrolments with lecturers (University World News, 2013). Ng'ethe, Iravo and Namusonge (2012) affirm that the mobility of staff in Kenyan universities is becoming a challenge. Universities in Kenya both public and private are therefore facing a problem concerning the measures they can put in place to ensure that their academic staff remains committed since according to Meyer and Martin (2010), affectively committed employees are less likely to leave their current employer to join another employer.

Currently, many of the private universities in Kenya are trying to promote themselves to be at par with the public universities. Among other investments, universities are initiating financial support programs for faculty to pursue their studies. However, the turnover rate among academic staff of the Kenyan universities has remained a challenge. It is obvious that these universities cannot get a return from their investment on faculty

academic staff when this is occurring. According to Lin and Huang (2008), understanding the determinants of commitment can enhance better administrative decisions in the universities.

Going by the rising rate of university enrolment for studies, the diverse nature of the courses being offered and the programs adapted by the universities in Kenya, a committed staff is needed if the universities are to accomplish their goals. Most of the private universities have been operating with few full-time staff and mainly rely on part-time lecturers from public universities. A number of private universities hire public university lecturers to design their programmes in order to pass the CUE scrutiny (Kirkebut, 2010). In a study of 139 academics from a Jordanian university Al-Omari, Qablan and Khasawnnah (2008) found that organizational commitment had significant positive effects on intent to stay and therefore they suggested that efforts to improve faculty retention should focus on the work-related factors that affect employee commitment.

According to CHE 'standards and guidelines for university academic programmes' released in October 2011 each academic programme should be headed by an appropriate and qualified full time academic staff. The minimum academic qualifications of academic staff shall be at least one level above that of the academic programme. The ratio of full-time to part-time academic staff members is required to be 2:1, and the maximum lecturer student ratio for the theoretical-based courses is 1:50 and 1:20 for practical-based courses. With the current mobility of the academic staff, most universities in Kenya have not been able to maintain the required standards with recently established public and private universities being the most affected and there is therefore a need to address this problem. Educational managers of the various universities need to understand the various predictors of staff commitment to retain their employees with an aim of achieving their organizational goals and operating within the CUE legal requirements.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General Research Objective

The general objective of this study was to analyze the determinants of organizational commitment among academic staff in Kenya's Public and Private universities.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

1. To establish the effect of workplace spirituality on organizational commitment of academic staff in the public and private universities in Kenya
2. To examine the effect of work-life balance practices available in the public and private universities in Kenya on academic staffs' organizational commitment.
3. To investigate the effect of employee direct participation in decision making on academic staffs' organizational commitment in the private and public universities in Kenya
4. To evaluate the effect of employee non-monetary benefits adapted by the public and private universities in Kenya on their academic staff organizational commitment.
5. To determine the effect of academic employees' terms of employment on their organizational commitment in the public and private universities in Kenya

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The study was guided by the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁: Workplace spirituality does not affect employee organizational commitment.

H₀₂: Work-life balance practices do not affect staffs' organizational commitment.

H₀₃: Employees' direct participation in decision making does not affect their organizational commitment.

H₀₄: Employees' non-monetary benefits do not affect their organizational commitment.

H₀₅: An employee's terms of employment do not affect his/her organizational commitment.

1.5 Significance of the study

The results that emerged from this research can help educational managers to understand the predictors of the different types of commitment and design effective human resource policies in their organizations. The predictors with the strongest relationship can be given more weight by the educational managers. These results can also be useful to the governments when making laws relating to work-life balance issues and employees' benefits among the working population. Prospective employers can apply this knowledge and be able to attract, recruit and select their best employees. This study can permit managers to ascertain how the organization can use its human resources policy to influence the level of commitment among its employees, by promoting affective commitment while keeping continuance commitment low, a strategy that will ultimately impact on performance.

Although there exists various components of organizational commitment, this study prefers the affective component since – in contrast with the other components – it represents the most reliable and strongly validated dimension of organizational commitment (Cohen, 2003). Moreover, of all three dimensions, affective commitment was found to correlate strongest and with the widest range of behavioral criterion variables like attendance, performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). For all these reasons, affective commitment is preferred as the core concept of organizational commitment and the sole indicator of commitment to the organization in many recent studies (Armstrong-Stassen, 2006 & Kuvaas, 2006)

1.6 Scope of the study

The scope of this research was public and private universities in Kenya. There were 22 public and 27 private universities spread across the major cities and towns in the country mainly Nairobi, Mombasa, Nakuru, Meru, Eldoret, Thika and Kisumu (See Appendices 3 & 4) (CUE, 2013). Public universities have constituent colleges but these were not included in this study. This study also concentrated on those universities that were in existence for at least two years and appearing top 44 in the Webometric ranking of universities in Kenya 2014. The academic staffs included were those serving a contract of at least two years.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

In this study most respondents were university staff with masters' education qualification. Members of academic staff at doctorate level were hard to access as most had other administrative duties in their Universities. Some of the questionnaires issued to them were not included in the study as they were not filled by the start of the data analysis leading to low response among academic staff at doctorate level. However effort was made to follow up the respondents to minimize this limitation. The study was not able to cover a large geographical area due to financial limitations. However most universities located far from central and Nairobi area had campuses located mostly in main cities and towns in Kenya thus making it possible to access such respondents.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The major objective of the literature review is to investigate the relationship between the predictors of organizational commitment and staff Commitment. In the theoretical framework various theories among them the organizational support theory, the social exchange theory, the theory of psychological ownership and spiritual leadership theory were explained. The Three Component Model (TCM) commonly referred to as Meyer and Allan commitment model has also been outlined in the chapter. Among a long list of determinants the following were selected in this study: workplace spirituality, work-life practices, employee direct participation in decision, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment. The chapter also contains the conceptual framework, empirical studies, critique of relevant literature, research gaps and chapter summary.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

This research is based on various theories among them the organizational support theory, the social exchange theory, the theory of psychological ownership and the behavioral theory. A theoretical framework is a collection of interrelated ideas based on theories used to explain a phenomenon. In this particular case the phenomenon under study was organizational commitment.

2.2.1 Organizational Support Theory

Organizational support theory may help explain employees' commitment to the organization. This approach assumes that in order to meet social emotional needs and to assess the organization's readiness to reward increased efforts, employees form general

beliefs concerning how much the organization values their contribution and cares about their well being. This is known as Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Actions by agents of the organization are often viewed as indications of the organizations' intent rather than solely as actions of a particular individual. Because employees personify the organization they would view favorable or unfavorable treatment as indicative of the organization's benevolent or malevolent orientation towards them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2001).

On the basis of the reciprocity norm, POS would create a felt obligation to care about organization's welfare and help an organization achieve its objectives. Employees could feel indebted to the organization and will fulfill this through greater organizational commitment. POS would also increase affective commitment by fulfilling needs for esteem, approval and affiliation leading to the incorporation of organizational membership (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2001).

According to organizational support theory, favorable opportunities for rewards convey a positive valuation of employees' contributions and thus contribute to POS which in turn increases employee commitment. Employee direct participation in decision making and receipt of information and adequate notice before implementing decisions, have been found to increase POS leading to increased employee commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2001). Employees supported by their organization by being offered favorable employment terms feel this support is given because they are valuable employees for their organizations. Employees who feel their organization value and appreciate them are satisfied with their job and attached to their organization.

According to the findings of a study by Colakoglu and Culha (2010), perceived organizational support has a significantly positive effect on employee organizational commitment. Employees who are cared for and valued by their organizations will attach to their organization in affective way. Employees who attach to their organization show better performance and more meaningful contributions (Meyer & Allen,

1997). Organizations or supervisors, therefore, should spend reasonable and intensive time with their employees through supportive activities.

Although organizational support theory is based on perception of the employees towards the actions of the organization, perception is a complex phenomenon. Perception may not only be influenced by the target (organization's actions) but also by the perceiver. People are known to interpret the same situation (same target) in different ways. There are those who will perceive the purported favorable actions by the organizations as only as beneficial to the organization in the long run and may not find the need to reciprocate.

2.2.2 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory can be used to explain the relationship between employee benefits (including non-monetary benefits), employee terms of employment and work-life balance and commitment. Higher job satisfaction and commitment may result if flexible benefits produce a better match between an individual employee's particular needs and the benefits he or she receives. Social exchange theory suggests that by satisfying important individual needs such as through employee non-monetary benefits, employees may respond with higher levels of satisfaction and commitment to the organization. The theory posits that all human relationships are formed by a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. The theory has its roots in economics, psychology and sociology. Although different views of social exchange have emerged, theorists agree that social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations. These interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person. The social exchange perspective argues that people calculate the overall worth of a particular relationship by subtracting its costs from the rewards it provides. In an organizational set-up, there exists a relationship between an employee and the organization and its destiny will be determined by the worth of the relationship on both parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The social exchange theory posits that the major force in interpersonal relationship is the satisfaction of both people's self interest. Self interest is not considered necessarily bad and can be used to enhance relationships. Employees expect benefits in form of such things like financial gains, social status and emotional comforts (spiritual workplace). Commitment will act as cost in terms of time spent in the workplace and lost opportunities (Heshizer, 1994). According to De DeCuyper, De Witte and Emmeric (2011), to promote commitment and productive behaviour among temporary workers employers should follow the practice of social exchange. In order for an organization to reap the benefits in terms of loyalty and commitment employees need fair treatment.

According to Lambert (2000), developments in social exchange theory suggests that work-family benefits may promote employee participation in organization's activities and initiative through a felt obligation to give extra effort in return for additional benefits. Therefore, it is suggested that organizations that provide work-family programs may induce an obligation manifested as enhanced employee commitment. Consequently, an organization that offers work-family policies might experience outcomes like reduced turnover or greater employee commitment (Haar & Spell, 2004).

The norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory have been used by researchers to examine relationships between work-family polices and employee commitment. It is argued that the norm of reciprocity is a cultural value based on the principle of 'give and take', where the actions of both parties result in mutual benefit and reinforce their relationship. Haar and Spell (2004) asserts that, under the norm of reciprocity, the recipient of benefits becomes morally obligated to recompense the donor. According to exchange theory, there may be reciprocal relationships between an employee's commitment to the organization and the support he/she receives from it. An employee who feels that his job is secure may reciprocate by being committed. Job security, which distinguishes those on temporary contracts from the rest, is a key driver of commitment among university lecturers (Bayona & Goni-Legaz, 2009).

An exchange requires a bidirectional transaction. This means that something has to be given and something returned. For this reason, interdependence, which involves mutual and complementary arrangements, is considered a defining characteristic of social exchange (Molm, 2003). Reciprocal interdependence emphasizes contingent interpersonal transactions, whereby an action by one party leads to a response by another. If a person supplies a benefit, the receiving party should respond in kind. The process begins when at least one participant makes a “move,” and if the other reciprocates, new rounds of exchange initiate. The move can be made by the employer or by the employee. Once the process is in motion, each consequence can create a self-reinforcing cycle. Parties of exchange may also negotiate rules in the hope of reaching beneficial arrangements. Negotiated agreements tend to be more explicit than reciprocal exchanges (Molm, 2003).

This theory involves social exchanges which are ‘voluntary actions’ which may be initiated by an organization’s treatment of its employees, with the expectation that the employees will be obligated to reciprocate the good deeds of the organization. Although social exchange theory is commonly used in organizations, mostly what exist are economic exchanges which are enforceable rather than social exchanges. Some employees may feel that it is their rights to receive such treatments from their organizations and may not therefore feel obliged to reciprocate.

2.2.3 Theory of Psychological Ownership

The concept and theory of psychological ownership proposed by Pierce et al (2001) also forms part of the theoretical framework in this research. Psychological ownership is defined as individual feelings toward things which are substantial or non-substantial. A psychological feeling of possession makes individuals regard tangible or intangible targets as an extension of themselves. Furthermore, Pierce *et al.* (2004) argued that lawful ownership is the privilege of possessions that are ensured and possession rights that have legal protection; however, psychological ownership is committed by

individuals who sense this feeling and comparative privileges recognized by individuals. Therefore, employees with psychological ownership which may be enhanced by participative management may produce positive attitudes and stronger organizational commitment (Chiang & Chang, 2010).

Organizational commitment is an attitude through which employees identify organizational goals and invest themselves in the organization for the sake of staying in the organization. Employees may develop organizational commitment on the basis of being positively attracted by the sense of belonging to the organization. Based on the argument of Pierce *et al.* (2001), organizational commitment differs from psychological ownership in that organizational commitment focuses on willingness of employees to stay in the organization and become organizational members while psychological ownership emphasizes employee in ownership of organizations. Additionally, when employees' sense of belonging is stronger, employees have increased willingness to remain in the organization, and employees with a stronger sense of belonging are more committed to their organizations (Chiang & Chang, 2010).

Masterson and Stamper (2003) argued that employees' rights (such as political rights, where employees can participate in decision making regarding their own work) can strengthen the relational ties of employees within organizations. Whenever employees participate in organizational decision-making, they will increase their working motivation and be more willing to increase their investment in the organization. Employees who have organizational empowerment (a form of EPDM) feel they have a greater amount of control and then can be more committed to organizational goals.

2.2.4 Spiritual Leadership Theory

Workplace spirituality is a fast growing area of research and inquiry and the most developed and tested theory of workplace spirituality is the model of spiritual leadership proposed by Fry (2003, 2008), Fry and Nisiewicz (2013), and Fry, Matherly, and

Ouimet (2010). According to Fry's (2003) spiritual leadership comprises of the values, attitudes, and behaviors that are necessary to intrinsically motivate an individual's self and others so that they have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership. According to this model the goal of spiritual leadership is to develop an organizational vision and values in line with specific strategies, as well as to increase the power of individuals and teams. This according to this theory can lead to improved commitment and productivity among employees. Fry (2008) further revised the spiritual leadership model to include inner life and life satisfaction. Inner life affects individuals' perceptions about who they are, what they are doing, and what they are contributing.

Nelson (2008) explains that spiritual leadership makes employees have a holy vision and engage in value-based, cooperative working. Spiritual leadership makes the ethical requirements of followers clear and builds strong and deep relationships (Fairholm, 1996). Spiritual leaders can increase employee motivation in terms of encouraging employees to live meaningfully and purposefully. Spiritual leaders motivate employees to increase empowerment and organizational commitment (Yaghoubi *et al*, 2010). In addition, suitable leadership techniques can lead to increased job satisfaction among employees, which can promote organizational commitment and increased utility (Fry, 2003).

According to Usman and Danish (2010), spiritual leadership causes increased employee loyalty and commitment to the organization. It can therefore be concluded that spiritual leadership creates a sense of identification, loyalty, and dependency with the organization by developing organizational commitment and a desire to remain in the organization. Apart from Fry and his colleagues other researchers have confirmed the validity of the spiritual leadership model. Bodia and Ali (2012) for example studied the impact of spiritual leadership on banking executives and their employees in Pakistan. They concluded that vision and altruistic love positively influenced calling and membership, and, in turn, job satisfaction, productivity, and organizational commitment.

2.2.5 Three Component Model (TCM)

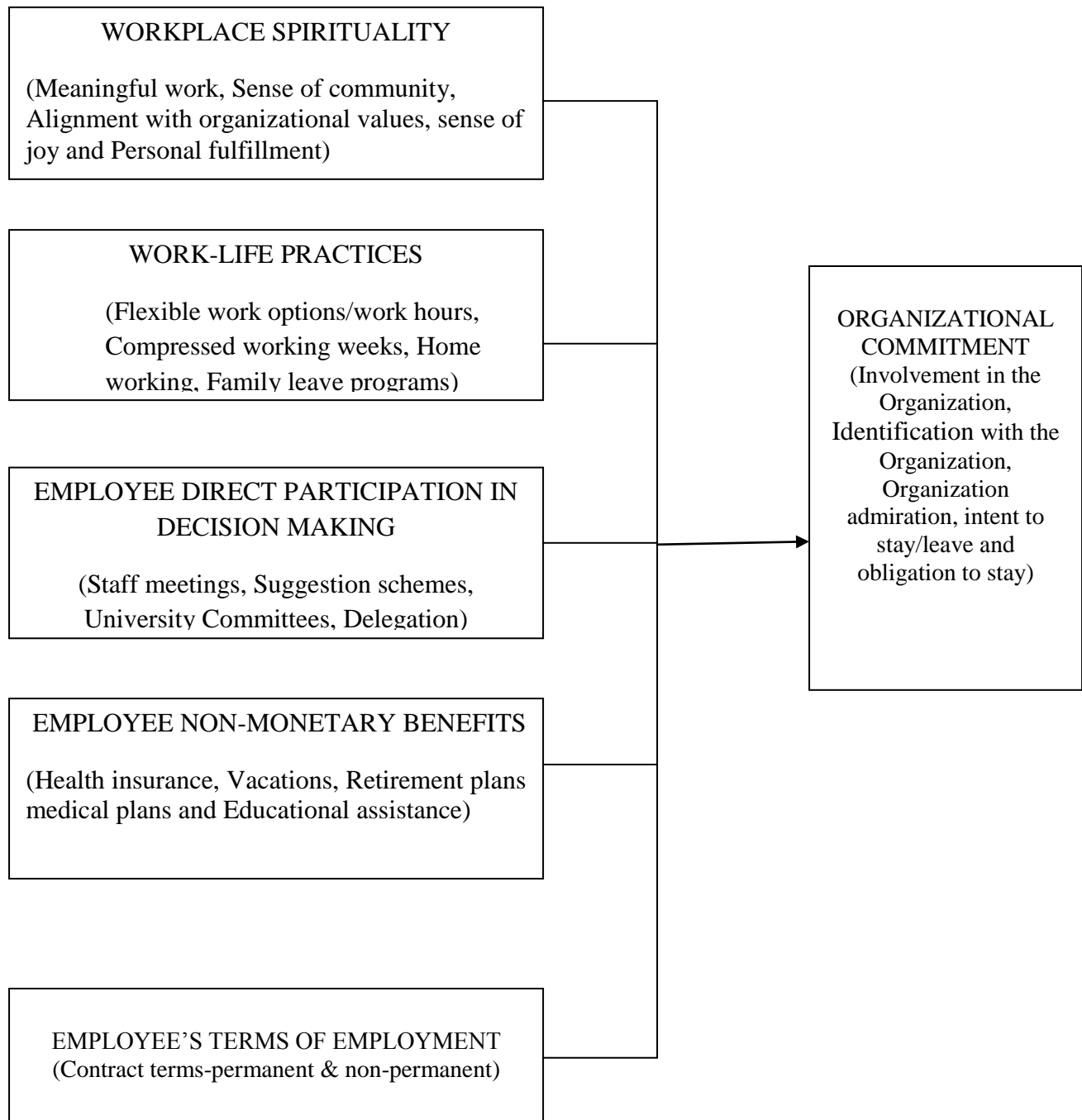
This multidimensional model is commonly referred to as Mayer and Allan commitment model. The three dimensional commitment model differentiates three commitment components: affective (emotional attachment to the organization), continuance (perceived costs associated with leaving the organization) and normative (feelings of obligation towards the organization). These three forms are viewed as facets, rather than different types of organizational commitment. This means that a given employee can be affectively, normatively and instrumentally committed to the organization. These three components are different from each other. One of the characteristics of the model is that each component develops independently, on the basis of different antecedents. Employees tend to be affectively committed if they feel that the organization is supporting them, treats them in a fair way and respects them. Continuance commitment develops when the employee recognizes that he/she stands to lose investments in the organization, and/or perceives that there are no alternatives other than remaining in the organization. Normative commitment develops when people receive benefits that induce them to feel the need to reciprocate to the organization. They will therefore accept the terms of a psychological contract between them and the organization (Rego & Cuhna, 2007). The applicability of Meyer and Allen model was tested in the Kenyan set-up and was found to be applicable. This was done in a study by Kirkebut (2010) involving three public and three private universities among academic and administrative staff.

Although the three component model is the most widely used commitment model, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) argued that organizational commitment can best be conceived of as affective commitment only (Sollinger & Roe, 2007). According to the scholars, affective commitment will be a genuine attitude towards an object (the organization).

2.3 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is based on five independent variables that are presumed to affect levels of staff commitment. These include workplace spirituality, staff

participation in decision making, work-life policies, employee non-monetary benefits and terms of employment. Level of employee commitment is the dependent variable. The conceptual framework is guided by Allen and Meyer (1990) theory of commitment. In this theory of commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) specified three forms of commitment: Affective, Normative and Continuance commitment. Affective commitment refers to employees' identification with, emotional attachment to, and involvement in the organization. An employee who has continuance commitment will stay because the cost of leaving the organization is high or there are no alternatives. This study hypothesized that the independent variables workplace spirituality, staff participation in decision making, work-life balance practices, employee non-monetary benefits and terms of employment influences the dependent variable organizational commitment as shown in figure 2.1 below.



Independent variables

Dependent variable

Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.5 Review of Variables

In the review of variables the five independent variable and the dependent variables have been reviewed. Staff organizational commitment is the dependent variable whereas workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee direct participation, non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment are the independent variables.

2.5.1 Workplace Spirituality

There are different views of workplace spirituality but specifically this study focused on intrinsic-origin perspective view of workplace spirituality rather than, religious view. This spirituality view originates from the inside of an individual and is not related to a particular religion. It implies an inner search for meaning or fulfillment that may be undertaken by anyone regardless of religion. Workplace spirituality does not necessarily involve a connection or conversion to any specific religious tradition, but rather can be based on personal values and philosophy. It is about employees who view themselves as spiritual beings who experience a sense of purpose and meaning in their work, and a sense of connectedness to one another and to their workplace community and whose individual values are in line with the organizational values (Milliman, Czaplewski & Ferguson, 2003). In contrast to the intrinsic-origin view, spirituality based on the religious view is attached to a particular religion as opposed to individual consciousness.

According to McKee, Mills and Driscoll (2008), there is little consensus over the meaning of workplace spirituality. It has been associated with meaningful work, sense of community and connection to others. Another definition includes feelings of completeness and joy and alignment with organizational values. Ashmos and Duchon (2000) have defined workplace spirituality as recognition that employees have an inner life which nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work, taking place in the context of a community. Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003) defined workplace spirituality as a framework of organizational values evidenced in the culture that promotes employees' experience of transcendence through the work process, facilitating their sense of being connected to others in a way that provides feelings of completeness and joy. Spirit at

work is a term that describes the experience of employees who are passionate about and energized by their work, find meaning and purpose in their work, feel that they can express their complete selves at work, and feel connected to those with whom they work (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004).

While workplace spirituality is considered a highly personal and philosophical construct, nearly all of the academic definitions acknowledge that spirituality involves a sense of connectedness at work, and deeper values. Workplace spirituality involves the effort to find one's ultimate purpose in life, to develop a strong connection to coworkers and other people associated with work, and to have consistency (or alignment) between one's core beliefs and the values of their organization (Mitroff & Denton, 1999). Accordingly, workplace spirituality can be defined as the recognition that employees have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work that takes place in the context of community (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000).

This study focused on five dimensions of workplace spirituality. These includes: meaningful work, sense of community, alignment of individual's values with the organization's values and mission, sense of joy and Personal fulfillment. These dimensions were chosen as the study postulated they would have closer relationships with our intended study objective and employee organizational commitment. Much research has not been done postulating and empirically testing for the relationship between workplace spirituality and employee commitment. Meaningful work represents how employees interact with their day-to-day work at the individual level. Sense of community involves having a deep connection to, or relationship with, others. This dimension of workplace spirituality occurs at the group level of human behavior and concerns interactions between employees and their co-workers. Alignment with the organization's values and mission encompasses the interaction of employees with the larger organizational purpose. It is related to the premise that an individual's purpose is larger than one's self and should make a contribution to others. Alignment also means

that individuals believe that managers and employees in their organization have appropriate values, have a strong conscience, and are concerned about the welfare of its employees and community (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000).

2.5.2 Work-life Balance Practices

Work life balance (WLB) is the proper prioritizing between "work" (career and ambition) on the one hand and "life" (Health, pleasure, leisure and family) on the other hand. It also includes the priority that work takes over family, working long hours and work intensification (Amjad, Ghulam & Qamar, 2014). Tariq *et al.*, (2012) defines Work-life balance as "A state of equilibrium in which the demands of both a person's job and personal life are equal" Work-life balance is based on the premise that everyone should have complete life in which a sufficient amount of time is given to the personal interests (such as continuing education, social/community work, sports, hobbies etc) and family interest.

Work-life balance has different meanings depending on the context in which it is used (Lockwood, 2003). Other terms used to refer to work-life balance include work/family conflict, family-friendly benefits, work/life programs, work/life initiatives and work/family culture. Due to the constant changing economic conditions and demands of the society, work has changed its role all over the world. Previously people have always worked for 'survival' and 'necessity' but of late due to the changing economic conditions in addition to be a necessity, work is seen as an important contributor to the 'personal satisfaction' as well therefore making it necessary to balance between work and life.

Despite the mounting prevalence of work-life balance practices or family-supportive/friendly policies in organizations around the world, research on the organizational effects of such practices is not well integrated. Conflicting demands between work and home have assumed increased relevance for employees in recent

years. This is due in large part to demographic and workplace changes such as rising numbers of women in the labour force, an ageing population, longer working hours and more sophisticated communication technology enabling near constant contact with the workplace. In response to these changes and the conflict they generate among the multiple roles that individuals play, organizations are increasingly pressured to implement work practices intended to facilitate employees' efforts to fulfill both their employment-related and their personal responsibilities (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, & Pruitt, 2002).

While there is no one accepted definition of what constitutes a work-life balance practice, the term usually refers to one of the following: organizational support for dependent care, flexible work options, and family or personal leave. Other practices include flexible work hours (e.g., flextime, which permits workers to vary their start and finish times provided a certain number of hours is worked; compressed work week, in which employees work a full week's worth of hours in four days and take the fifth off), working from home (telework), sharing a full-time job between two employees (job sharing), family leave programs (e.g., parental leave, adoption leave, compassionate leave), on-site childcare, and financial and/or informational assistance with childcare, caretaker services, Gym subsidies and eldercare services. (Beauregard & Henry, 2009)

With regard to job attitudes, use of and satisfaction with work schedule flexibility has been associated with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions, and voluntary reduced hours have been linked to greater job satisfaction, loyalty, and organizational commitment. A number of studies have found those employees who benefit from childcare centers, referral services and other family-supportive practices report higher levels of commitment to the organization (Houston & Waumsley, 2003)

Availability of work-life balance practices, independent of actual use, appears to produce similarly positive results in terms of work-related attitudes. For instance, the availability of organizational resources, including flexible work hours, has been linked to job satisfaction and organizational commitment for women and for all employees with family responsibilities, regardless of whether or not these resources are being used (Nelson, Quick, Hitt and Moesel, 1990). Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes that have been well established in the literature. In terms of job attitudes, employees reporting high levels of both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Behavioural outcomes of both directions of conflict include reduced work effort, reduced performance, and increased absenteeism and turnover. Both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict have also been associated with increased stress and burnout, cognitive difficulties such as staying awake, lack of concentration, and low alertness, and reduced levels of general health and energy (Beauregard & Henry, 2009).

In her study on work-life challenges and solutions, Lockwood (2003) concluded that in the global marketplace, as companies aim to reduce costs, it falls to the human resource professionals to understand the critical issues of work/life balance and champion work/life programs (Tariq, Aslam, Siddique & Tanveer, 2012). Work/life programs have the potential to significantly improve employee morale, reduce absenteeism, and retain organizational knowledge, particularly during difficult economic times. Work/life programs offer a win-win situation for employers and employees especially for companies losing critical knowledge when employees leave for other opportunities. The present study therefore attempted to investigate whether work-life practices affect staff commitment to the organization.

2.5.3 Employee Participation in Decision Making

Employee Participation is generally defined as a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal. Participatory management practice balances the involvement of managers and their subordinates in information processing, decision making and problem solving endeavors (Elele & Fields, 2010). A sense of belonging is enhanced if there is a feeling of ownership among employees in the sense of believing they are genuinely accepted by management. The concept of ownership extends to participating in decisions on new developments and changes in working practices that affect the individuals concerned. They should be involved in making those decisions and feel that their ideas have been listened to and that they have contributed to the outcome.

According to Northouse (2004), Employee Participation in Decision Making (EPDM) is rooted in the “theory Y” perspective of management. He therefore suggests that employees are fundamentally interested in performing well at work and will be more attached and committed to a work organization if their seniors value their contributions in making decisions that affect the nature of work. Although the effects of EPDM may vary with the nature of participation, higher levels of EPDM have been found to be positively related to higher levels of organizational commitment, lower employee turnover, and higher employee productivity. EPDM may also lead to better labor-management relations, stronger employee attachment to organizations, better quality decisions, and improved productivity (Elele & Fields, 2010)

EPDM as a Human Resource practice acts as a signal to the employees that their contribution is valued by the management. In their review of employee participation, Elele & Fields (2010) noted that employees most often will have more complete knowledge of their work than even their senior or supervisors. Decisions made in consultation with employees will be made with more information. Employees who are involved in decision making subsequently are better equipped to implement such

decisions. Employees may also perceive their managers as valuing their contribution or that the managers are recognizing that employees are intelligent. This can lead to employee satisfaction and subsequently greater productivity.

Cotton, Vollrath, Froygatt, Lengnick-Hall and Jennings (1988) categorized EPDM as: direct employee participation with management in making work-related decisions, consultative participation where employee opinions are considered by managers in making decisions, employee partial ownership of the organization, and representative participation through a union or staff association. However this study will concentrate on employee direct participation and not indirect participation through representatives.

Participation can cover a broad spectrum ranging from briefing groups to board level representation. Involvement can be direct where employees participate direct in discussion or indirect through representatives. It can take the form of suggestion schemes joint consultation, project teams, empowerment through delegation, staff meetings, partnership schemes and the share option/profit related pay (Cole, 1997). The study was investigating whether there was a relationship between employees' direct participation in decision making and their organizational commitment.

2.5.4 Employee Non-Monetary Benefits

According to Wilton (2011), whilst financial rewards are purely hygiene factors, non-financial rewards address the basic psychological needs of employees and can unlock latent effort and engender greater organizational commitment. Employee benefits which include mandatory benefits and fringe benefits are becoming essential portion of the compensation packages that are offered by organizations to their employees. Employee benefits is defined as any form of compensation provided by the organization other than wages or salaries that are paid for in whole or in part by the employer. Employee benefits are also essential for the development of corporate industrial relations. Examples include retirement plans, child care, elder care, hospitalization programs,

social security, vacation and paid holidays (Ju, LaiKuan, & Hussin, 2008). The cost of benefits is high and getting higher. Employers spend an average of 26.7% of their payroll on such benefits as retirement plans, medical plans, insurance plans, paid leave and educational assistance. However, variations among industries are substantial. Internationally, business service firms, for instance, spend an average of 18.4% of their payroll on benefits, while the average in the automotive industry is 35.6%. Few organizations, however, award benefits based on employee performance; instead, such benefits as paid vacations and pension plans are tied to factors other than performance (e.g. seniority). Benefits have not become a motivational tool because few employees realize the cost of benefits or appreciate many of their benefits until later years (Wilton, 2011).

The various benefits offered by employers can be divided into five types: those that are required by law; retirement benefits; pay for time not worked; insurance; and employee services. The company must provide certain benefits to its employees whether it wants to or not, and they must be provided in a non-discriminatory manner. These benefits include: Unemployment insurance and compensation for injuries and disease. In most countries, individuals are expected to provide for their retirement through either a private/government pension, or personal savings. Employees expect to be paid for holidays, vacations and miscellaneous days they do not work – paid time off work. Employers' policies covering such benefits vary greatly. The most common examples of time off with pay are:- Holidays, Sick leave, Vacations, Time off to vote, Study leave Acting as an election official, Paternity leave, Compassionate leave, Sabbatical leave, Maternity leave (Ju, LaiKuan, & Hussin, 2008).

Winter and Sarros (2002) conducted research on employee commitment among the Australian Academics and concluded that by providing opportunities for increased rewards (including non-monetary), leaders create a felt obligation to care about the

university's welfare. It is this "perceived organizational support" (or lack of it) that explains academics' emotional commitment to their universities.

2.5.5 Terms of Employment

Terms of employment can be either temporary or permanent terms. Temporary employment refers to "dependent employment of limited duration" (OECD, 2002), as opposed to permanent employment which is open-ended meaning that it is valid until further notice. According to De Cuyper, De Witte and Emmeric (2011), the use of temporary employment is no longer restricted to some countries, specific sectors or to the so-called secondary labour market segments, universities also hire academic staff on temporary terms.

For long temporary employment has been associated with poor well-being at work. It has also been associated with reduced organizational commitment (De Cuyper *et al.*, 2011). Temporary employment gives rise to feelings of job insecurity, uncertainty and unpredictability. Permanent employment on the other hand provides the workers with a sense of job security (Cheng & Chan, 2008).

According to studies by De Cuyper, Notelaers, and De Witte (2009b), many if not most temporary workers accept a temporary position with a view to transitioning to permanent employment with the same employer in the near future. Temporary workers who are motivated to achieve a permanent position may excel at work and be committed as to show their potential as organizational citizens. Most universities in Kenya especially public have tutorial fellow positions where academic staffs work on temporary terms as they undertake their studies awaiting to join permanent employment upon completion of their studies. Temporary employment in this perspective is seen as a transitory career stage.

Clinton, Bernhard-Oettel, Rigotti, and De Jong (2011) categorized temporary employment as either voluntary temporary or involuntary. Voluntary workers are those who prefer temporary to permanent employment. Involuntary workers are those who would rather work on permanent employment terms instead of being temporary employees. Many involuntary temporary employees indeed aim at a permanent job in future. This can take place internally or externally in a different organization. According to studies by De Cuyper and DeWitte (2006), voluntary temporary workers accept temporary work as they will get the opportunity to learn from different jobs and organizations. Another motive could be to explore the labour market and future career opportunities. In the public and private universities in Kenya some academic staffs voluntarily prefer to work on fixed short period contracts on temporary terms (part-time) since they have permanent employment elsewhere.

Universities in Kenya just like other organizations need to be competitive to survive. They will also need to work within the legal requirements of the CUE. From the perspective of human resource management, temporary employment is seen as perhaps the most obvious staffing instrument to achieve this competitive advantage through flexibility as such staffs are only hired when a need arises. Unlike permanent workers who may feel loyal in response to the job security offered by the employer, temporary workers may not feel the obligation to reciprocate with organizational commitment (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2008a). Other studies by De Cuyper, De Jong, De Witte, Isaksson, Rigotti, and Schalk (2008) have shown lower affective organizational commitment among temporary versus permanent workers. Furthermore, in their other studies done in Belgian, Italy and Sweden, few, if any, differences in affective organizational commitment were found between temporary and permanent workers.

For the involuntary temporary employees who are awaiting to join permanent employment its worth investing in their training. According to studies by Chambel and Sobral (2011) employability-focused training may induce a sense of being valued and

supported. This contradicts other earlier views on human resource management among temporary workers which would not recommend high-involvement human resource practices as the return on such investment may be unlikely. These studies by Chambel and Sobral (2011) therefore show that high involvement practices (such as through training) induce commitment also in temporary workers. This implies that temporary employees are worth the investment just like their permanent counterparts.

2.5.6 Staff Organizational Commitment

In HRM, organizational commitment falls within the area of organizational behavior. Organizational commitment has been studied in the public, private, and even in non-profit sector. Literature provides multiple definitions of organizational commitment. Bateman and Strasser (1984) state that organizational commitment has been operationally defined as multidimensional in nature. It involves an employee's loyalty to the organization and willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization. It also involves a degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership. Other scholars like Porter *et al.* (1974) identified three major components of organizational commitment. A committed person should have a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. He should also have a definite desire to maintain organizational membership.

Commitment is the relative strength of the individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organization. It mainly consists of a strong desire to remain a member of the organization, acceptance of the goals of the organization and a readiness to exert effort on behalf of the organization (Armstrong, 2008). Meyer and Allen (1997) defined a committed employee as being one who "stays with an organization, attends work regularly, puts in a full day and more protects corporate assets, and believes in the organizational goals". Although the antecedents of commitment seem to be much more

varied due to the several different ways in which commitment has been defined, the outcomes of commitment are clear. They include employee retention, attendance, organizational citizenship, and job performance.

Staff commitment has been classified by some researchers into three basic components. The three component model of organizational commitment incorporates affective, continuance and normative as the three dimensions of organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) refer to affective commitment as the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. An affectively committed individual will believe in and accept organization's goals and values, has a willingness to focus effort on helping the organization achieve its goals, and also has a desire to maintain organizational membership.

The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions of organizational commitment is continuance commitment, which is based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory. The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organization for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer an individual stays. The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. According to Reichers (1985), an employee who has continuance commitment has willingness to remain in an organization because of the "nontransferable" investments. Nontransferable investments include things such as retirement benefits, relationships with other employees, or other things that are special to the organization. It may also include factors such as years of employment or benefits that the employee may receive that are unique to the organization. An employee who has continuance commitment will often find it very difficult to leave the organization to avoid losing such investments.

The third dimension of organizational commitment is normative commitment, which reflects a feeling of obligation to continue in the employment. Employees with a high

level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The normative component refers to the employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organization. It is argued that normative commitment is only natural due to the way we are raised in society and can be explained by other commitments such as marriage, family and religion among others. Employees who have normative commitment often feel like they have a moral obligation to the organization (Wiener, 1982). They therefore remain because they ought to.

2.6 Empirical Studies

Rego and Cuhna(2007) undertook an empirical study on workplace spirituality and organizational commitment. Their objective was to study the impact of the various dimensions of workplace spirituality like team's sense of community and alignment with organizational values on affective, normative and continuance commitment. A sample of 361 respondents was selected from 154 organizations. The results indicated a higher correlation between workplace spirituality and affective commitment than the other dimensions of commitment. The findings suggest that when people experience workplace spirituality, they feel more affectively attached to their organizations, experience a sense of obligation/loyalty towards them, and feel less instrumentally committed.

Milliman *et al.* (2003) carried out a study to empirically test how workplace spirituality explains organizational commitment. They developed and validated a measurement instrument for three levels of analysis: individual, work team and organization. This research was carried out in a Southern European context. Milliman *et al.* (2003) examined how three workplace spirituality dimensions (meaningful work, sense of community, value alignment) explain work attitudes like organizational commitment and intentions to leave. The findings were that meaningful work dimension explains affective commitment and that value alignment explains commitment and intention to quit. Pawar (2009) used a modified version of the instrument developed by Ashmos and

Duchon (2000) and found workplace spirituality to be positively associated with organizational commitment.

Rego, Cunha, and Souto (2008) sampled 154 organizations in Portugal, using Ashmos and Duchon's (2000) and Milliman *et al.*'s (2003) measurement instruments. Their results indicated a positive relationship between workplace spirituality and attachment and loyalty. Attachment and loyalty are indicators of organizational commitment. The study also found that individuals in organizations who reported higher levels of workplace spirituality were less instrumentally committed. Kolodinsky *et al.* (2008) sampled working graduate students at two large universities. Using Wheat's (1991) Human Spirituality Scale, they found that organizational spirituality positively related to organizational involvement, identification, and satisfaction; and negatively related to organizational frustration.

Roehling, and Moen (2001) in their study found in a representative sample of 3,381 American workers that the presence of flexible time policies and childcare assistance was associated with employee loyalty for those with family responsibilities. Availability of work-life balance practices has also been related to increased affective commitment and decreased turnover intentions (Wood & De Menezes, 2008). Grover and Crooker (1995) found that parental leave, childcare information and referral, flexible work hours, and financial assistance with childcare predicted both increased affective commitment to the organization and decreased turnover intentions among all employees, not just users of the practices.

Wang and Walumbwa (2007) in their study on work-life balance and organizational commitment found that the availability of flexible work arrangements was associated with increased organizational commitment only when employees perceived their supervisors to exhibit transformational leadership behaviours, including individual consideration. This study was conducted among banking employees in China, Kenya,

and Thailand. In their study Casper and Harris (2008) found that for women, the availability of work-life practices had a positive relationship with commitment, mediated by perceived organizational support. For men, however, the availability of flexible schedules was positively related to commitment only when men's use of this practice was high. When use of flexible schedules was low, the availability of this practice was negatively related to commitment. Similarly, Butts (2007) found that for men, the availability of work-life practices was associated with higher organizational commitment only when perceived organizational support was high. For women, there was a positive link between work-life practices and commitment regardless of levels of perceived organizational support.

In a study of 463 professional and technical employees in biopharmaceutical firms, Eaton (2003) found that the provision of work-life practices improved employees' organizational commitment, but only to the extent that employees felt free to use the practices without negative consequences to their work lives - such as damaged career prospect. These results can be interpreted using social exchange theory. When treated favorably by the organization, employees will feel obliged to respond in kind, through positive attitudes or behaviors toward the source of the treatment. Using the provision of work-life balance practices as an indicator of favorable treatment, employees will reciprocate in ways beneficial to the organization – increased commitment, satisfaction with one's job, and citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005)

In nine studies involving 2,734 persons, Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) examined how employee participation in decision making influenced employee levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The researchers found that when supervisors allowed employees to participate in decision-making, employee levels of affective commitment was stronger than both continuance and normative. That is, employees indicated staying with the organization was more related to wanting to, rather than needing to or feeling they ought to.

Cox, Zagelmeyer and Marchington, (2006) carried out research on employee participation especially the depth and breadth of the participation and their associations with job satisfaction and staff commitment. Employee Involvement and Participation (EIP) breadth refers to the number of different EIP practices used together in a workplace. Using a range of complementary EIP practices is likely to generate greater impact through mutual reinforcement. It is also likely to indicate a concerted effort on the part of managers to maximize the benefits of EIP since larger numbers of practices is likely to reflect management commitment to the concept. In contrast a piecemeal approach of implementing isolated individual practices would suggest that managers accord less importance to EIP and that less effort is given to co-coordinating complementary techniques. Rhodes and Steers (1981) found that employee participation in decision making helps to increase affective commitment in workers (Bayona & Goni-Legaz, 2009)

Breadth and depth of EIP are important because multiple combinations of practices with greater depth have shown strong links with organizational commitment (Cox *et. al.*, 2006). If employee views are sought and acted upon by managers, employees are more likely to be committed to their organization and satisfied with their work because they believe managers are sincere in their efforts to involve employees.

Ju *et al.*, (2008) undertook a study with an aim of revealing whether employee benefits offered by organizations influence organizational commitment for employees in food-manufacturing industry in the state of Kedah, Malaysia. In this study a total of 161 employees responded to the survey. This research involved a field study where the survey instrument was adopted from Mowday *et al.*, (1982) for Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. This questionnaire consisted of fifteen items. The results of the study suggested that mandatory benefits and fringe benefits positively influenced organizational commitment.

De Cuyper and De Witte (2006) conducted a study on the impact of job insecurity and contract type on well-being and work attitudes like organizational commitment. One of the objectives was to investigate whether temporaries as compared with permanents report lower job satisfaction, life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. This study addressed this issue by considering the role of job insecurity on organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and self-rated performance among 396 permanent employees as compared with 148 temporary ones. Respondents were drawn from the industrial sector, the service industries and the government sector. In this study they did not find clear-cut differences between temporaries and permanents on organizational commitment.

Maya (2008) undertook a study on the impact of psychological contract on organizational commitment among temporary and permanent employees in five organizations belonging to the manufacturing industry in Palakkad Pakistan. In this study the researcher aimed at investigating whether contract terms influence organizational commitment. The results showed that Permanent and Temporary Employees showed no significant difference in organizational commitment. Traditionally permanent employees were preferred above temporary employees considering this myth of higher levels of commitment among permanent employees. Thus this study proved that investment in temporary employees would prove to be advantageous just the same as permanent employment terms.

Kirkebut (2010) carried out a study on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in higher educational institutions: the Kenyan case. In this study three private and three public universities were selected to represent the other universities. One of the objectives was to test the applicability of Mayer and Allan model in the Kenyan set-up. It also aimed at comparing the levels of commitment among public and private universities' academic staff in Kenya. A sample of 829 academic and administrative staff was selected. The results obtained indicated that Mayer and Allan TCM model is applicable

in the Kenyan context. Academic staffs from private universities were found to have higher levels of commitment than their public university counterparts.

2.7 Critique of the Existing Literature Relevant to the Study

Most studies on workplace spirituality have assumed that spirituality at work has a positive impact. However, they have rarely empirically tested these presumed relationships (Milliman *et al.*, 2003). It is important to conduct researches that help to understand the presumably positive impact on employee's attitudes that may occur when management supports individuals' needs in the workplace on a spiritual level. Rather than concentrating on only one dimension of commitment, other dimensions like normative and continuance should also be considered.

As Gull and Doh (2004) suggested, a paradigm change in management thinking is necessary. Managers should be able to examine their underlying system of orientation from an exclusive focus on economic and financial criteria, to an understanding of the firm as community of spirit. This is important but for most organization the success of managers is measured by economic growth and financial performance of the organization. They may not therefore put a lot of weight on workplace spirituality.

Despite the perceived benefits of work-life balance practices, critics such as Lobel (1991) have argued that 'the process of investment in work and family roles is poorly understood'. Tenbrunsel *et al.*, (1995) also pointed out those results from work-family research are often unsubstantiated, poorly theorized or cannot be generalized. As such, the need for a stronger theoretical approach to understanding the relationship of work-family practices and employee attitudes like organizational commitment is needed. Much of the existing research is based on case studies involving large companies (Cole, 1999). While this research stream has indicated benefits to employers and employees, the case study analysis reduces the generalizability of the findings.

An important limitation, highlighted by Lambert (2000), is that the norm of reciprocity is universal but conditional in nature. That is, the perceived value of work-family

policies may differ among individuals and therefore we can expect differing obligations from respondents. The importance of this aspect is that users of work-family policies may not automatically feel an obligation to reciprocate. Employees may judge some practices less favorably: for example, paid parental leave might be viewed as less valuable to those outside childbearing age.

The importance here is that exploring employee use of work-family practices might not be an adequate indicator of the perceived value of such practices. For example, a working parent may find flexi-time an invaluable practice that improves the balance of their work and family commitments. However, another employee who uses flexi-time for no reason other than finishing work earlier, might view this policy as routine and less valuable, and thus not feel morally obligated to recompense their organization.

Pertaining to employee participation in decision making, the measures used to assess the institutional embeddedness of EIP have to date relied solely on management accounts of EIP. Yet the claimed performance effects of EIP take place through the impact they have on employees and previous work has shown connections between EIP, in particular the effectiveness of managers at consulting and involving employees with organizational commitment.

The need for speed in managerial decision making is frequently emphasized. Some decisions need to be made fast meaning if employees are consulted it may delay the decisions. In the current competitive world some opportunities need to be seized fast. High degree involvement would also mean employees are going beyond their duties and may demand more pay. This will bring conflicts between employees and management.

Something innovative about the recent studies on terms of employment is that they no longer see temporary employment, even when approached from the perspective of the employee, as exclusively bad or as a signal of segmenting the labour market. For

example, the studies by Clinton *et al.* (2011) highlight opportunities associated with temporary employment. An example of such an opportunity is aspects related to employment prospects. Studies by Chambel and Sobral (2011) do not start from the negative message that commitment among temporary employees is problematic. Most of these studies describe mechanisms to promote commitment among the employees and productive behavior that are beneficial for all parties involved.

2.8 Research Gaps

Over the last two decades research on organizational commitment has gained momentum mainly because of its association with positive work practices like higher productivity, intention to stay, and low turnover. Kirkebut (2010) undertook a study to examine the extent to which demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors, and HRM practices influenced organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities in Kenya. However a knowledge gap still exists since work-life balance, employee benefits and employment terms were not among the HR practices examined as predictors of organizational commitment. Secondly, although there exist record of research on academic staff retention in Kenya (Ng'ethe *et al*, 2012), the study did not address the determinants of organizational commitment but rather factors affecting retention like employee training, salary, leadership, work environment, distributive justice, and promotional opportunities. It was also observed that many studies concentrated on tangible factors like monetary rewards and opportunities for training to boost organizational commitment. This has led to existence of a major knowledge gap among managers who may need to know alternative ways of increasing organizational commitment in their organizations.

Although workplace spirituality relatively is a new concept, studies in this area are available (Rego & Cunha, 2007, Milliman *et al* 2003, Pawar, 2003 & Fry, 2003). However no records were available to this study to show any research on workplace

spirituality and organizational commitment in Kenya. There was therefore a need to investigate its practicability in Kenya. Studies on work-life balance, employee participation in decision making and employee benefits in developed countries like USA, UK, China, Netherlands and Australia were noted. Pertaining to terms employment, most studies concentrated on temporary terms of employment (De Cuyper et al., 2011 & De Witte (2009b). This study therefore seeks to fill these gaps and add to the body of knowledge by focusing on the determinants of commitment among university academic staff in a developing country, Kenya.

2.9Summary

The organizational support theory the social exchange theory and the theory of psychological ownership formed the theoretical framework in this study. According to organizational support theory in order to meet social emotional needs and to assess the organization's readiness to reward increased efforts, employees form general beliefs concerning how much the organization values their contribution and cares about their well being. The employee commitment will depend on the perceived organizational support. Social exchange theory suggests that by satisfying important individual needs such as benefits, employees may respond with higher levels of satisfaction and commitment to the organization. The theory suggests that all human relationships are formed by a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. The more benefits employees are getting the more they will give back in the form of commitment. In the third theory, a psychological feeling of possession makes individuals regard tangible or intangible targets as an extension of themselves. Employees can attain psychological ownership by being involved in decision making and raise their commitment.

In the conceptual framework the independent variables include workplace spirituality, staff participation in decision making, work-life policies, employee non-monetary

benefits and employee terms of employment. Organizational commitment was the dependent variable. The literature review also tackled various variables. Workplace spirituality is the first independent variable. Three dimensions of workplace spirituality were considered: meaningful work, sense of community and alignment with the organization's values and mission. Employee Participation the second independent variable is generally defined as a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal. Another variable is work-life balance. With regard to job attitudes, use of and satisfaction with work schedule flexibility has been associated with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions, and voluntary reduced hours have been linked to greater job satisfaction, loyalty, and organizational commitment. Empirical studies on workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee involvement and participation, and employee benefits undertaken by various other scholars included in the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the research methodology used for the study. It specifically addresses the research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, instruments of data collection, data collection procedure and finally management, processing and analysis.

3.2 Research Design

According to Kothari (2004), a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collections and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. It is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted. It constitutes the blue print for collection, measurement and analysis of data. It is a strategy specifying which approach was used for gathering and analyzing the data. Orodho (2003) defines a research design as the scheme, plan, or outline that is used to generate answers to research problems.

This study involved a survey of public and private universities in Kenya where a cross-sectional study was undertaken. According to Mugenda (2008) cross-sectional studies can help a researcher establish whether significant associations among variables exist at some point in time. Both descriptive and correlational research designs were used where staff organizational commitment in both public and private universities were analyzed. Descriptive research was undertaken to ascertain and be able to describe the characteristics of the variables of interest in the Kenyan public and private universities' set-up. Descriptive studies are important because they provide the foundation upon which correlational studies emerge. Descriptive research studies are those studies which are concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual or a

group(Kothari 2004). Correlational research is basically concerned with assessing relationships among variables based on the premise that if a statistically significant relationship exists between two variables, then it is possible to predict one variable based on the information available on another variable (Mugenda, 2008). It is a measure that indicates how one variable varies in relation to another.

The study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Qualitative approach is best suited for gathering descriptive information where the researcher wants to know about people or attitudes concerning one or more variables. Quantitative research focuses on measurement i.e. the assignment of numerical events according to rules. This approach was also used successfully in a study on factors affecting quality teaching in public and private universities in Kenya (Obwogi, 2011). Quantitative comparative research design was also used as the public and private universities were compared from descriptive statistics to inferential statistics. Comparative research is a research methodology in the social sciences that aims to make comparisons across different cultures. Quantitative analysis is much more frequently pursued than qualitative analysis in comparative studies.

In this study Likert scale was used and level of agreement with particular statements was assigned a particular numerical value. In some situations frequencies were sought to explain meanings. Qualitative technique on the other hand was used since the study focused on subjective assessment of attitudes and opinions of the employees. Qualitative research involves description and it seeks to describe and analyze the culture and behaviour of humans and their groups from the point of view of those being studied (Kombo, 2006).

3.3 Target Population

The study was conducted in the public and private universities in Kenya and targeted all the academic staff. There were 22 public and 27 private universities in Kenya spread across the country. The members of staff hold key information regarding employee

commitment. The population of academic staff in the universities in Kenya was 9258(Public and Private Universities’ HR Departments). The following two tables show the population of universities’ staff.

Table 3.1 University Ranking (Public)

Rank	University	No. of staff	Tier
1	University of Nairobi	1583	Tier I
2	Moi University	661	
3	Kenyatta University	961	
4	Jomo Kenyatta Uni. of Agri. & Tech.	612	
5	Egerton University	525	
6	Maseno University	392	Tier II
7	Technical University of Kenya	125	
8	MasindeMuliro University of Sc. & Tech	321	
9	Technical University of Mombasa	78	
10	Multi Media University of Kenya	52	
11	Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Sc. & Tech	48	Tier III
12	Dedan Kimathi University of Technology	102	
13	Kisii University	71	
14	Pwani University	83	
15	Laikipia University	102	
16	University of Eldoret	52	
17	Meru University of Sci. & Tech	64	Tier IV
18	University of Kabianga	68	
19	Karatina University	75	
20	Chuka University	82	
21	Maasai Mara University	38	
22	South Eastern University	61	
Total		6156	

Public Universities in Kenya by 2014 University Web Ranking

Table 3.2 University Ranking (Private)

Rank	University	No. of staff	Tier
1	Strathmore University	375	Tier I
2	United States International University	165	
3	Mount Kenya	425	
4	Catholic university of E A	270	
5	Kenya Methodist University	324	
6	University of E A Baraton	232	Tier II
7	African Nazarene	250	
8	Daystar University	122	
9	KCA University	244	
10	Africa International University	32	
11	Kiriri Women’s University	40	Tier III
12	Inoorero University	72	
13	Kabarak University	87	
14	Pan African Christian University	45	
15	The Presbyterian University or E A	55	
16	Adventist Uni. Of Africa	64	
17	Management University of Africa	45	Tier IV
18	St. Paul’s University	64	
19	Gretsa University	48	
20	Great Lakes University of Kisumu	55	
21	East African University	42	
22	Kenya Highlands Evangelical University	46	
Total		3102	

3.4 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame consists of a list of items from which a sample is to be drawn. The sampling frame consisted of the entire academic staff in the 22 public and 22 private universities in Kenya as shown in tables 3.1 and 3.2 respectively. A representative sample was selected from the sample frame.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The essential requirement of any sample is that it be as representative as possible of the population from which it is drawn. In carrying out this study probabilistic sampling was adopted. This is to imply that that all the members of the population stood a chance of being selected (Panneerselvan, 2007).

Sampling was done in two stages where in the first stage stratified sampling was used. This technique minimized the fear that certain groups (universities) within the population may be under-represented. In their study on employee organizational commitment Rego and Cuhna (2007) found that committed people tend to devote higher efforts to work, thus contributing to organizational performance. Since staff commitment is related to performance, the public and private universities were ranked and then categorized into four groups (tiers 1-4 above). The reason for ranking and grouping was to include all categories of universities in terms of performance. Two universities were then selected from each tier in both categories making a total of sixteen while ensuring regional representation. Two universities in a group of four was adequate as it amounted to 50% representation in each tier. The study concentrated on universities appearing top 44 in the Webometric Ranking of Kenyan universities 2014. Simple random sampling was used to select both representative departments and staff from the selected departments. This gave all objects an equal chance of being included in the sample.

3.5.1 Sample Size

According to Kothari (2003) size of sample refers to the number of items to be selected from the universe to constitute a sample. When dealing with people it can be defined as a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey. In this study two universities were selected from each tier from where a sample size was determined. Sixteen universities therefore represented the 44 public and private universities in Kenya. With a population of 9258, a sample size of 349 respondents was appropriate for this study.

The following formula developed by Cochran (1963) was used to guide the selection of the respondents as suggested by Mugenda (2008).

$$n = Z^2 pq / e^2$$

Where:

n=the desired sample

Z=the value of the standard normal deviate at a given confidence level (to be read from the table) and it is 1.96 for a 95% confidence level

p=sample proportion-the population proportion in target population estimated to have characteristics being measured (assume 50% if unknown)

q=1-p

e=acceptable error or the desired level of precision

In this research

$$n = 1.96^2 \times 0.5^2 / 0.05^2 = 384.$$

Since the population was small (less than 10,000) then the sample size was reduced slightly. This is because a given sample size provides proportionately more information for a small population than for a large population. Cochran's (1977) correction formula

used to calculate the final sample size as suggested by Mugenda (2008). These calculations are as follows

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + n_0/\text{population}}$$
$$n = \frac{384}{1+384/3673}$$
$$= 347 \text{ respondents}$$

Where

Population=3673

n_0 =sample size according to Cochran's formula

n=the required sample size

To obtain the sample percentage for the respective tier the following calculation was carried out: $(347/3673) \times 100 = 9.45\%$. According to Gay (1981), ten percent of accessible population is enough for a survey.

The figure (9.45%) obtained has been used in the calculation of the number of respondents to be included in the sample from each of the sixteen universities selected. In their studies on employee organizational commitment Barbara (2003) and Cohen (1996) used a sample of 361 and 238 respondents respectively and therefore 347 respondents was an appropriate sample in this study. The figure (347) is also in line with the sample table developed by Bartlett, Katrlík and Higgirs (2001), where a sample of 351 would be appropriate for a population of 4000 (see appendix 6). The respective samples are show in table 3.3

Table 3.3 Sample size (Public & Private Universities)

	University	No. of staff	Sample
Tier I	Mount Kenya University (Private)	425	40
	Catholic University of EA(Private)	270	25
	Kenyatta University (Public)	961	90
	JKUAT (Public)	612	57
Tier II	University of E A Baraton(Private)	232	22
	KCA University (Private)	244	23
	MMUST (Public)	321	30
	Technical University of Mombasa (Public)	78	7
Tier	Kabarak University (Private)	87	8
III	Presbyterian University of EA (Private)	55	7
	Pwani University (Public)	83	8
	Laikipia University (Public)	102	10
Tier IV	Great Lakes University of Kisumu (Private)	55	7
	Kenya Highlands Evangelical University (Private)	46	4
	Maasai Mara University (Public)	38	3
	Meru University of Sci. & Tech (Public)	64	6
	Total	3673	347

3.6 Instruments of data collection

A 65-item questionnaire was administered to the respondents who were asked to indicate, against each statement, the extent to which they agreed or disagreed on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A

revised commitment scale by Meyer *et al.* (1993) was used in this study to measure affective, continuance and normative commitment. Each of the five variables was subjected to ten statements. Each statement was coded since Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) was used in the analysis. These variables included: workplace spirituality, work-life balance, employee direct participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and terms of employment. For the first independent variable i.e. workplace spirituality instruments used in this study were adopted based on the workplace spirituality measurement developed by Ashmos and Duchon (2000). The questionnaire was divided into six sections in line with the research objectives.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Data for the study was collected by administering the specially designed questionnaire to a sample of 347 academic staff of the public and private universities in Kenya. The questionnaires were completed in the presence of the researcher or the research assistants. The respondents who felt they could complete their questionnaires during their free time were allowed to do so and then the questionnaires were collected later. To encourage open responses to sensitive questions, the questionnaire was anonymous. The completed questionnaires were then collected for analysis.

3.7 Pilot Test

The questionnaire was tested on 20 respondents before being used to assess its effectiveness. The pilot test ensured that the items in the questionnaire were stated clearly, were having the same meaning to all the respondents, and also gave the researcher an idea of approximately how long it would take to complete the questionnaire. This was undertaken in one public university (Kenyatta) and one private university (Mount Kenya) among academic staffs. Eleven respondents were selected from Kenyatta University and 9 from Mount Kenya University. These twenty respondents were not included in the main study to avoid contamination of the respondents (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). This was a replica and rehearsal of the main

survey. It therefore gave the results of descriptive statistics, reliability tests and factor analysis. It brought to the light the weaknesses of the questionnaire and then the necessary improvements were made.

3.7.1 Reliability

The reliability of the data collected was judged through tests. According to Golafshani (2003), reliability is the stability or consistency of scores over time. Reliability coefficient of the research instrument was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. This measures internal consistency among a group of items combined to form a single scale. It is a reflection of how well the different items complement each other in their measurement of different aspects of the same variable or quality and it interpret like a correlation coefficient. The questionnaire is considered reliable if the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is greater than 0.70 (Katou, 2008). The five independent variables and the dependent variable were subjected to reliability test using SPSS and the results obtained are shown in table 3.

Table 3.4 Summary of Reliability Test for the Variables

	Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
1	Workplace Spirituality	0.85	10
2	Work-life Balance Practices	0.79	10
3	Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making	0.852	10
4	Employee Non-monetary benefits	0.848	9
5	Employment terms	0.685	10
6	Employee Organizational Commitment	0.855	15

The results obtained indicated that apart from one variables (Terms of Employment) the rest had Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.7, however, 0.685 is still acceptable according to Sekaran (2003) as it is above the threshold of 0.666.

3.7.2 Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. Content validity is a subjective measure of how appropriate the items seem to a set of reviewers. These reviewers should have some knowledge of the subject matter. To ensure that the questionnaire had face validity or it looked like it measured what it was intended to measure respondents were requested to indicate where the questions / items were not phrased appropriately in their own opinion. Such items / questions were then correctly phrased. A discussion with two Human Resource experts working in the target universities ensured that the questionnaire has content validity. It consisted of an organized review of the survey's contents to ensure that it contained everything it should and did not include anything that it should not (Litwin, 1995).

3.8 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was done in two stages: during pilot study and after the main data was collected. In factor analysis, item communalities are considered 'high' if they are all 0.8 or greater. However, according to Velicer and Fava (1998) such values are difficult to obtain in relation to real data. In social science studies, moderate communalities values of 0.5640 and 0.70 are common and acceptable. In the pilot study all the items registered a threshold of above 0.4 thus none of the item was dropped. A communality value of less than 0.40 may suggest that the item does not relate to the other items in the same factor. Communalities for both organizational commitment and all the independent variables were within the range of 0.40 to 0.90, which indicates that all of the items in each factor are related. After the main data collection and before descriptive, correlation and regression analysis, factor and reliability analysis was undertaken again. Those items that registered a threshold of less than 0.4 were removed. This reduced the number of items for variables workplace spirituality, work-life balance, and terms of employment to 9, 6, and 6 respectively. However employee direct participation in

decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment retained their items as 10, 9 and 15 respectively.

3.9 Data Processing and Analysis

Data was processed and analyzed after the filled questionnaires were collected. Processing involved coding, editing, and cleaning of collected data ready for analysis. Data collected was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). According to Kothari (2004), analysis refers to the computation of certain measures along with searching patterns of relationships. The study mainly used tables, bar graphs and pie-charts in the analysis. Measures of central tendency used were mean and median while the measures of dispersion were mainly range, variance and standard deviation. Descriptive statistics reports, representing the various research items were developed during the analysis. The tables generated gave mean and percentage responses to all the items in questionnaire using the five point Likert scales. The measurement tool ranged from 1 to 5 with 1 representing the minimum score and 5 the maximum rated score. Staff organizational commitment was measured by assessment of the affective, continuance and normative dimension of commitment.

3.9.1 Data Management

After data was collected it was organized in readiness for analysis. The missing values were replaced through data imputation. Outliers were tested through Box-plot. A normal Q-Q Plot of Organizational Commitment was done and a One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was also done to test whether the data was normally distributed.

3.9.2 Correlation and Regression Analysis

Correlation between each independent variable and the dependent variable was measured using Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation. PCC was generated and displayed in form of a table. The correlation results in the table enabled the researcher to assess the relationship between the variables under study. The direction of the

relationship was also shown using a scatter plot. Linear regression analysis showed the correlation and strength of the relationship between variables both independent and dependent. Correlation and regression analysis was also done on the separate sectors (public and private).Dancey and Reidy's (2004) Pearson's correlation coefficient categorization was used to assess the strength of the relationship between the variables as shown in table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5: Dancey and Reidy's Strength of Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Categorization

Value of the Correlation Coefficient	Strength of Correlation
1	Perfect
0.7 - 0.9	Strong
0.4 - 0.6	Moderate
0.1 - 0.3	Weak
0	Zero

Source: Dancey and Reidy's (2004)

Since the hypothesis involved relationships between variables, hypothesis testing of regression coefficients was used. Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether each of the five independent variables significantly influence university academic staffs' organizational commitment. The study used *t*-test for that purpose. The *t*-test is used to check the significance of regression coefficients in the linear regression models. The variable having the greatest effect and the least effect on the employee organizational commitment were established. *F*-test was also used in the context of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test the significance of the relationship between the variables.

3.10 Multiple Regression Model for Determining Organizational Commitment

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the overall effect of all the independent variables on the dependent variable. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test the hypothesis of the multiple regression model shown below:

$$Y_1 \text{ (Organizational Commitment)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + e$$

Where

Y=Staff Organizational Commitment-the dependent variable

X₁=Workplace Spirituality-independent variable

X₂= Work-life Practices-independent variable

X₃= Employee direct Participation in decision making-independent variable

X₄= Employee non-monetary Benefits-independent variable

X₅=Terms of contract-independent variable

e=error

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ and β_5 are model parameters and they describe the directions and strengths of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. β_0 is a constant (intercept).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter provides information on the findings of the study. It starts with the response rate of the study followed by the general background information of the respondents and then descriptive statistics. Towards the end of the chapter correlation and regression analysis has also been done. The data collected from respondents was presented and summarized using tables, graphs, scatter plots, pie-charts and descriptive statistics.

4.2 Response Rate

In this research, out of 347 questionnaires administered to the respondents a total of 282 questionnaires were returned. This represent 81.3% response rate which is satisfactory to make conclusions for the study. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a response rate of 70% and above is rated very good. According to Rogers, Miller and Judge (2009) a response rate of 50% is acceptable for a descriptive study. Fincham (2008) further asserts that response rates approximating 60% should be the goal of researchers for most research. Based on this assertion a response rate of 81.3% is therefore very good.

4.3 Background Information

This section contains the analysis of information on respondent's employer university, university sector (private or public), gender, age, employment terms (permanent or non-permanent), education level, working experience and marital status.

4.3.1 Respondent's University.

In this research, the highest responses were received from Kenyatta University 76 (27.0%), Jomo Kenyatta University 47 (16.7%), and Mount Kenya University 38 (13.5%) in that order. KCA University had 22 respondents, Catholic University of Eastern Africa 21 and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology 20 representing 7.8%, 7.4% and 7.1% respectively. Very low responses were received from Kenya Highlands Evangelical University 3 (1.1%), Maasai Mara University 2 (0.7%) and Great Lake University of Kisumu 2 (0.7%) as shown in the table 4.1. All the eight private and eight public universities selected in the sample were represented. The results on respondents' university show that all categories of university in Kenya were represented. This included the both old and recently established public and private universities.

Other past studies targeting university staff concentrated on first seven public universities (University of Nairobi, Kenyatta, Moi, JKUAT, Egerton, Maseno and Masinde Murilo universities) and the first four private universities (Unites States International University, Daystar, Catholic University of Eastern Africa and East African Baraton). In her study on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in higher education, Kirkebut (2010) targeted six universities including Unversity of Nairobi, Moi, Egerton, Daystar, Baraton and Catholic University of Eastern Africa. Ng'ethe *et al.* (2012) in their study on academic staff retention targeted the first seven public universities in Kenya. The information is shown in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Respondent’s university

	University	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Mount Kenya University	38	13.5
	Catholic University of Eastern Africa.	21	7.4
	Kenyatta University	76	27.0
	Jomo Kenyatta Uni. of Agri. &Technology	47	16.7
	University of East Africa Baraton	11	3.9
	KCA University	22	7.8
	MasindeMuliro Uni. of Science &Technology	20	7.1
	Technical University of Mombasa	7	2.5
	Kabarak University	8	2.8
	Presbyterian University of East Africa	5	1.8
	Pwani University	8	2.8
	Laikipia University	7	2.5
	Great Lakes University of Kisumu	2	.7
	Kenya Highlands Evangelical University	3	1.1
	Maasai Mara University	2	.7
Murang’a University of Science &Technology	5	1.8	
	Total	282	100.0

4.3.2 Respondent’s University Sector

Analysis of the respondent’s university sector indicated that 172 (61%) of the respondents were from public universities while 110 (39%) from private universities. In her study on university staff employee commitment Kirkebut (2010) had 77.6 % respondents from public and 22.4% private universities. In the last five years the number

of private universities has increased leading to a proportionate increase in the number of staff. Majority of the respondents were therefore from public universities as shown in figure 4.1.

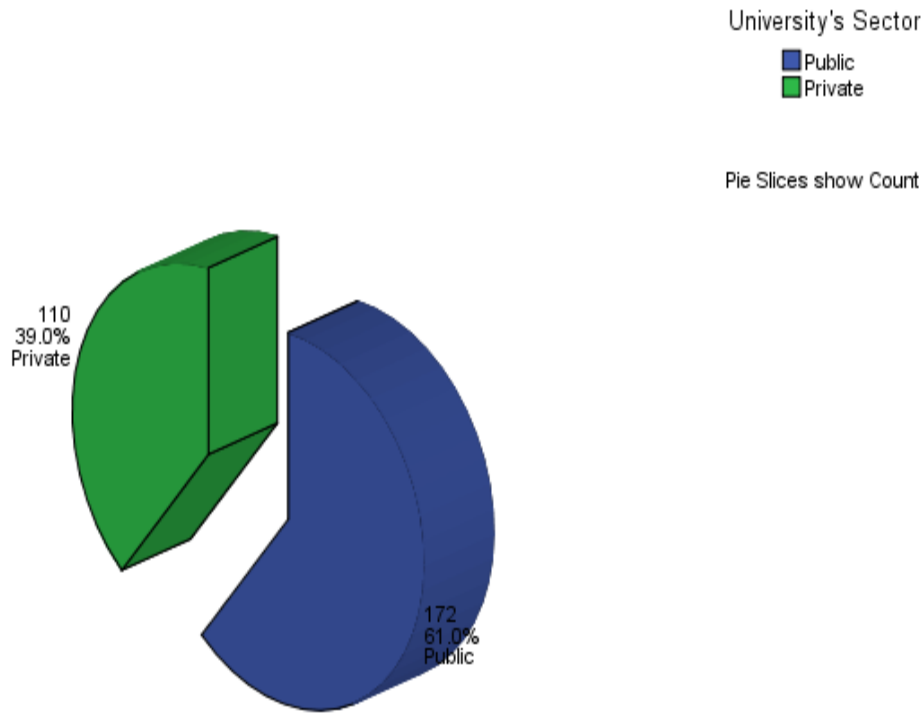


Figure 4.1 Respondent's University Sector

4.3.3 Respondents' Gender

In this study majority 172 (61%) of the respondents were male while female respondents were 110 (39%). This shows that there was no gender balance among the respondents. This is consistent with a similar study on university academic staffs by Onsongo (2003) which found significant gender disparities among academic staff in higher education

institutions in Kenya. Casper and Harris (2008) study on the impact of work-life practice on organizational commitment found that gender of a respondent can influence his organizational commitment. A study by Tuwiah (2009) among university academic staff found women to be more committed than their male counterparts. Figure 4.2 below shows the respondent's gender.

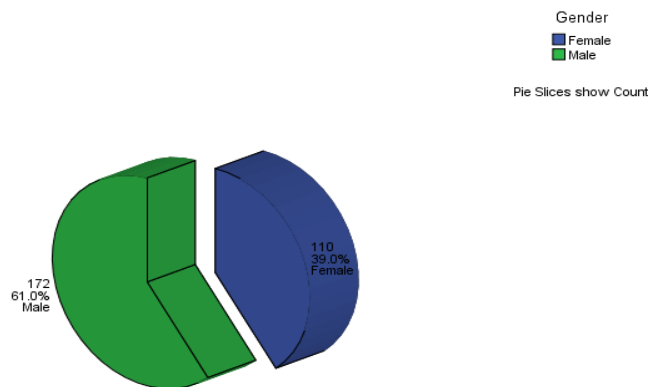


Figure 4.2 Gender of the Respondents

4.3.4 Respondents' Gender as per University Sectors

In this study there were more males than females in both public and private universities. However the percentage of female was high in private universities (40.9%) than in public universities (37.8%). Table 4.2 below shows the respondents' gender as per the university sectors.

Table 4.2 Respondents' Gender as per University Sector

University's Sector			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public	Valid	Female	65	37.8	37.8	37.8
		Male	107	62.2	62.2	100.0
		Total	172	100.0	100.0	
Private	Valid	Female	45	40.9	40.9	40.9
		Male	65	59.1	59.1	100.0
		Total	110	100.0	100.0	

4.3.5 Age of the Respondents

Results on analysis of respondent's age indicated that the highest numbers of respondents 67 (25.2%) were aged between 43-48 years. This was followed by 37-42 age category at 23.8%, 31-36 were 17.0% , age category 55-60 being 9.2%, 25-30 age category were 7.8% while the lowest was those aged over 60 years with 11 respondents representing 3.9% as shown in figure 4.3 below. In support of this Muindi (2012) in her study among academic staff in the University of Nairobi found that age category 42-49 years had the highest number of respondents.

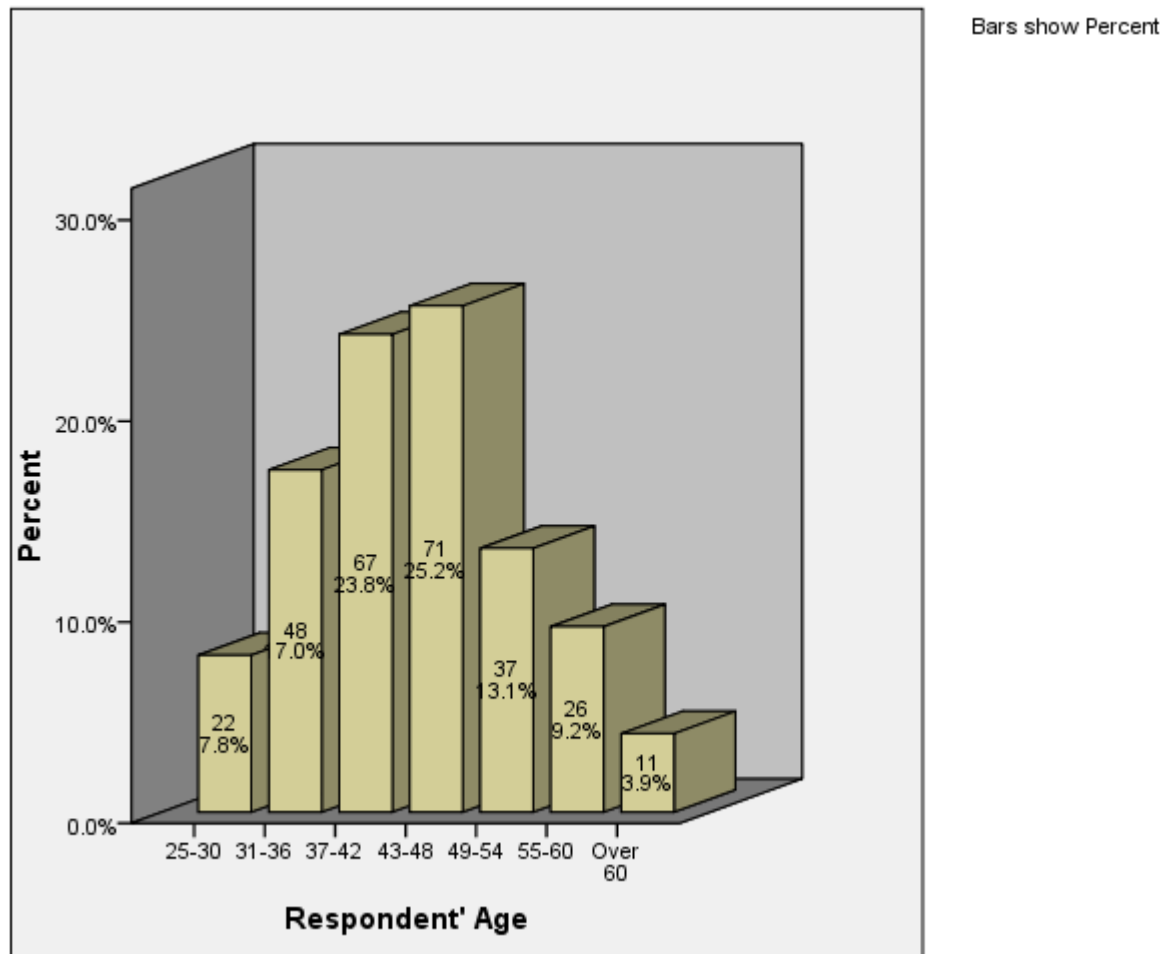


Figure 4.3 Age of the respondents

4.3.6 Employment Terms of the Respondent

Out of 282 respondents 161 (57.1%) were working on permanent terms while 121 (42.9%) were non-permanent. In Kenya most universities especially private hire their academic staff on temporary (contract) terms. The contract term may range between 2 and 5 years depending on the university. Public universities have the tutorial academic staff positions where the staff are employed on temporary terms initially and then change to permanent terms after acquiring their doctoral degrees. This has contributed

to the high number of non-permanent employees in the private and public universities in Kenya.

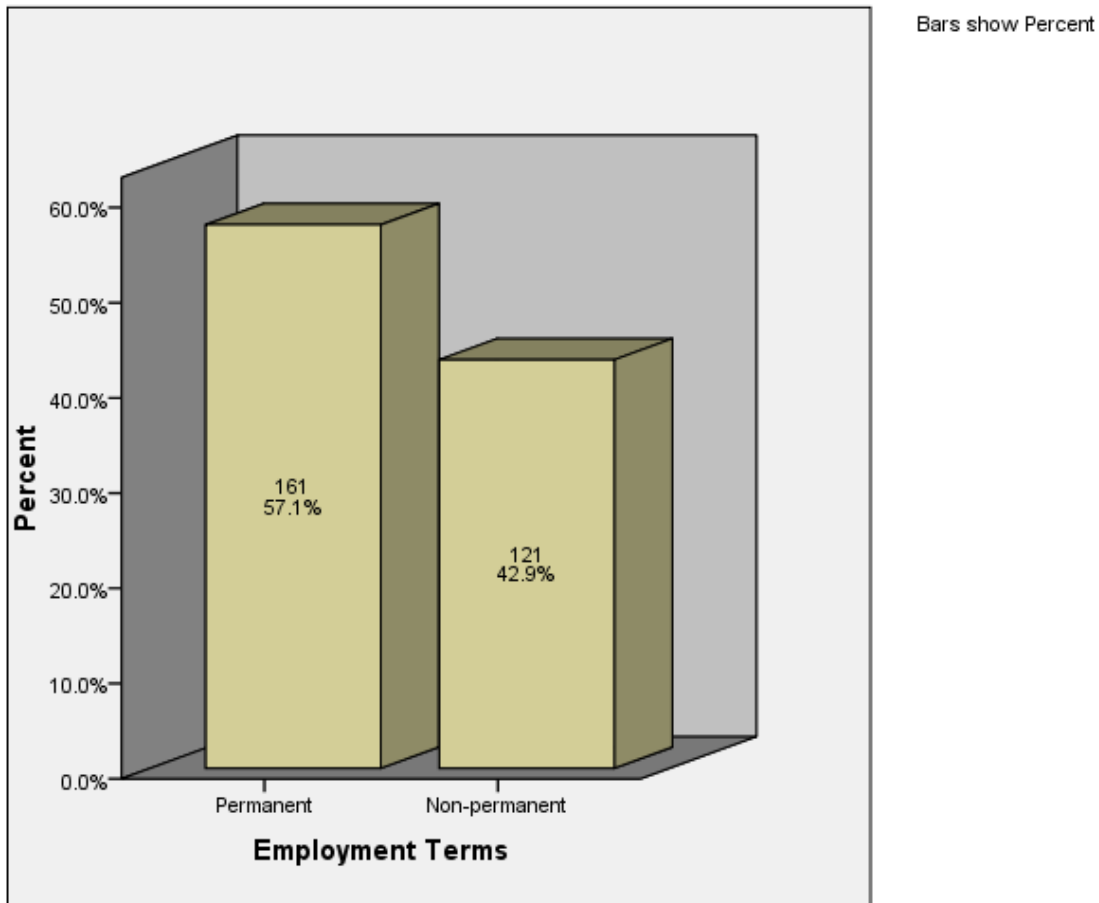


Figure 4.4: Employment terms of the respondents

4.3.7 Employment Terms of the Respondent as per the University Sector

Comparing the two sectors, public universities had more permanent academic staff at 68.0% than non-permanent staff at 32.0%. Private universities had 40% permanent employee and majority 60% were non-permanent. Private universities are not ready to employ a large number of their staff on permanent terms perhaps due to the cost associated with this term of employment like retirement benefits.

Table 4.3 Employment Terms of the Respondent as per the University Sector

University's Sector			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public	Valid	Permanent	117	68.0	68.0	68.0
		Non-permanent	55	32.0	32.0	100.0
		Total	172	100.0	100.0	
Private	Valid	Permanent	44	40.0	40.0	40.0
		Non-permanent	66	60.0	60.0	100.0
		Total	110	100.0	100.0	

4.3.8 Education Level of the Respondents

Majority of the respondents 198 (70.2%) had masters degrees. Those with PhD were 80 (28.4%) while only 4 (1.4%) had degree level of education. Most academic staffs at the PhD level have a busy time schedule and this contributed to a low response rate among that group. Although the minimum qualification to teach in a university in Kenya is master level, there are few academic staffs at degree level who mainly teach the diploma student in the colleges that were recently upgraded to university status. As suggested by Angle and Perry (1993), lower educational levels promote high continuance commitment since it restricts employees to their current employers and the alternatives are limited.

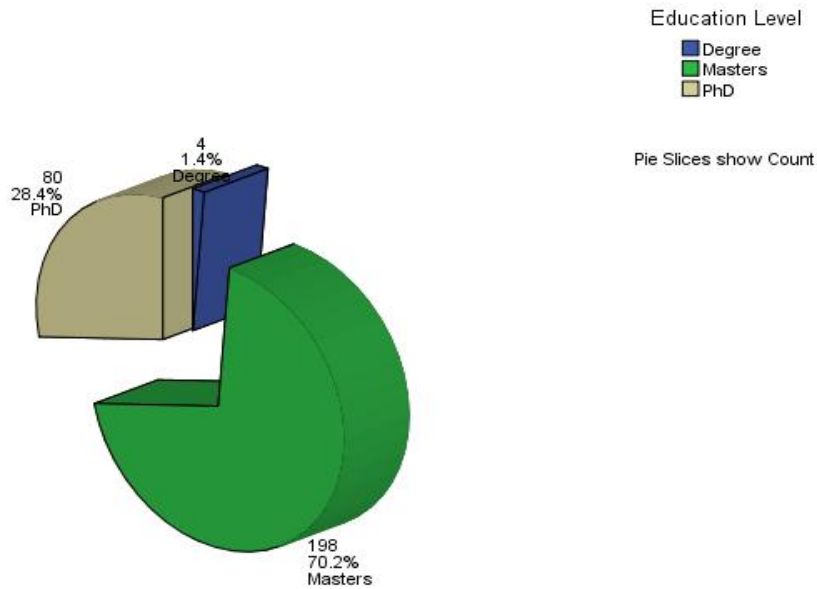


Figure 4.5 Education level of the respondents

4.3.9 Education Level of the Respondents as per the University Sector

Pertaining to lever of education of the respondents, there was not much difference between the sectors, masters holder in public were 70.3% while in private they stood at 70.0 percent. Those with PhD public were 29.1% against 27.3% from private universities as shown in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4 Education Level of the Respondents as per the University Sector

University's Sector	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public Valid Degree	1	.6	.6	.6
Masters	121	70.3	70.3	70.9
PhD	50	29.1	29.1	100.0
Total	172	100.0	100.0	
Private Valid Degree	3	2.7	2.7	2.7
Masters	77	70.0	70.0	72.7
PhD	30	27.3	27.3	100.0
Total	110	100.0	100.0	

4.3.10 Working experience

Analysis of the working experience revealed that 133 (47.2%) had worked for a period between 1-5 years. This high number can be attributed to the fact that some of the universities involved the study were only established a few years ago. University academic staffs are also known to move from one university to another and therefore a high number of respondents may not have stayed with their current employer for long. Those who had worked for between 6-10 years in their current university were 109 (38.7%) while those with working experience between 11-15 years were 34 (12.1%). Categories 16-20 and 21-25 had 3 respondents each. This is shown in figure 4.4 below.

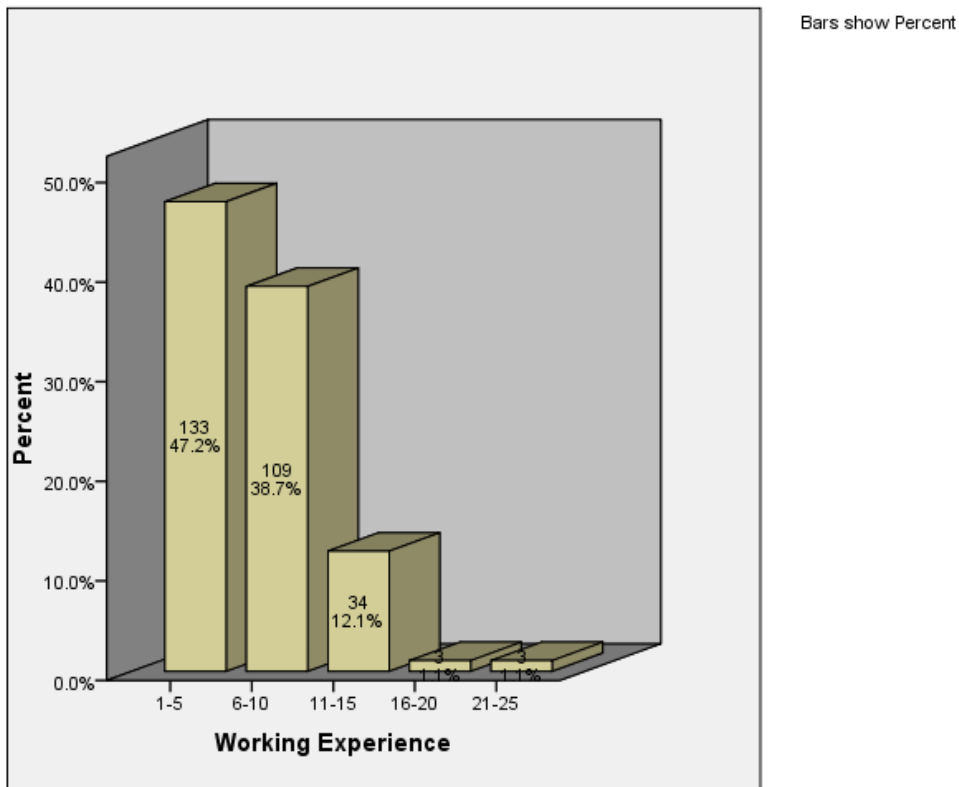


Figure 4.6 Working experiences of the respondents

4.3.11 Marital status

Respondent were asked to indicate their marital status and the results were that single were 41 (14.5%), married 238 (84.4%) and widowed 3 (1.1%). A similar study by Kirkibut (2010) had two categories: unmarried 18.3% and married 81.7%. Married women or women with children face more problems balancing their work and family thus may have an effect on employee commitment. This is show in figure 4.5 below.

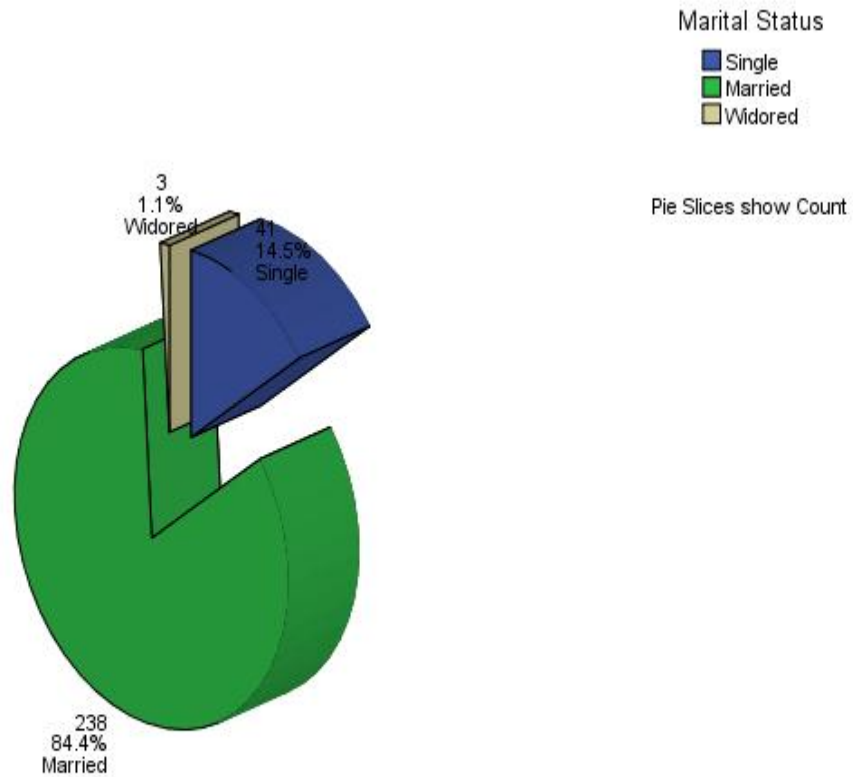


Figure 4.7 Marital Status of the Respondents

4.4 Factor and Reliability Analysis

Factor analysis for the independent variables and dependent variables was conducted. The main purpose of conducting a factor analysis was to summarize the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller number of factors without losing much information. This implies that the newly created variables should represent the fundamental constructs which underlie the original variables (Gorsuch, 1990)

Reliability is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures a concept and helps to assess the goodness of a measure. In this study

Cronbach's Alpha which is a reliability coefficient was used to indicate how well the items in the set are correlated with each other. According to Sekaran, (2008) the closer a Cronbach's Alpha is to 1 the higher the reliability and a value of at least 0.7 is recommended.

4.4.1 Factor and Reliability Analysis for Workplace Spirituality

The ten factors measuring the independent variable workplace spirituality were subjected to a reliability test where a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.771 was obtained. Factor analysis was then carried out on the ten items on workplace spirituality where the following results were obtained (see table 3).According to Kothari (2005) when carrying out factor analysis, loadings of 0.33 can be considered absolute values to be interpreted. The general rule of the thumb for acceptable factor loading is 0.40 or above (David *et al.*,2010).

Table 4.5 Thresholds of the Independent Variable Workplace Spirituality

Workplace Spirituality Indicators	Factor Loading
Employees are linked with a common purpose	.797
Employees feel connected with goals	.725
Employee spirit is energized	.706
Employees feel being a part of a family	.597
Work is connected to what is important in life.	.583
Employees genuinely care about each other	.574
Feeling positive about university values	.568
Employees look forward to go to work	.394
Employees experience joy at work.	.385
Working cooperatively with others is valued	.267*

*Indicators with factor loading less than 0.4

Nine factors registered thresholds of above 0.4 and were thus considered for further statistical analysis. A communality value of less than 0.40 may suggest that the item does not relate to the other items in the same factor. One item was removed as it had a value of 0.267. The reliability analysis after the removal of one factor produced a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.783 as shown in table 4.3

Table 4.6 Reliability results for workplace spirituality

Cronbach Alpha for all the ten items	Cronbach Alpha after the removal of the item
0.771	0.783

4.4.2 Reliability and Factor Analysis for Work-life Balance Practices

The ten factors measuring the independent variable work-life balance practices were subjected to a reliability test where a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.664 was obtained. The value was slightly lower than the minimum acceptable reliability coefficient. The items were further subjected to factor analysis where the following results were obtained.

Table 4.7 Thresholds of the Independent Variable Work-life Practices

Work-life Balance Practices Indicators	Factor Loading
Gender and/or age related services exists	.807
Recreational facilities are provided by the university	.787
Employees receive child care assistance	.738
Compassionate leave arrangements are favorable	.502
There exists home working arrangements	.420
I get opportunity to attend to my personal matters	.409
Compressed working days arrangements exists	.315*
Working hours are flexible in this Institution.	.187*
Maternity / Paternity leave schemes are favorable	.172*
Working hours are convenient in this Institution	.132*

*Indicators with factor loading less than 0.4

Out of the ten items six registered thresholds of above 0.4 and were thus considered for further statistical analysis. A value of less than 0.40 may suggest that the item does not relate to the other items in the same factor and therefore four items were removed. The reliability analysis after the removal of the four items raised the Cronbach’s Alpha value

from 0.664 to 0.702 which is above the minimum acceptable reliability coefficient of 0.7.

Table 4.8: Reliability Statistics for Work-life Balance Practices

Cronbach's Alpha of all the 10 items	Cronbach's Alpha after the removal of 4 items
0.664	0.702

4.4.3 Reliability and Factor Analysis for Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making

The ten factors measuring the independent variable employee direct participation in decision making were subjected to a reliability test where a Cronbach’s value of 0.827 was obtained. The items were further subjected to factor analysis where the following results were obtained.

Table 4.9: Thresholds of the Independent Variable Employee Participation in Decision Making

Employee Participation in Decision Making Indicators	Factor Loading
There are surveys of employees' views	.796
Discussions groups exist	.776
Employees hold meetings with seniors	.736
Project teams are always put in place	.690
There are committee meetings	.628
Problem solving groups exists	.621
Financial information is provided	.581
Delegation of duties is common	.484
Joint consultations are done	.473
Suggestion schemes are available	.465

All the ten factors registered thresholds of above 0.4 and were thus all considered for further statistical analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha therefore remained 0.827.

Table 4.10: Reliability Statistics for Employee Participation in Decision Making.

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.827	10

4.4.4 Reliability and Factor Analysis for Employee Non-monetary Benefits

The nine factors measuring the independent variable employee non-monetary benefits were subjected to a reliability test where a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.820 was

obtained. The items were further subjected to factor analysis where the following results were obtained.

Table 4.11: Thresholds of the Independent Variable Employee Non-monetary Benefits

Employee Non-monetary Benefits Indicators	Factor Loading
I receive educational assistance	.763
There are favorable retirement plans	.747
I get vacations now and then	.707
Favorable Insurance medical plans exists	.644
Favorable medical/health services provided	.624
Insurance medical plans for employees exists	.605
Employees enjoy children educational assistance	.584
I enjoy a paid leave when I ask for it	.576
Insurance medical plans for employees exists	.551

All the nine factors registered thresholds of above 0.4 and were thus all considered for further statistical analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha therefore remained 0.820.

Table 4.12: Reliability Statistics for Employee Non-monetary Benefits

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.820	9

4.4.5 Reliability and Factor Analysis for Employee Terms of Employment

The ten factors measuring the independent variable employee employment terms were subjected to a reliability test where a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.548 was obtained. This Cronbach's Alpha was below the minimum acceptable reliability coefficient of 0.7. The items were further subjected to factor analysis where the following results were obtained.

Table 4.13: Thresholds of the Independent Variable Employee Terms of Employment

Employee Terms of Employment indicators	Factor Loading
Employment terms and employee happiness	.787
Contract terms and identification with the organization	.786
Employment terms and emotional attachment	.757
Employment terms and education support	.624
Employment terms and financial growth	.609
Employment terms and self esteem	.508
Availability of permanent employment in other universities	-.475*
Employment terms and medical support	.220*
Staying with my employer in my current terms is a matter of necessity.	-.153*
Employment terms and chances of promotion	-.017*

***Indicators with factor loading less than 0.4**

Out of the ten items six of them registered thresholds of above 0.4 and were thus considered for further statistical analysis. Four items were therefore dropped. The reliability analysis after the removal of the four factors raised the Cronbach's Alpha from 0.548 to 0.778.

Table 4.14: Reliability Statistics for Employee Terms of Employment

Cronbach's Alpha of all ten items	Cronbach's Alpha after the removal of 4 items
0.548	0.778

4.4.6 Reliability and Factor Analysis for Employee Organizational Commitment

The 15 factors measuring the dependent variable employee were subjected to a reliability test. The fifteen factors were further categorized into three to measure the three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative. The Cronbach's Alpha value for the overall organizational commitment was 0.738. The items were further subjected to factor analysis where the following results were obtained.

Table 4.15: Thresholds of the Dependent Variable Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment Indicators	Factor Loadings
AC. I feel personally attached to university	.794
AC. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this university	.790
AC. I feel proud to tell others about employer	.727
AC. Employer's problems are my problems	.718
AC. Working here has personal meaning to me	.582
CC. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I leave my employer	.741
CC. It is hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to	.678
CC. No options to consider leaving employer right now	.666
CC. Opportunities for another job are scarce and therefore I cant leave	.534
CC. Staying with my employer now is a matter of necessity	.530
NC. Would feel guilty to leave my employer	.884
NC. Would feel guilty if I left my university	.762
NC. I have a sense of obligation to the people in this university thus can't leave	.656
NC. I owe a great deal of loyalty to my employer due to much support	.646
NC. This university deserves my loyalty	.464

*AC-Affective Commitment, CC-Continuance Commitment, NC-Normative Commitment

All the 15 factors registered thresholds of above 0.4 and were thus all considered for further statistical analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha therefore remained as shown in table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16: Reliability Results for Organizational Commitment

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.738	15

4.5 Normality of Organizational Commitment

Figure 4. shows the results on the normality test of the dependent variable organizational commitment. It is evident that organizational commitment was normally distributed as there were no outliers as shown in figure 4.8 below. The results imply that majority of the responses were closer to the normality line. This type of data was therefore suitable for all types of statistical analysis.

Normal Q-Q Plot of ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

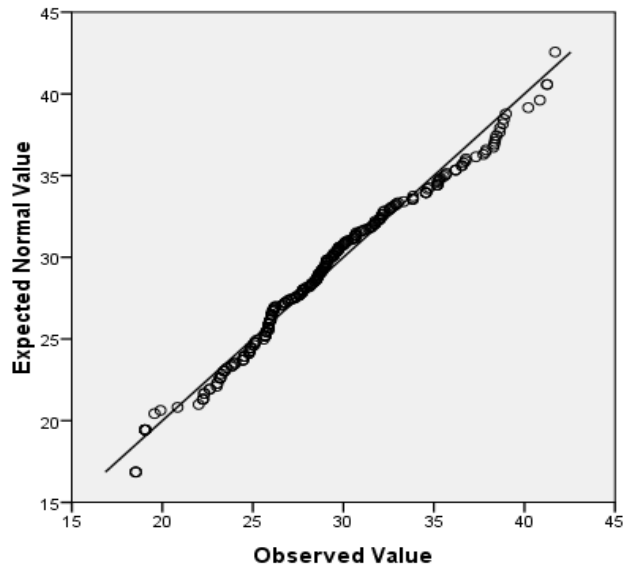


Figure 4.8 Normality of Organizational Commitment

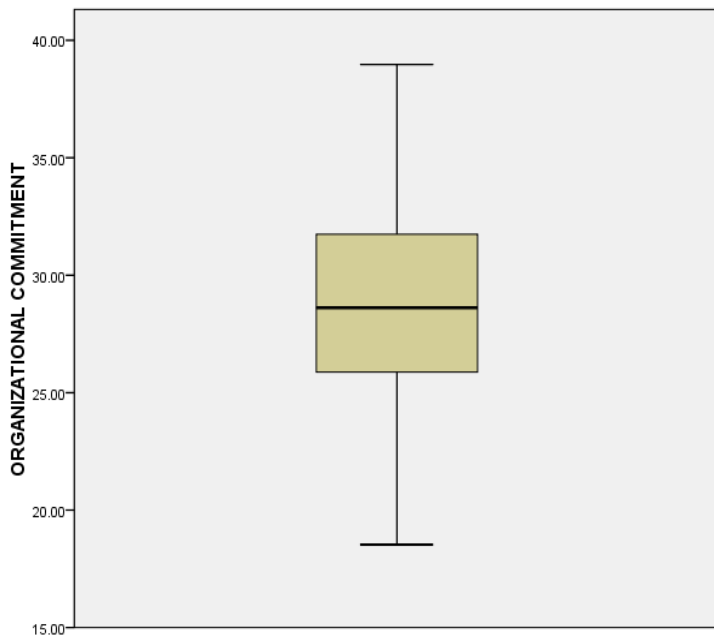


Figure 4.9 Testing for outliers on Organizational Commitment

4.5.1 Normality Test

A One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was done to test the normality of the dependent variable organizational commitment. The null and alternative hypotheses were as follows:

H_0 : The data is normally distributed

H_1 : The data is not normally distributed

The results obtained in table 4.17 indicate that Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z is 1.047 (p-value=0.223). Since the p-value is greater than 0.05, the null hypothesis was accepted and concluded that the data was normally distributed.

Table 4.17 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Organizational Commitment
N		282
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	28.8291
	Std. Deviation	4.57819
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.062
	Positive	.062
	Negative	-.044
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.047
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.223

a. Test distribution is Normal.

4.6 Descriptive Statistics

This section contains descriptive statistics for all the variables used in this study.

4.6.1 Descriptive Statistics on Workplace Spirituality

Workplace spirituality was the first independent variable in this study. An independent variable is antecedent to the dependent variable Kothari (2005). An independent variable causes change in dependent variable and hence for this study it was assumed that workplace spirituality would influence employees' organizational commitment.

To measure workplace spirituality Ashmos and Duchon (2000) developed and validated a measurement instrument for three levels of analysis: individual, work team and organization. Later, Milliman *et al.* (2003) carried out studies to examine how the three workplace spirituality dimensions (meaningful work, sense of community, value alignment) affect organizational commitment. In this study the first three items measured workplace spirituality at individual level, the next three at work team level and the last three at organizational level. The reason advanced as justifications for this choice was that organizational commitment falls within organizational behavior which is analyzed at the three levels.

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with given statements concerning their happiness if they are to spend their career life with their current employer. Likert scale was used to measure the extent of their agreement with the statements. Majority 73.4% agreed with the statement that they experience joy in their work while working in their respective universities while 21.3% strongly agreed, 4.6% were undecided while only 0.7% strongly disagreed. The findings on employees experiencing joy at work show that generally academic staff experience joy at work since over 90% agreed with the statement. The findings are in line with those of Duchon and Plowman, 2005 who found that when people find joy in their activities and feel involved in heavily spiritual organizational climates, they become healthier and happier, where they act in a more committed manner, become more engaged and are able to apply their full potential to work. Previous research by Rego and Cunha (2008) shows

that enjoyment at work correlates positively with affective commitment. Such employees experience joy when they come to work and the feeling of contentment when working in the organization.

When asked whether work is connected to what they believe is important in life, 16.7% strongly agreed, 58.5% agreed, 19.9% were undecided while only 5% disagreed. The results show that majority of the academic staff from the public and private universities in Kenya believed work is connected to what is important in life since over 74% agreed with the statement. The expression of spirituality at work involves the assumptions that each person has his/her own inner motivations and truths and desires to be involved in activities that give greater meaning to his/her life and the lives of others (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). Nasina and Doris (2011) supports this in a study they conducted among auditors in big four public accounting firms found that when work is meaningful or when its connected to what is important to an employee's life then an employee can become committed. Meaningful work is an indicator of a spiritual workplace.

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they looked forward to going to work with majority 73.7% agreeing, 13.8% strongly agreeing, 10.3% were undecided, 2.1% disagreed while no respondent strongly disagreed. The findings show that over 80% of the academic staff looked forward to going to work. One of the dimensions of workplace spirituality is meaningful work and an indicator of meaningful work is where 'employees look forward to going to work'. These findings concur with studies by Milliman *et al*(2003) on workplace spirituality and employee work attitudes (an exploratory empirical assessment) which found a significant positive relationship between meaningful work and organizational commitment.

Concerning the second dimension of workplace spirituality, the view that university academic employees are linked with a common purpose was strongly supported by 10.6% of the respondents, 44.3% agreed, 25.2% were undecided, 17.0% disagreed

whereas 2.8% strongly disagreed. The findings show that over 50% were in agreement with the statement meaning that they are linked with a common purpose. In response as to whether respondents believe employees genuinely care about each other 6.0% of the respondents were strongly in support, 49.6% agreed, 34.4% were undecided, 9.6% disagreed while only 0.7% strongly disagreed. Thus since over 50% were in support of the statement, university staff therefore genuinely care about each other. The suggestion that respondents felt there was a feeling of being part of a family in their workplaces was strongly supported by 7.4% of the respondents, 50.4% agreed, 18.8% were undecided, 19.9% disagreed while 3.5% strongly disagreed. The results show academic staff generally felt being part of a family since over 50% were in agreement with the statement. These three factor pertains to a sense of community dimension which according to Rego and Cuhna (2008) means that people see themselves as connected to each other and that there is some type of relationship between one's inner self and the inner self of other people.

The findings support Rego and Cuhna (2008) who observed that when employees feel they are linked with a common purpose for example through team work, or when they feel they are part of a family, they are likely to reciprocate with more cooperative and supportive actions, and with greater affective commitment (Rego & Cuhna, 2008).

The last value alignment dimension of workplace spirituality measures whether or not individuals experience a strong sense of alignment between their personal values and the organization's mission and purpose. The opinion that respondents felt positive about the values of their employer university was strongly supported by 14.2% of the respondents, 51.1% agreed, 17.4% were undecided, 17.4% disagreed and non of the respondents strongly disagreed. Over 60% of the employees therefore felt positive about the values of their employer university.

A study by Nasina and Doris (2011) found that although feeling positive about organizational values has been used as an indicator of workplace spirituality, the alignment between organizational and individual values has not been supported due to their insignificance towards organizational commitment.

In response to the view that respondents felt connected with their employer university's goals was strongly supported by 18.1% of the respondents, 56.4% agreed, 17.4% were undecided, 8.2% disagreed while no respondent strongly disagreed. This shows that majority over 70% of the academic staff felt connected with their university's goal. Besides, the opinion that university cared about whether respondents' spirit is energized was strongly supported by 6.7% of the respondents, 32.5% agreed, 26.2% were undecided, 30.1% disagreed while 14.3% strongly disagreed.

This shows that majority did not believe that the employer universities cared about whether their spirit is energized. Studies have shown that a person-organization fit characterized by value alignment may result in stronger affective and normative commitment (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991). They assert that when personal goals are consistent with the pursuit of organizational goals, worker identification with the organization is strengthened. Worker identification with the organization is an indicator of organizational commitment. The responses are presented in table 4.18 below.

Table 4.18 Employee workplace spirituality

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
	%	%	%	%	%	L
Employees experience joy at work.	21.3	73.4	4.6	0	0.7	100
Work is connected to what is important in life.	16.7	58.5	19.9	5.0	0.0	100
Employees look forward to go to work	13.8	73.8	10.3	2.1	0.0	100
Employees are linked with a common purpose	10.6	44.3	25.2	17.0	2.8	100
Employees genuinely care about each other	6.0	49.6	34.4	9.6	0.4	100
Employees feel being a part of a family	7.4	50.4	18.8	19.9	3.5	100
Feeling positive about university values	14.4	51.1	17.4	17.4	0.0	100
Employees feel connected with goals	18.1	56.4	17.4	8.2	0.0	100
Employee spirit is energized	6.7	32.5	26.2	30.1	14.3	100
Average	12.8	54.5	19.4	12.1	0	100

*(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

Generally the findings indicated that academic employees in the private and public universities in Kenya experienced joy at work, looked forward to going to work and believed that work is connected to what is important in life. Employees believed that they were linked with a common purpose, employees genuinely cared about each other, there was a sense of being part of a family, felt positive about the values of their

universities and felt connected to the universities' goals. However a large number disagreed that their universities cared about whether their spirit was energized.

In connection to workplace spirituality and organizational commitment respondents were also required to indicate whether in their own opinion they believed that the alignment between their personal values and organizational values could influence their attachment to their employer university. Majority 264 (93.6%) indicated 'Yes' while 18 (6.4%) indicated 'No'. Alignment with the organization's values is related to the premise that an individual's purpose is larger than one's self and should make a contribution to others or society (Rego & Cuhna, 2008).The results obtained are shown in table 4.19

Table 4.19: Alignment between personal values and organizational values

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	264	93.6	93.6
No	18	6.4	100.0
Total	282	100.0	

Strong attachment between personal values and organizational values is an indicator of high levels workplace spirituality. The study sought to investigate whether there is a relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment. The findings were that a strong relationship existed.

Another indicator of workplace spirituality is the sense of community prevailing at the workplace. Respondents were asked to indicate whether in their own opinion sense of community prevailing in their universities contributed to their attachment to their

Institution. Majority 226 (80.1%) of the respondents indicated ‘Yes’ while 56 (19.9%) indicated ‘No’. Sense of community is a critical dimension of workplace spirituality and it involves having a deep connection to, or relationship with others (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). The essence of community is that it involves a deeper sense of connection among people. This includes support and genuine caring.

Table 4.20: Sense of Community

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	226	80.1	80.1
	No	56	19.9	100.0
Total		282	100.0	

The result obtained from tables 4.19 and 4.20 above indicate that workplace spirituality influences employee organizational commitment. The role played by workplace spirituality in influencing organizational commitment cannot therefore be ignored. Ashmos and Duchon (2000) support this by stating that people work not only with their hands, but also their hearts or spirit. Mitroff and Denton (1999) argue that in most organizations people only bring their arms and brains to work, not their souls. Such organizations do not trigger the full creativity and potential of their employees. Employees, in turn, do not succeed in developing themselves as holistic human beings. Managers can promote organizational commitment and individual and organizational by improving the spiritual environment (Rego & Cunha, 2008).

4.6.2 Descriptive Statistics on Workplace Spirituality as per University Sectors

The results in the table below show that mean scores for both public and private universities were relatively high at 19.7002 and 18.5336 respectively compared with other variables. However respondents from public universities had higher mean scores for workplace spirituality than their private universities counterparts. Since private universities are for-profit organizations, they are likely put employee under work pressure and therefore compromise their joy at work thus reducing workplace spirituality.

Table 4.21 Descriptive Statistics on Workplace Spirituality as per University Sectors

University's Sector	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Public Workplace Spirituality	172	8.19	27.88	19.7002	4.51181
Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private Workplace Spirituality	110	6.06	31.82	18.5336	4.68956
Valid N (listwise)	110				

4.6.3 Descriptive Statistics on Work-life Balance Practices

The study sought to investigate the effect of work-life balance practices on employee organizational commitment. In response to whether respondents at times worked at home as there exists such home working arrangements, 26.6% of the respondents strongly agreed, 49.3% agreed, 6.0% were undecided, 15.2% disagreed and 2.8% strongly disagreed. The findings show that over 70% of the respondents agreed implying that home working arrangements are common as a form of work-life balance practice. Some of the academic employees' duties involve lecture notes preparation, examination

and assignment marking and research all of which can be done at employee's home. Universities in Kenya are also having a wide range of learning programs one of them being on-line teaching program (Kenyatta Universities Digital School and Mount Kenya's University Virtual campus) where academic staffs can access the system even from home and facilitate the learning. Academic staffs can also upload student information for example marks at their home convenience (Tariq *et al.*, 2012). This makes home working a common work-life balance practice among academic staff.

Concerning whether respondents got an opportunity to attend to their personal matters, 34.0% strongly agreed, 56.4% agreed, 5.3% were undecided and only 4.3% disagreed. The findings show that over 80% of the respondents agreed meaning that academic staff got an opportunity to attend to their personal matters. These findings are supported by Kinman and Jones (2008) who ranked flexibility working options as the most important practice of work-life balance programs. This is an arrangement in which organization gives its employees the autonomy of flexible working hours where there is a core period in a day which is mandatory for the employees to be present and the rest is the flexi-time which they can use to attend to other personal matters. The benefits of this arrangement to the organization include increased morale of the staff and increased retention of the staff as a result of commitment.

The opinion that respondents receive child care assistance was supported by 5.3% respondents, 13.5% agreed, 24.5% were undecided, 23.8% disagreed while 33.0% strongly disagreed. The results show that the majority over 50% disagreed with the opinion that employees received child care assistance. Child care assistance is a work-life balance practice targeting mostly female employees who have young children who needs some care. Child care assistance may be in form of parental leave to take care of the child or arrangement where a child can be taken care at the place of work. This work-life balance program allows the parents to take some time off from work in order to look after a young child. According to Hayward (2011) parental leave as a work life

balance tool leads to retained staff and thus less cost is incurred on training and recruitment. Historically, work-life balance issues have been considered personal issues, and employers have just responded to their employees' needs by providing additional benefits such as on-site childcare service (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). Child care assistance whether in form of leave or on-site child care service is an expensive practice thus making it rare in most organizations.

Respondents were to give their opinion on whether the university provides them with recreational facilities where 11.3% strongly agreed, 28.7% agreed, 9.9% were undecided, 22.0% disagreed and 28.0% strongly disagreed. The findings show that over 50% disagreed that they were provided with recreational facilities. Although there are recreational facilities in the universities in Kenya mostly they are acquired with students in mind but not the staffs. Most universities in Kenya don't house their staff and such facilities would suite those staffs who reside within the universities' premises. Some recreational facilities (for example gym) are offered at a fee making them not accessible to the majority of the employees.

The suggestion that employers offer their employees services based on their gender and/or age was strongly supported by 2.8%, 14.2% agreed, 18.1% were undecided, 38.7% disagreed while 26.2% strongly disagreed. Majority over 60% disagreed meaning that academic employees do not receive services based on the age or gender. This support may be in form of programs aimed at caring for the aged. A study by Muse et al. (2008) revealed that providing work-life benefits such as caring for the aged is part of a positive exchange between the employee and employer, whereby both parties can benefit.

Concerning whether compassionate leave arrangement existed, 16.7% strongly agreed, 34.4% agreed, 38.7% were undecided, 5.3% disagreed and 5.0% strongly disagreed. The findings show that over 50% agreed that compassionate leave arrangement existed as a

work-life balance among the academic employees in the universities in Kenya. Compassionate leave can be taken when a member of an employee's immediate family or household dies or suffers a life-threatening illness or injury. Immediate family is an employee's spouse, child, parent, grandparent, grandchild or even siblings. If an employee perceives an organization as supportive in times of need they will reciprocate by being more committed. Research has shown that work-life balance in the workplace has become a more important issue as it tends to exhibit positive results such as low turnover and organizational commitment (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). The results are shown in table 4.22 below.

Table 4.22: Work-life Balance Practices

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
	%	%	%	%	%	L
						%
There exists home working arrangements	26.6	49.3	6.0	15.2	2.8	100
I get opportunity to attend to my personal matters	34.0	56.4	5.3	4.3	0.0	100
Employees receive child care assistance	5.3	13.5	24.5	23.8	33.0	100
Recreational facilities are provided	11.3	26.7	9.9	22.0	28.0	100
Gender and/or age related services exists	2.8	14.2	18.1	38.7	26.2	100
Compassionate leave arrangements exists	16.7	34.4	38.7	5.3	5.0	100
Average	16.1	32.4	17.1	18.2	15.8	100

*(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

Besides this, in her study on work-life challenges and solutions, Lockwood (2003) concluded that in the global market place, as companies aim to reduce costs, it falls to the human resource professional to understand the critical issues of work/life balance and champion work/life programs. Work/life programs have the potential to significantly improve employee morale, reduce absenteeism, and retain organizational knowledge, particularly during difficult economic times.

4.6.4 Descriptive Statistics on Work-life Balance Practices as per the University Sectors

The results showed that public university respondents had higher mean scores for work-life balance practices than the respondents from private universities. The mean score for public universities was 9.9810 against 8.4463 for private universities. Going by the fact that private universities are ran as other private enterprises employees may not easily get opportunity to attend to their personal matters. It may be an extra cost to provide child care assistance or recreational facilities especially if it will not directly lead to profit increase. This among other reasons may have led to the differences in work-life balance practices in the two sectors.

Table 4.22 Descriptive Statistics on Work-life Balance Practices as per the University Sectors

University's Sector		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Public	Work-life Balance	172	4.08	17.37	9.9810	3.14154
	Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private	Work-life Balance	110	1.72	17.75	8.4463	3.22894

University's Sector		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Public	Work-life Balance	172	4.08	17.37	9.9810	3.14154
	Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private	Work-life Balance	110	1.72	17.75	8.4463	3.22894
	Valid N (listwise)	110				

4.6.5 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making

The study sought to investigate the effect of employee direct participation in decision making on academic staffs' organizational commitment. In response to whether there were meetings between administrators and the staff for whom they are responsible, 23.4% of the respondents strongly agreed, 43.6% agreed, 7.8% were undecided, 19.9% disagreed and 5.3% strongly disagreed. The findings show that staff meetings are common among the university's academic staff since the majority over 60% agreed with the statement. Most meetings in the universities are mostly held at the departmental level where individuals get a chance to air their views concerning the activities within the department. This gives employees opportunities to directly participate in making decisions concerning their work lives. According to Bhatti and Nawab (2011) employees' commitment to the organization is strong among those whose leaders allow them to participate in decision making. The need for employees to be more involved in decisions that affect their work has been a center of argument in current management issues.

The view that there were groups that solved specific problems or discussed aspects of performance in the universities was strongly supported 11.0% of the respondents, 55.0% agreed, 14.9% were undecided, 18.8% disagreed and 4% strongly disagreed. Generally the results show that such groups existed since over 60% were in agreement with the

statement. When there are issues to be addressed either at the departmental or school levels academic employees are assigned such tasks and are expected to come up with solutions. Similar results were also proven by Torka (2003) where he found that amongst Dutch metal workers employee involvement and participation in form of problem solving groups lead to more affective and normative commitment to the department as well as to the organization (Bhatti & Nawab, 2011).

Another form of employee involvement and participation is financial involvement where 2.8% strongly agreed that management regularly gave employees information about financial situation of their university, 10.3% agreed, 17.0% were undecided, 31.6% disagreed and majority 38.3% strongly disagreed. This shows that academic staffs were generally not informed about the financial situation of their universities. Their work is taken to be more of academic leaving the rest to the university administrators. Providing financial information to academic staff especially those working in private universities may be tricky since some are run as private enterprises where the proprietor is under no obligation to disclose such information. In a discussion of desirable management practices for non-profit organizations in Nigeria, Waiguchu (1999) has suggested that a participatory environment and sharing organizational information with employees are essential elements for success of organizations (Elele & Fields 2010).

Twelve point eight percent (12.8%) of the respondents strongly agreed that committee/board meetings were held where members got opportunities to make their contribution, 46.8% agreed, 11.3% were undecided, 17.0% disagreed and 12.1% strongly disagreed. This shows that almost 60% agreed that there were committee meetings where they got an opportunity to give their suggestions. In the universities there are boards and committee in the departmental level and also school levels where academic staffs participate as members. Some of them include departmental examination board/committees dealing with examination issues like setting, moderation and approval, student's disciplinary committees and graduation ceremony preparation committees among others.

The position that quite often there were formal surveys of employees' views or opinions was strongly supported by 2.1% of the respondents, 24.1% agreed, 16.7% were undecided, 33.3% disagreed while 23.8% strongly disagreed. This shows that formal surveys of employees' views are not common among the academic staff. This is a form of employee participation and in a university setting may be done by the university administration in an effort to seek views of the employees. A study by Han, Chiang and Chang (2010) demonstrated that employee participation in decision making is positively and significantly related to employee psychological ownership which is important to arouse employee organizational commitment. Another scholar Cox *et al.*, (2006) is also in support of a positive relationship between psychological ownership and organizational commitment.

Concerning delegation of duties, 31.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that quite often they would be delegated duties by seniors, 51.8% agreed 7.8% were undecided and 9.2% disagreed. Since over 80% were in support, it was concluded that delegation of duties was high among the academic staffs. Delegation of decision-making power to employees is a higher form of employee participation as the employee is empowered to make decisions normally made by their seniors (Sharma & Kaur, 2009). In the universities chairmen and heads of department often delegate their duties to their subordinates when on leave or when overwhelmed by administrative work. According to Elele and Fields (2010), being provided opportunities for participative decision making through delegation may also influence employee perceptions of interpersonal justice in their relationship with a supervisor, which in turn may increase affective and normative commitment.

The view that when there is a project to be implemented management made effort to ensure that project teams are put in place was strongly supported by 14.5% of the respondents, 39.4% agreed, 29.8% were undecided, 12.8% disagreed and 3.5% strongly

disagreed. The findings show that over 50% agreed that teams were always put in place whenever there was a project to be implemented. Projects are common in the universities especially when there is a research to be undertaken by a group of people. This may be appropriately done by a team. Rather than a group, team members are more cohesive and interdependent and more supportive. Teams may comprise of members from the same department or different department depending on the nature of the assignment to be undertaken. Such participation as in form of teams is likely to increase the sense of ownership. Empirical findings of Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) reveal that there is a positive relationship between employee psychological ownership and organizational commitment.

In response to whether there are joint consultations between management and staff, 13.1% strongly agreed, 39.4% agreed, 19.1% were undecided, 16.7% disagreed while 11.7% strongly disagreed. The findings show that generally university academic staffs were consulted when decisions are made in the universities since majority over 50% agreed. In a similar form of employee participation; suggestion schemes, 14.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that suggestion schemes existed where employees gave their views and opinions, 48.6% agreed, 5.3% were undecided, and 21.6% disagreed while 10.3% strongly disagreed. Consultative participation refers to practices where management encourages employees to share their opinions regarding work-related concerns, yet retains the right to make all final decisions. Examples of consultative participation include regular meetings with supervisors, attitude surveys and employee suggestion plans. As noted by Sharma and Kaur (2009), participation in decision making often involves organizational managers consulting employees and sharing the rationale for decisions. Participation may involve a variety of processes by which employees contribute to organizational decisions, but does not imply that employees have the authority or power to make decisions. A study by Elele & Fields (2010) among Nigerian and American employees showed a positive relationship between employee participation

(consultations, suggestions and attitude surveys) with the three dimensions of organizational commitment. This information is shown in table 4.23 below.

Table 4.23: Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
	%	%	%	%	%	
Employees hold meetings with seniors	23.4	43.6	7.8	19.9	5.3	100
Problem solving groups exists	11.0	55.0	14.9	18.8	4.0	100
Financial information provided	2.8	10.3	17.0	31.6	38.3	100
There are committee meetings	12.8	46.8	11.3	17.0	12.1	100
There are surveys of employees' views	2.1	24.6	16.7	33.3	23.8	100
Discussions groups exist	6.7	34.8	7.8	31.9	18.8	100
Delegation of duties is common	31.2	51.8	7.8	9.2	0.0	100
Project teams are always put in place	14.5	39.4	29.8	12.8	3.5	100
Joint consultations are done	13.1	39.4	19.1	16.7	11.7	100
Suggestion schemes are available	14.2	48.6	5.3	21.6	10.3	100
Average	13.2	39.4	13.8	21.3	12.3	100

*(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

Generally the findings indicated that there were meetings between administrators and staff, there were groups that solved specific problems, there were committee meetings where members got an opportunity to make their contribution, employees were delegated duties, there were joint consultations between management and other staffs and suggestion schemes existed where members gave their views. However it was found that management did not give employees information on the financial situation of the universities and formal surveys of employees' views were minimal.

The results indicated that universities in Kenya had a wide range of employee participation practices. The findings were supported by Muindi (2011) in a study conducted in the School of Business University of Nairobi. The study showed that academic employees are given freedom to work with minimal interference from the top management of the School of Business. Employees also received optimal support from management on all matters. The findings revealed that employees' views and opinions were considered when making decisions in the School of Business.

The findings were also supported by Cox *et al.*, (2009) who carried out research on employee participation especially the breadth of the participation and their associations with and staff commitment. Using a range of complementary Employee Involvement and Participation (EIP) practices is likely to indicate a concerted effort on the part of universities' managers to maximize the benefits of EIP since larger numbers of practices is likely to reflect management commitment to the concept.

4.6.6 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making as per the University Sectors

The results showed that academic staff from public universities had higher mean scores for employee participation in decision making. However the difference in the means was minimal. This implies that participation in decision making is higher in public universities than in private universities. A possible explanation for this result is that

private universities being privately owned, the owners have a lot of control over most of the decisions made. Although there are channels through which employees should air their views employees from private universities may feel may the decision of the owner remain final. A similar study by Kirkebut (2010) obtained contrary results that academic staffs from private universities were more committed than those of public universities.

Table 4.24 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making as per the University Sectors

University's Sector		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev.
Public	Employee Participation	172	1.62	27.22	16.8459	6.17420
	Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private	Employee Participation	110	10.07	31.66	16.5196	3.95022
	Valid N (listwise)	110				

4.6.7 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Non-monetary Benefits

In this study the fourth independent variable was employee non-monetary benefits. The study sought to find out whether employee non-monetary benefits influence employee organizational commitment. The view that members of the academic staff enjoyed a paid leave when they asked for it was strongly supported by 15.2% of the respondents, 40.2% agreed, 17.4% were undecided, 18.1% disagreed and 8.9% strongly disagreed. This shows that academic staffs receive paid leave from their employers since over 50% agreed with the given statement. Most of the employees especially those in management positions get a leave to rest after working for a certain period of time and they get their full pay. This is a mandatory benefit as labour laws in Kenya have specified the number of days an employee is expected to be on leave. According to Khalisanni and Khalid

(2012), the level of employees' commitment will be expected to be higher if the organization provides appropriate benefits to each employee.

Concerning vacations, 12.4% of the staff strongly supported that members of staff often got vacations, 24.1% agreed, 13.1% were undecided, 26.6% disagreed and 23.8% strongly disagreed. Over 50% of the respondents disagreed that university staff get vacations. Due to the emergence of many teaching programmes, vacations have become rare. Unlike in the past when universities had only the regular student programme, nowadays there are many programmes and it is the same staffs who facilitate them. Most of the respondents were from Kenyatta and Mount Kenya Universities where there are programmes like institutional based (school-based), distance learning, evening and weekend programmes among others. In most private universities students learn continuously and have no time for vacations meaning that the staffs are not expected to go for vacations. For this reason vacations are not popular among the academic staff in Kenya.

The suggestion that universities had favorable retirement plans for the members of staff was strongly supported by 11.0% of the respondents, 24.8% agreed, 28.7% were undecided, 17.7% agreed while 17.7% strongly disagreed. The percentage of those who agreed and those who disagreed was close since 35.8% agreed while 35.4% disagree. Favorable retirement plans are common among those working under permanent terms. This can be attributed to the high number of non-permanent academic staffs as in this study statistics on employment terms shows that 57.1% of the respondents were permanent while 42.9% were non-permanent. Non-permanent employees receive gratuity after the completion of their fixed contract term.

In response to whether universities had favorable insurance medical plan for their staff, 18.8% strongly agreed, 52.8% agreed, 13.8% were undecided, 11.7% disagreed, while 2.8% strongly disagreed. The findings show that insurance medical plans are favorable

among the academic staff since over 70% agreed with the statement. Closely related to this was the opinion that universities had insurance medical plans for employees' immediate family members was strongly supported by 22.0% of the respondents, 59.6% agreed, 5.3% were undecided, 9.9% disagreed and 3.2% strongly disagreed. Over 80% of the respondents agreed showing that insurance medical plans for employees' immediate family members are also popular in the private and public universities in Kenya.

Insurance medical plans for the staff and their immediate family members are offered to all university academic staff apart from part-time lecturers. A Study by Grover and Crooker (1995) found a positive correlation between the availability of benefits and organizational commitment. This applied to those who would not even benefit directly. They argued that organizations that offer benefits such as insurance medical plans are perceived by employees as showing greater care and concern, and as being fair in their dealings with their employees.

Besides this, respondents were to give their view on educational assistance provided by their employer universities where 11.0% were strongly in support, 20.6% agreed, 20.2% were undecided, 29.4% disagreed while 18.8% strongly disagreed. Thus since close to 50% of the respondents disagreed with the opinion, education assistance did not appear popular among the academic staff. Closely related to this and producing similar results was children educational assistance where 6.7% of the respondents were in strong support of the opinion that employees enjoy children educational assistance from their universities, 20.6% agreed, 18.1% were undecided, 20.6% disagreed and majority 34.0% strongly disagreed. Over 50% disagreed with this statement.

Generally the results show that supporting employees or their children in times of education need is not common in the universities. However for the staff who are employed as tutorial fellows in public universities, their education cost is taken care of by their employer university. A few universities support employees' children especially

if they are undertaking their studies in the same university they are working. Benefits are extremely important to all employees. Compensation which includes non-monetary benefits not only provides a means of sustenance, but it also serves their ego or self-esteem needs. Consequently, if a firm's compensation system is viewed as inadequate for example by not providing education assistance, top applicants may reject that company's employment offers, and current employees may choose to leave the organization (Kleiman, 2000)

Six point seven percent (6.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that medical and health services provided by their employer universities were favorable to them, 48.6% agreed, 19.5% were undecided and 25.2% disagreed. Health and medical services were also common since over 50% agreed with the statement. Most universities have health centers within the university premises to take care of the employees' health. They also refer those medical cases they cannot be able to handle to other hospitals in Kenya. According to Herzberg's two factor theory there are motivator factors and hygiene factors. The hygiene factor like provision of health and medical services will affect employees' work-motivation and thus productivity (Hong, et al., 1995). Thus the employee benefits are essential if employee satisfaction is to be maintained and employee commitment is to be increased.

Moreover the opinion that employees always got opportunities to attend seminars and conferences under university sponsorship was strongly supported by 14.2% of the respondents, 28.0% agreed, 3.2% were undecided, 30.1% disagreed and 24.5% strongly disagree. Over 50% disagreed with the statement. Just like the other benefits that are not mandatory, sponsoring staff for seminar was not common according to the findings. The findings were supported by Ju *et al.*, (2008) who conducted a study on the influence of employee benefits on their organizational commitment among employees in food-manufacturing industry in the state of Kedah, Malaysia. In this study benefits were categorized into two; mandatory benefits and fringe benefits. Although fringe benefits were found to have a higher influence on organizational commitment than the

mandatory benefits, the later were common in the manufacturing industries as it was a legal requirement. In this study paid leave, medical services and retirement were more prevalent in the universities as they are mandatory. Other benefits like, seminar sponsorships, staff educational assistance and employees' children education support were not prevalent. The responses are presented in table 4.25 below.

Table 4.25 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Non-monetary Benefits

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
	%	%	%	%	%	
I enjoy a paid leave when I ask for it	15.2	40.4	17.4	18.1	8.9	100
I get vacations now and then	12.4	24.1	13.1	26.6	23.8	100
There are favorable retirement plans	11.0	24.8	28.7	17.7	17.7	100
Favorable Insurance medical plans exists	18.8	52.8	13.8	11.7	2.8	100
I receive educational assistance	11.0	20.6	20.2	29.4	18.8	100
Favorable medical/health services provided	6.7	48.6	19.5	25.2	0.0	100
Insurance medical plans for employees' immediate family exists	22.0	59.6	5.3	9.9	3.2	100
Employees enjoy children education Assistance	6.7	20.6	18.1	20.6	34.0	100
I get opportunity to attend seminars	14.2	28.0	3.2	30.1	24.5	100
Average	16.5	35.5	15.5	21.0	14.9	100

*(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

4.6.8 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Non-monetary Benefits as per the University Sector

Among the six variables used in this study, the greatest difference in means was found in the variable Employment Benefits. The results show that mean scores for Employee Benefits for public and private universities were 15.2371 and 9.3774 respectively. Public universities employ most of their academic staff on permanent basis and their staffs enjoy favorable retirement benefits. Their medical/health services are also favorable as their hospitals are better equipped than those of private universities. Most public universities have tutorial fellow positions where academic employees are supported financially to pursue their PhD study program which is rare in private universities. A number of public universities provide education support to the children of their staff if they study in the same university where their parents work.

Table 4.26 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Non-monetary Benefits as per the University Sector

University's Sector		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev
Public	Employee Benefits	172	2.88	26.99	15.2371	4.67359
	Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private	Employee Benefits	110	2.88	17.47	9.9257	4.13570
	Valid N (listwise)	110				

4.6.9 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Terms of Employment

The fifth independent variable in this study was employee terms of employment. In Kenya and particularly in the universities the proportion of the workforce on temporary

contracts of employment is increasing. Organizations now are using temporary employees as a flexible resource. Such temporary employees have different psychological contract with the organization than their permanent counterparts. The study sought to examine the effect of employees' terms of employment on their organizational commitment in the public and private universities in Kenya.

The suggestion that the academic staffs in their employment terms by then were very happy to spend their career with their employer was strongly supported by 4.3% of the respondents, 29.8% agreed, 13.8% were undecided, 30.5% disagreed and 21.6% strongly disagreed. The findings show that majority (over 50%) of the respondents disagreed with the suggestion that in their terms of employment they were ready to spend the remaining part of their career with their employer. Producing contrary results was the opinion that in their employment terms their self esteem remained high, 13.1% strongly agreed, 44.3% agreed, 24.1% were undecided, 13.1% disagreed and 5.3% strongly disagreed. Over 50% therefore agreed with that opinion.

A study by Strebler, Pollard, Miller, and Akroyd (2006) as cited in (Bernard, 2012) on factors affecting academic staff leaving the tertiary education sector revealed that being on a non-permanent contract and also being closer to the end of a fixed-term contract contribute to employees leaving their organizations. Some of the outcomes of low levels of organizational commitment are intent to leave and actual turnover (Allen & Meyer 1996).

On the opinion that in their employment terms they had emotional attachment with their employer institution, 1.8% were in strong support, 40.8% agreed, 23.8% were undecided, 24.5% disagreed and 9.2% strongly disagreed. Over 40% agreed that in their employment terms they had emotional attachment with the organization. High level of emotional attachment to the organization indicates high levels of organizational commitment. A similar study by Banu *et al.* (2012) among employees working in five

star hotels of the Mugla Region in Turkey had shown that employee terms of employment (non-permanent/permanent) had an influence on their organizational commitment.

The suggestion that even in their contract terms by then, they felt they wanted to be identified with their employer 12.4% were in strong support, 41.5% agreed, 31.2% were undecided, 9.2% disagreed, and 5.7% strongly disagreed. In this case over 50% agreed that in their contract terms they were ready to be identified with their organization. The percentage of those who were undecided was noticeably high at over 30%. When employees feel they want to be identified with the organization it is an indicator of commitment to the organization. In her study on turnover in hotels, Deery (2002) found that one of the strategies to retain a committed workforce was providing greater security of employment for example employing them on permanent terms.

Closely related to this was the view that in their permanent/non-permanent employment terms their employer universities did not hesitate to support them in times of education needs where 4.3% were in strong support, 38.7% agreed, 15.2% were undecided, 22.0% disagreed and 19.9% strongly disagreed. The number of those who agreed and those who disagree was almost equal since those who agree constituted 43% while those who disagreed were 41%. The high percentage of those who disagree can be attributed to the high number of academic staffs who are not supported by their institutions in times of education need. According Dessler *et al.*, (2004), people have a psychological reference point to their place of employment. Once they are put under temporary category, it signifies they can easily be done away with and therefore they are less likely to exhibit loyalty and commitment to their organizations.

Moreover, on the opinion that employee employment terms had helped them grow financially, 11.0% were in support, 47.5% agreed, 20.2% were undecided, 16.0% disagree and 5.3% strongly disagreed. The majority (57.5%) agreed that in their contract

terms they have been able to grow financially. This shows that being on permanent or temporary terms of employment may not affect your financial growth. The responses are presented in table 4.27 below

Table 4.27: Descriptive Statistics on Employee Terms of Employment

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
	%	%	%	%	%	L
Employment terms and employee happiness	4.3	29.8	13.8	30.5	21.6	100
Employment terms and emotional attachment	1.8	40.8	23.8	24.5	9.2	100
Employment terms and self esteem	13.1	44.3	24.1	13.1	5.3	100
Contract terms and identification with orgn.	12.4	41.8	31.2	9.2	5.7	100
Employment terms and education support	4.3	38.7	15.2	22.0	19.9	100
My employment terms has really helped me grow financially	11.0	47.5	20.2	16.0	5.3	100
Average	7.8	40.5	21.4	19.2	11.2	100

*(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

In a ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ question respondents were asked whether in their own opinion they believed their employment terms (permanent / non-permanent) affected their attachment to their employer university. Majority 243 (86.2%) respondents indicated ‘Yes’ while

the rest 39 (13.8%) indicated ‘No’. The findings indicate that employee employment terms have an influence on organizational commitment.

Table 4.28: Employment Terms and Organizational Commitment

	Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative %
Valid	Yes	243	86.2	86.2
	No	39	13.8	100.0
	Total	282	100.0	

4.6.10 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Terms of Employment as per the University Sector

The results on descriptive statistics on employee terms of employment did not show a great difference in their means among the two sectors. For the public sector the mean was 10.2649 against 9.3774 for the private sector. Universities in Kenya are known to employ their staff either on permanent or non-permanent terms commonly referred to as contract terms. Mostly private universities are known to employ their staff on contract to avoid the costs associated with permanent employment. Public universities are known to hire those employees who have not attained the minimum Doctorial qualification on contract basis. There may therefore not be great differences in employment terms between the two sectors.

Table 4.29 Descriptive Statistics on Employee Terms of Employment as per the University Sector

University's Sector		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev.
Public	Terms of Employment	172	.00	16.27	10.2649	3.84572
	Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private	Terms of Employment	110	4.53	21.05	9.3774	3.47692
	Valid N (listwise)	110				

4.6.11 Descriptive Statistics on Organizational Commitment (Dependent Variable)

In this study organizational commitment was the dependent variable. Since the study is based on three-component commitments model by Mayer and Allen (1991), respondents were subjected to 15 statements where the first 5 were measuring affective organizational commitment, the second 5 continuance organizational commitment, while the last 5 were measuring normative commitment. In support of this, Yew (2008) observed that over the last decade it has become clear that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct that involves three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative.

In response to the opinion that respondents felt a strong sense of belonging to their university, 17.0% were in strong support, 53.5% agreed, 20.9% were undecided, 6.4% disagreed and 2.1% were in strong disagreement. Over 70% of the respondents agreed with the opinion that they felt a strong sense of belonging to their employer institution. Feeling a sense of belonging is an indicator of employee affective commitment. This is one of the components of organizational commitment where an employee feels committed because he wants to not because he has to or he ought to (Meyer & Allan, 1991 & Yew, 2008).

Concerning their feeling of attachment with their employer university, 11.3% strongly agreed, 57.8% agreed, 20.2% were undecided, 8.5% disagree and 2.1% strongly disagreed. This shows generally academic staffs felt attached to their organizations since over 60% of the respondents agreed. Besides this on the suggestion that respondents felt proud to tell others that they work at their universities, 13.1% were in strong support, 62.1% agreed, 17.0% were undecided and 7.8% disagreed. This shows that over 70% of the respondents agreed with the statement meaning that academic employees felt proud to tell other people where they work. Feeling of pride and attachment are indicators of affective commitment. This according to Yew (2008) means that the organization must have created enough reason or conditions that made the employee emotionally attached to its goals.

In an item to measure employee affective commitment 14.5% of the respondent strongly agreed that working in their university had a great deal of personal meaning to them, 65.6% agreed and 19.9% were undecided. Since over 80% were in agreement with the statement it shows that working in the universities had a great deal of personal meaning to the academic staffs. Affective commitment is therefore high among the university academic staffs in the universities in Kenya. According to Wasti (2005), organizations are more likely to achieve the desired level of worker performance when affective commitment is high and continuance commitment is low.

Moreover on the opinion that the problems faced by their universities are also their problems, 8.5% were in strong support, 19.1% agreed, 24.8% were undecided, 41.5% disagreed and the remaining 6.0% strongly disagreed. Majority of the respondents (47.5%) disagreed with that suggestion meaning that as far as academic staffs are concerned, they don't feel that problems faced by their employer universities are also their own. This shows that since this is an indicator of affective commitment, the level of affective commitment was low. Out of the five items to measure affective commitment four showed that the level of affective commitment among the staff was high. Although

there exists three dimensions of organizational commitment, affective commitment is preferred by most scholars. Of all the three dimensions, affective commitment was found to correlate strongest and with the widest range of behavioral criterion variables (e.g., attendance, performance and organizational citizenship behaviors) (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004).

Continuance commitment on the other hand refers to the extent to which the employee perceives that leaving the organization would be costly. They therefore choose to stay despite the fact that there may be undesirable elements in the organization (Meyer & Allan, 1991). The view that the respondents felt that they had too few options to consider leaving their job in their university was strongly supported by 8.5% of the respondents, 53.5% agreed, 14.2% were undecided and 23.8% disagreed. Over 60% of the respondents agreed that although they would want to leave their employer, options were not available meaning that possibility of getting another job was low. Leaving the organization would be costly despite the presence of undesirable elements. These results are supported by a study by Taiwah (2009) at Kwame Nkrumah University of science and technology where he recorded a larger percentage of the respondent being 73.3% as having continuance commitment while only 4.2% respondents had high affective commitment. This therefore means that a larger percentage of the university staffs were committed to the institution on a continuance basis.

Concerning the opinion that by then staying with their universities was a matter of necessity, 12.4% strongly agreed, 46.8% agreed, 19.5% were undecided, 19.9% agreed and 1.4% strongly disagreed. The results show that over 50% agree that staying with their university was a matter of necessity. Similarly 8.2% of the respondents strongly supported the opinion that too much of their life would be disrupted if they wanted to leave their universities by then, 45.4% agreed, 16.7% were undecided, 28.0% disagreed and 1.8% strongly disagreed. Based on this result, it can be inferred that the strength of the result (over 50% of the respondents) is due to the availability of few alternatives and

because of the high investments made in the employees (Best, 1994). This argument supports the view that when given better alternatives, employees may leave their organizations (Tawiah, 2009).

On the position that it would have been very hard for them to leave their university by then even if they wanted, 4.6% were in strong support, 25.9% agreed, 21.3% were undecided, 41.1% disagreed and 7.1% strongly disagreed. Over 48% disagree with the view that it would have been hard for them to leave their employer even if they wanted to. Closely related to this and still measuring continuance was the suggestion that one of the few negative consequences of leaving their employer would have been the scarcity of available alternatives. This was strongly supported by 9.6% of the respondents, 35.8% agreed, 21.6% were undecided, 30.1% disagreed while 2.8% strongly disagreed. Over 45% agreed that alternatives were scarce if they were to leave their current employer.

The third component is normative commitment refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to the organization and the belief that staying is the 'right thing' to do (Meyer & Allan, 1991). To measure normative organizational commitment, respondents were to respond to the suggestion that they would have felt guilty if they left their university by then where 5.0% were in strong support, 22.1% agreed, 11.7% were undecided, majority 51.8% disagreed while the remaining 8.9% strongly disagreed. This shows that over 60% disagreed with the suggestion that they would feel guilt if they left their employer. This shows low level of normative commitment in the universities. A study by Tawiah (2009) among academics in the universities in Kwame Nkurumah gave different results where it revealed that over 90% of the respondents had normative commitment towards their employer institution.

In response to the opinion that they would not have left working for their universities by then since they had a sense of obligation to the people in it, 0.4% of the respondents strongly agreed, 34.8% agreed, 32.3% were undecided, 29.8% disagreed and 2.8%

strongly disagreed. Although majority (35%) of the respondents agreed with that opinion, the percentage of those who were undecided and those who disagree were also high at 32.3% and 30% respectively. One point eight percent (1.8%) of the strongly agreed that they owed a great deal of loyalty to their employer considering all that it had done for them, 37.9% agreed, 23.8% were undecided, 29.4% disagreed and 7.1% strongly disagreed. Going by the low percentage of those who agreed (39%), for both items the level of normative commitment among the academic staff is relatively low.

Closely related to the above and also measuring normative commitment was the opinion that even if it were to their advantage respondents did not feel that it was right leaving their employer by then where 1.8% strongly agreed, 27.0% agreed, 25.5% were undecided, 36.6% disagreed and 9.6% strongly disagreed. According to Rego and Cuhna (2008), normative commitment develops when people internalize the organization's norms through socialization; receive benefits that induce them to feel the need to reciprocate and/or to accept the terms of a psychological contract. Employees who feel an obligation towards the organization (normative commitment) tend to want to make positive contributions.

The suggestion that respondents believed their university deserved their loyalty 2.1% strongly agreed, 63.8% agreed, 27.0% were undecided, 6.7% disagreed and only 0.4% strongly disagreed. This shows that majority agreed that their employer institutions deserved their loyalty. Strong normative commitment involves being tied to the organization by feelings of obligation and duty to the employer. Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that, generally, such feelings would motivate individuals to behave appropriately and do what is right for the organization. The responses are shown in table 4.30 below.

Table 4.30: Descriptive Statistics on Organizational Commitment

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
	%	%	%	%	%	
I feel a strong sense of belonging	17.0	53.5	20.9	6.4	2.1	100
I feel personally attached to university	11.3	57.8	20.2	8.5	2.1	100
Feel proud to tell others about employer	13.1	62.1	17.0	7.8	0.0	100
Working here has personal meaning	14.5	65.6	19.9	0.0	0.0	100
Employer's problems are my problems	8.5	19.1	24.8	41.5	6.0	100
No options to consider leaving employer	8.5	53.5	14.2	23.8	0.0	100
Staying now is a matter of necessity	12.4	46.8	19.5	19.9	1.4	100
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my university now	8.2	45.4	16.7	28.0	1.8	100
It is hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to	4.6	25.9	21.3	41.1	7.1	100
Opportunities for another job are scarce	9.6	35.8	21.6	30.1	2.8	100
Would feel guilty if I left my university	5.0	22.7	11.7	51.8	8.9	100
I have a sense of obligation to the people in this university thus can't leave	0.4	22.7	11.7	51.5	8.9	100
I owe a great deal of loyalty to my employer due to much support	1.8	37.9	23.8	29.4	7.1	100
This university deserves my loyalty	2.1	63.8	27.0	6.7	0.4	100
Would feel guilty to leave my employer	1.8	27.0	25.5	36.2	9.6	100
Average	7.9	43.5	21.1	24.1	3.4	100

*(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

A study on employee commitment by Kirkebut (2010) in the Kenyan universities showed that employees who are emotionally attached to their universities, also feel obligated to remain in their universities and believe that they stand to lose a great deal if

they leave their universities. This implies that increasing any one of the commitment components will be associated with the increase of the other two components.

4.6.12 Descriptive Statistics on Organizational Commitment as per the University Sector

The results obtained on organizational commitment the dependent variable showed that there was a substantial difference in the means for the two sectors. Public universities had a higher mean of 31.0077 against 27.6872 for the private sector. Academic employees from public universities were more committed to their employer universities than their private university counterparts which is contrary with the studies by Kirkebut (2010).

Table 4.31 Descriptive Statistics on Organizational Commitment as per the University Sector

University's Sector		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev
Public	Organizational Commitment	172	18.53	45.54	31.0077	6.36497
	Valid N (listwise)	172				
Private	Organizational Commitment	110	19.05	58.05	27.6872	5.41164
	Valid N (listwise)	110				

In an open ended question respondents were required to highlight some of the contributions made by their employer universities to them such that they felt they had an attachment to it. These were preferably to be related to workplace spirituality, work-life balance, employee participation in decision making, non-monetary benefits and employees' terms of employment. Analysis of the responses indicated that the universities have supported them pursue their education especially at the doctoral level. Employees had also been supported in times of medical and health needs through

medical insurance covers and health facilities within the universities. Some employees have also been offered employment on permanent terms.

4.7 Correlation and Regression Analysis Results

In this section a scatter plot was done followed by correlation and regression analysis on all the independent variables versus the dependent variable.

4.7.1 Workplace Spirituality versus Organizational Commitment

4.7.2 Scatter Plot

To show the kind of a relationship that existed between the independent variable workplace spirituality and the dependent variable organizational commitment, a scatter plot was generated. From figure 4.10, the scatter plot shows an upward sloping relationship. This suggests that there is a strong positive linear relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment. Therefore the level of influence of workplace spirituality on organizational commitment can statistically be determined by undertaking linear correlation and regression analysis.

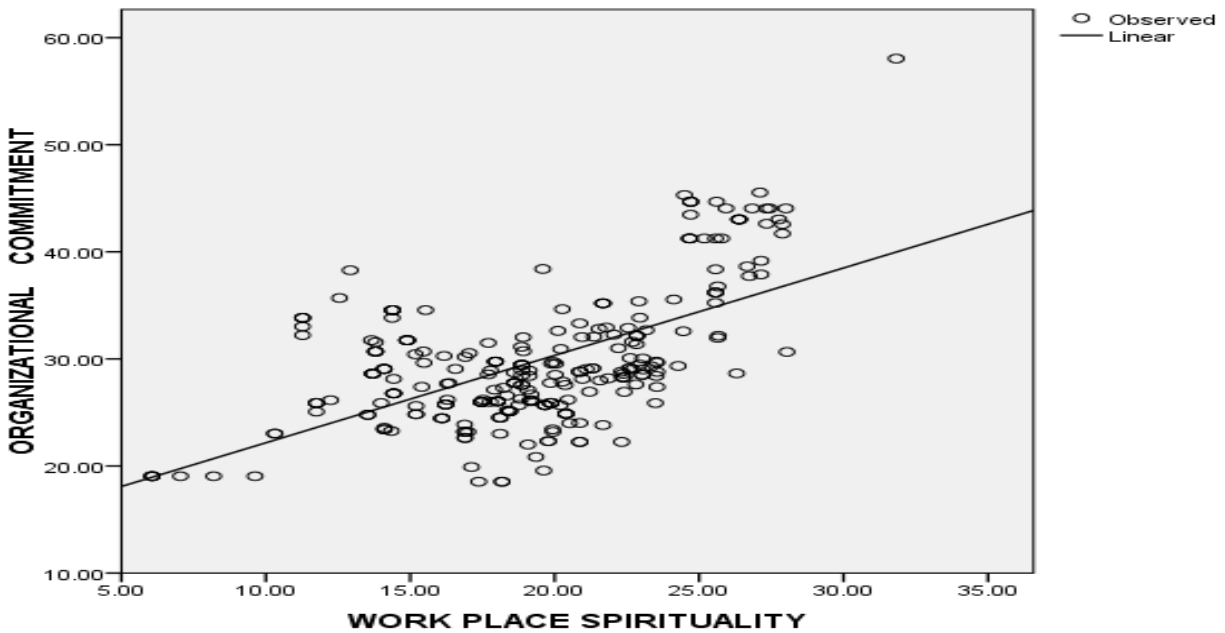


Fig. 4.10 Regression line of Workplace spirituality versus Organizational Commitment

4.7.3 Correlation

According to Kothari (2004), Karl Pearson Correlation Coefficient is the most widely used method of measuring the degree of relationship between two variables. It ranges from -1 to +1. A correlation coefficient of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation, 0 indicates no correlation while +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation. It tells a researcher the magnitude and direction of the relationship between two variables.

The Pearson Correlation of workplace spirituality versus organizational commitment was computed and established as 0.605 (p-value=0.000) which is a moderate significant and positive relationship between the two variables. Campbell and Hwa (2014) in their study on workplace spirituality and organizational commitment and its influence on job performance among academic staff found a significant positive relationship between all the three spirituality components with normative and affective commitment. From table 4.32, it could then be concluded that there is a moderate positive linear relationship

between the two variables since the correlation coefficient is ranging between 0.4 and +0.6 according to Dancey and Reidy's (2004) strength of correlation coefficient categorization.

Table 4.32 Pearson Correlation of Workplace spirituality versus organizational

Commitment

		Organizational Commitment	Workplace Spirituality
Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.605 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	282	282
Workplace Spirituality	Pearson Corr.	.605 ^{**}	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	282	282

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

4.7.4 Pearson Correlation Coefficient as per the University Sector

The Pearson Correlation of workplace spirituality versus organizational commitment for public universities was computed and established as 0.567 (p-value=0.000) which is a moderate significant and positive relationship between the two variables. This was slightly low that Pearson Correlation for both sectors combined which stood at 0.605. The situation was different in private universities where the value higher at 0.662. The results show that in both sector the relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment is positive but stronger in private universities as shown in table 4.33 below.

Table 4.33 Pearson Correlation Coefficient as per the University Sector

University's Sector			Organizational Commitment	Workplace Spirituality
Public	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.567**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	172	172
	Workplace Spirituality	Pearson Corr.	.567**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
		N	172	172
Private	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.662**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	110	110
	Workplace Spirituality	Pearson Corr.	.662**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
		N	110	110

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

4.7.5 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis shows a relationship $R=0.605$ and $R^2=0.366$. This meant that 36.6% of variation in the organizational commitment can be explained by a unit change in workplace spirituality. The remaining percentage of 63.4% is explained by other variables namely, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment. This is shown in table 4.34.

Table 4.34 Model Summary for workplace Spirituality versus Organizational Commitment

R	R Square
.605 ^a	.366

a. Predictors: (Constant), Workplace Spirituality

To test the significance of regression relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment, the regression coefficients (β), the intercept (α), and the significance of all coefficients in the model were subjected to the t-test to test the null hypothesis that the coefficient is zero. The null hypothesis state that, β (beta) = 0, meaning there is no relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment as the slope β (beta) = 0 (no relationship between the two variables). The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model in table 4.24 shows that the constant $\alpha = 14.004$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.816$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the model $Y = 14.004 + 0.816$ (Workplace Spirituality) + e, is significantly fit. The model Organizational Commitment = $\alpha + \beta$ (Workplace Spirituality) holds as suggested by the test above. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between Workplace spirituality and organizational commitment.

Table 4.35 Relationship between Workplace Spirituality and Organizational Commitment

	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	14.004	1.270		11.029	.000
Workplace Spirituality	.816	.064	.605	12.720	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Further, F-test was carried out to test the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment .The ANOVA test in Table 4.36 shows that the significance of the F-statistic0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment.

Table 4.36 ANOVA Results for Workplace Spirituality

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	3977.115	1	3977.115	161.801	.000 ^b
Residual	6882.459	280	24.580		
Total	10859.574	281			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Workplace Spirituality

These findings confirm those of Rego and Cuhna(2007) who undertook a study on the effect of the various dimensions of workplace spirituality on organizational commitment. The results indicated a higher correlation between workplace spirituality and organization commitment. The findings suggest that when people experience workplace spirituality, they feel more affectively attached to their organizations and

experience a sense of obligation/loyalty to the organization. The findings also collaborates those of Milliman *et al.*, (2003) who examined how three workplace spirituality dimensions (meaningful work, sense of community, value alignment) explain work attitudes like organizational commitment and intentions to leave. The findings were that when work is meaningful employees tend to be more committed and are less likely to quit. Dehaghi, Goodarzi and Arazi, (2012) in their study concluded that by improving spirituality at work climates, organizational commitment and individual and organizational performance can be promoted.

4.7. 6Regression Analysis as per the University Sectors

The regression analysis for the public university sector shows a relationship $R=0.567$ and $R^2=0.321$. This meant that 32.1% of variation in the organizational commitment can be explained by a unit change in workplace spirituality. The remaining percentage of 67.9% is explained by other variables namely, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment. For the private universities regression analysis shows a relationship $R=0.662$ and $R^2=0.438$. This meant that 43.8% of variation in the organizational commitment can be explained by a unit change in workplace spirituality. The remaining percentage of 56.2% is explained by other variables namely, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment. This shows that a unit change in workplace spirituality can result in a higher variation in organizational commitment in private universities than in public universities. This is shown in table 4.37.

Table 4.37 Model Summary on workplace Spirituality versus organizational commitment for the two sectors

Model Summary

University's Sector	R	R Square
Public	.567	.321
Private	.662	.438

a. Predictors: (Constant), Workplace Spirituality

ANOVA^b

University's Sector	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	1	Regression	2224.307	1	2224.307	80.396	.000 ^a
		Residual	4703.398	170	27.667		
		Total	6927.705	171			
Private	1	Regression	1397.056	1	1397.056	84.052	.000 ^a
		Residual	1795.102	108	16.621		
		Total	3192.158	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Workplace Spirituality

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients^a

Univers ity's Sector		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
Public	(Constant)	15.260	1.802		8.470	.000
	Workplace Spirituality	.799	.089	.567	8.966	.000
Private	(Constant)	13.538	1.591		8.507	.000
	Workplace Spirituality	.763	.083	.662	9.168	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

The ANOVA test in Table 4 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 for both university sectors meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and concludes that there is a relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational commitment.

The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model for the public university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 15.260$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.799$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05. The results for the private university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 13.538$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.763$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that for both sectors the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the models $Y=15.260+0.799$ (Workplace Spirituality) + e and $Y=13.538+0.763$ (Workplace Spirituality) + e for the public and private sectors respectively are significantly fit. This confirms that there is a positive

linear relationship between Workplace spirituality and organizational commitment in both public and private universities.

4.8 Work-life Balance Practices versus Organizational Commitment

4.8.1 Scatter plot

A scatter plot was generated to show the kind of a relationship that existed between the independent variable work-life balance practices and the dependent variable organizational commitment. From figure 4.11, the scatter plot suggests that there is a weak positive linear relationship between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment. Therefore the level of influence of work-life balance practices on organizational commitment could statistically be determined by undertaking linear correlation and regression analysis.

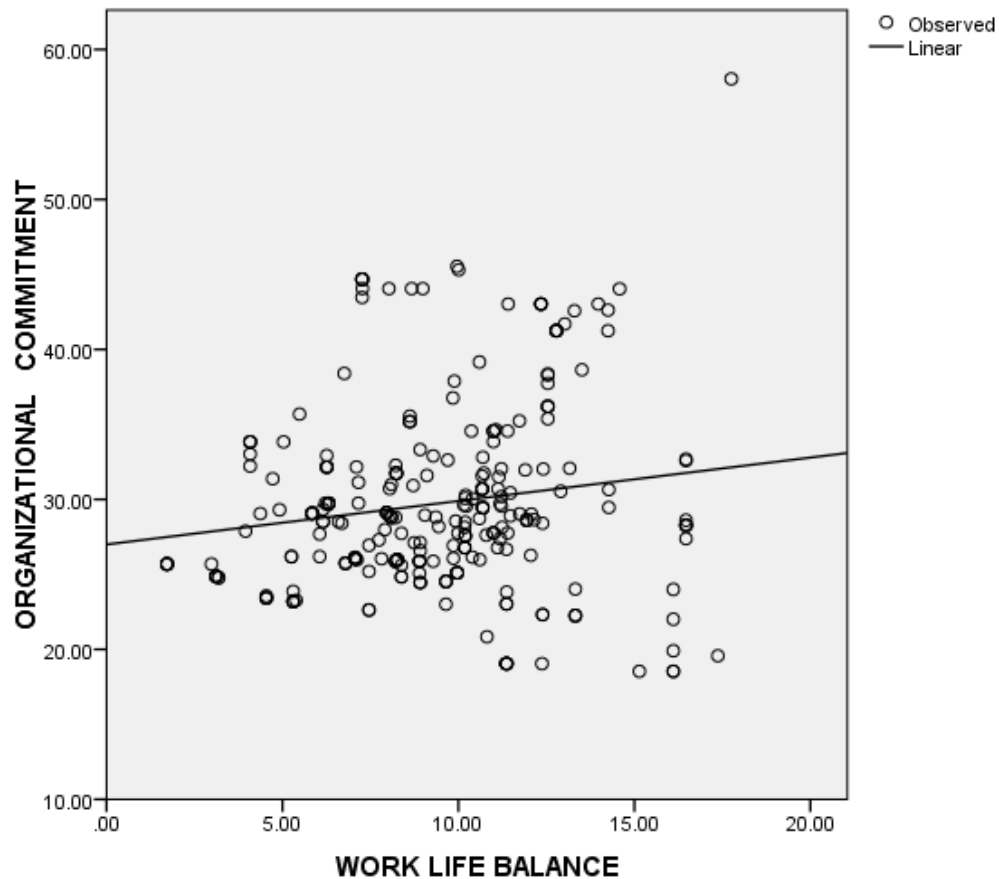


Fig. 4.11Regression line of Work-life Balance Practices versus Organizational Commitment

4.8.2Correlation Analysis

The Pearson Correlation coefficient of work-life balance practices versus organizational commitment was computed and established as 0.152 (p-value=0.011) which is a weak significant and positive relationship between the two variables. From table 4.38, it could then be concluded that there is a weak positive linear relationship between the two variables since the correlation coefficient is between 0.1 and 0.3 according to Dancey and Reidy's (2004) categorization.. A similar study by Dockel (2003) found a significant relationship between work-life policies and overall organizational commitment.

Table 4.38 Pearson Correlation of Work-life Balance Practices versus organizational commitment

		Organizational Commitment	Work-life Bal. Practices
Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.152*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.011
	N	282	282
Work-life Balance	Pearson Correlation	.152*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	
	N	282	282

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

4.8.3 Correlation Analysis as per University Sectors

The Pearson Correlation coefficient of work-life balance practices versus organizational commitment for both sectors were computed and established as 0.053 (p-value=0.488) for the public universities and 0.179 (p-value=0.062) for the private universities. This is a weak insignificant and positive relationship between the two variables. From table 4.39, it could then be concluded that there is a weak positive but insignificant linear relationship between the two variables in public universities. For the private universities it is also a weak but significant relationship at 10% confidence level. The case is different when both sectors were combined as the relationship was weak but significant in both sectors.

Table 4.39 Correlation Analysis as per University Sectors

University's Sector			Organ.	
			Commitment	Work life-Balance
Public	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.053
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.488
		N	172	172
	Work-life Balance	Pearson Corr.	.053	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.488	
		N	172	172
Private	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.179
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.062
		N	110	110
	Work-life Balance	Pearson Corr.	.179	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	
		N	110	110

4.8.4 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis shows a relationship $R = 0.152$ and $R^2 = 0.023$ which shows that 2.3% of the corresponding change in organizational commitment can be explained by unit change in work-life balance practices as shown in table 4.40. This is a weak relationship as the remaining percentage of 97.7% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, employee participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment.

Table 4.40 Model Summary for workplace Spirituality versus Organizational Commitment

R	R Square
.152 ^a	.023

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work-life Balance Practices

To test the significance of regression relationship between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment, the regression coefficients (β), the intercept (α), and the significance of all coefficients in the model were subjected to the t-test to test the null hypothesis that the coefficient is zero. The null hypothesis state that, β (beta) = 0, meaning there is no relationship between work-life practices and organizational commitment as the slope β (beta) = 0 (no relationship). The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model in table 4.24 shows that the constant α =26.994 is significantly different from 0, since the p-value 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient β = 0.290 is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.011 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the model $Y=26.994+ 0.29$ (Work-life Balance Practices) + e, is significantly fit. The model Organizational Commitment = $\alpha + \beta$ (Work-life Balance Practices) holds as suggested by the test above. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between Work-life balance practices and organizational commitment.

Table 4.41 Relationship between Work-life Balance Practice Organizational Commitment

	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	26.994	1.119		24.117	.000
Work-life Balance	.290	.113	.152	2.570	.011

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

F-test was further carried out to test the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between work-life balance and organizational commitment. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there is a regression relationship, between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment. The ANOVA test in Table 4.42 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.011 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment.

Table 4.42 Work-life Balance versus Organizational commitment ANOVA Results

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	250.284	1	250.284	6.605	.011 ^b
Residual	10609.290	280	37.890		
Total	10859.574	281			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work life balance

The findings concur with Eaton (2003) study of 463 professional and technical employees in biopharmaceutical firms, which found that the provision of work-life practices improved employees' organizational commitment. According to social exchange theory using the provision of work-life balance practices as an indicator of favorable treatment, employees will reciprocate in ways beneficial to the organization –

increased organizational commitment. Similarly, Wang and Walumbwa (2007) found that the availability of work-life balance practices was associated with increased organizational commitment for banking employees in a Work-Life Practices study which they undertook in China, Kenya, and Thailand.

4.8.5 Regression Analysis as per the University Sector

When the sectors were separated the regression analysis for the public university sector shows a relationship $R=0.053$ and $R^2=0.003$ and for private universities $R=0.179$ and $R^2=0.032$. Although these are very low values of R^2 for both sectors the situation is worse in public universities where only 0.5% change in organizational commitment can be explained by a unit change in work-life balance practices against 3.5% in the private universities.

The ANOVA test in Table 4.43 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.488 for public universities is greater than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is accepted and conclude that there is no relationship between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment in the public universities in Kenya. The results are different in private universities where the significance of the F-statistic 0.062 for private universities is than 0.01 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is positive linear relationship between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment in the private universities in Kenya.

The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model for the public university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 29.932$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.108$ is not significantly different from 0 since p-value=0.488 is greater than 0.05. The results for the private university sector shows that the constant $\alpha =25.160$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.299$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.062 which is less than 0.01 when tested at 10% confidence level.

This implies that for the public universities the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is accepted and conclude that there is no relationship between Work-life balance and organizational commitment in public universities. For the private universities the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and conclude that there is relationship between Work-life balance and organizational commitment in private universities in Kenya as shown in table 4.43 below.

Table 4.43 Model Summary on Work-life Balance Practices/Organizational Commitment

Model Summary

University's		
Sector	R	R Square
Public	.053 ^a	.003
Private	.179 ^a	.032

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work-life Balance

ANOVA^b

University's Sector		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	Regression	19.613	1	19.613	.483	.488 ^a
	Residual	6908.091	170	40.636		
	Total	6927.705	171			
Private	Regression	101.781	1	101.781	3.557	.062 ^a
	Residual	3090.378	108	28.615		
	Total	3192.158	109			

ANOVA^b

University's Sector		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	Regression	19.613	1	19.613	.483	.488 ^a
	Residual	6908.091	170	40.636		
	Total	6927.705	171			
Private	Regression	101.781	1	101.781	3.557	.062 ^a
	Residual	3090.378	108	28.615		
	Total	3192.158	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work-life Balance

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients^a

University's Sector		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Sector	Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
Public	1 (Constant)	29.932	1.623		18.439	.000
	Work-life Balance	.108	.155	.053	.695	.488
Private	1 (Constant)	25.160	1.434		17.545	.000
	Work-life Balance	.299	.159	.179	1.886	.062

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

4.9 Employee Participation in Decision Making versus Organizational Commitment

4.9.1 Scatter plot

To show the kind of a relationship that existed between the independent variable employee participation in decision making and the dependent variable organizational commitment, a scatter plot was generated. From figure 4.12, the scatter plot suggests that there is a positive linear relationship between employee participation in decision making and organizational commitment. Therefore the level of influence of employee participation in decision making on organizational commitment can statistically be determined by undertaking linear correlation and regression analysis.

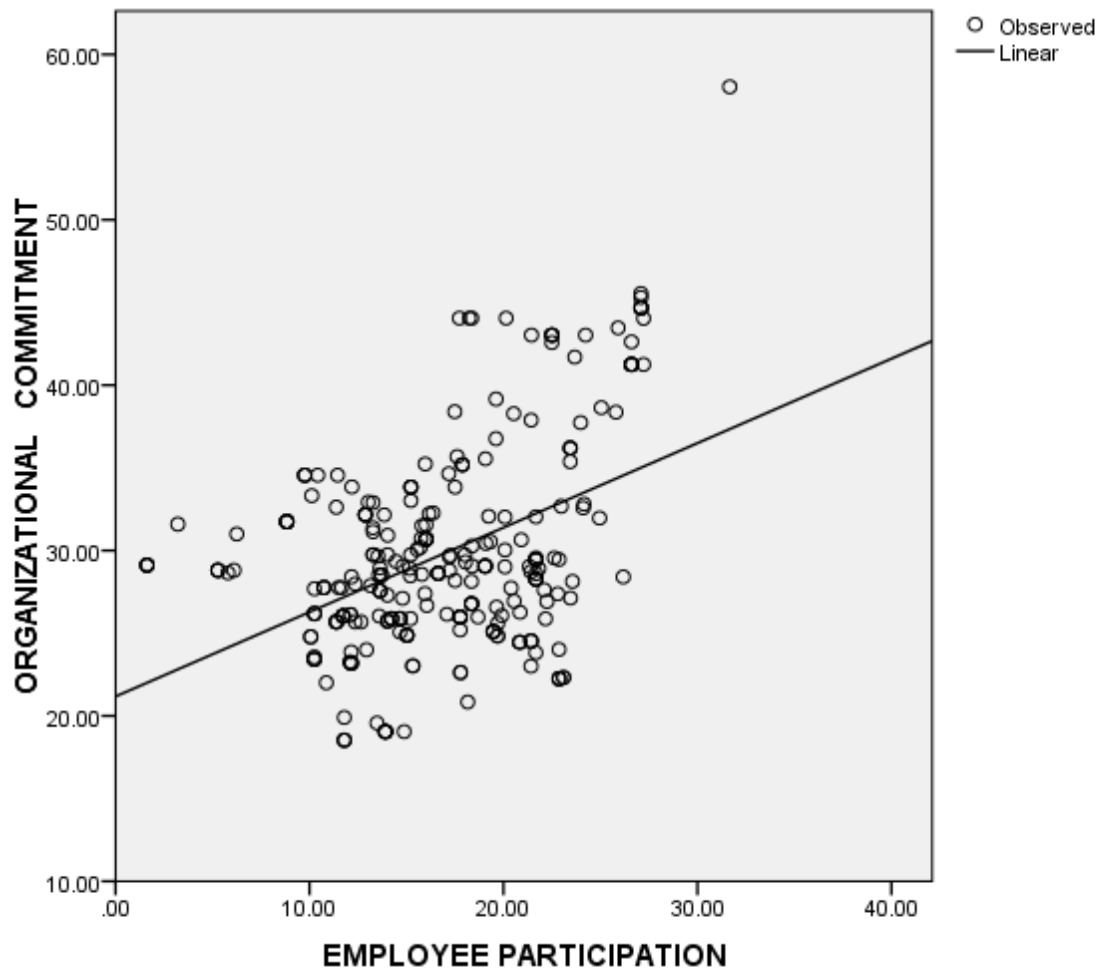


Fig. 4.12 Regression line of Employee Participation in Decision Making versus Organizational Commitment

4.9.2 Correlations

The Pearson Correlation of employee participation in decision making versus organizational commitment was computed and established as 0.445 ($p=0.000$) which according to Dancey and Reidy's (2004) categorization is a moderate significant and positive linear relationship between the two variables as shown in table 4.44. A study by Bhatti and Nawab (2011) found a high correlation ($r=0.550$) amongst the dependent organizational commitment and the independent variable employee participation.

Table 4.44 Pearson Correlation of Employee Participation in Decision making versus Organizational Commitment

		Organizational Commitment	Employee Participation
Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.445**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	282	282
Employee Participation	Pearson.	.445**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	282	282

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

4.9.3 Correlations as per the University Sectors

The Pearson Correlation of employee participation in decision making versus organizational commitment for public universities was computed and established as 0.522 (p=0.000) while that of private universities was 0.267(p=0.000). This shows there is difference of 0.255 between the two sectors as shown in table 4.45 below.

Table 4.45 Pearson Correlation of Employee Participation in Decision making versus Organizational Commitment as per the University Sectors.

University's Sector			Organizational Commitment	Employee Part.
Public	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.522**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	172	172
	Employee Participation	Pearson Correlation	.522**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
		N	172	172
Private	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.267**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.005
		N	110	110
	Employee Participation	Pearson Correlation	.267**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	
		N	110	110

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

4.9.4 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis shows a relationship $R = 0.445$ and $R^2 = 0.198$ which shows that 19.8% of the corresponding change in organizational commitment can be explained by unit change in employee participation in decision making as shown in table 4.46. The remaining 80.2% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment.

Table 4.46 Model Summary for Employee Participation versus Organizational Commitment

R	R Square
.445 ^a	.198

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Participation in Decision Making

To test the significance of regression relationship between employee participation in decision making and organizational commitment, the regression coefficients (β), the intercept (α), and the significance of all coefficients in the model were subjected to the t-test to test the null hypothesis that the coefficient is zero. The null hypothesis state that, β (beta) = 0, meaning there is no relationship between employee participation in decision making and organizational commitment as the slope β (beta) = 0 (no relationship). The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model in table 4.31 shows that the constant $\alpha = 21.174$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.511$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the model $Y = 21.174 + 0.511$ (Employee Participation in Decision Making) + e, is significantly fit. The model $\text{Organizational Commitment} = \alpha + \beta$ (Employee Participation in Decision Making) holds as suggested by the test above. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between employee participation in decision making and organizational commitment.

Table 4.47 Coefficients for Employee Participation in Decision Making

	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	21.174	1.081		19.594	.000
Employee Participation	.511	.062	.445	8.304	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

F-test was then carried out to test the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between employee participation and organizational commitment. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there is a regression relationship, between employee participation and organizational commitment. The ANOVA test in Table 4.48 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between employee participation in decision making and organizational commitment.

Table 4.48 Employee Participation in Decision Making versus Organizational commitment ANOVA Results

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2145.964	1	2145.964	68.958	.000 ^b
Residual	8713.609	280	31.120		
Total	10859.574	281			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Participation

The findings are supported by Bhatti and Nawab (2011) in their study on determinants of organizational commitment in banking sector. In this study employee participation was found to have a positive association with organizational commitment in both private and public banking sectors. Similarly a study by Zeffanne (2008) was able to show that

employee participation, that is, giving employees the responsibility and authority to make decisions about their work can increase their affective commitment and loyalty to their companies.

4.9.5 Regression Analysis as per the University Sectors

The regression analysis for the public university sector shows a relationship $R=0.522$ and $R^2=0.272$. This was slightly higher than R and R^2 for both sectors combined which were 0.445 and 0.198 respectively. This meant that 27.2% of variation in the organizational commitment can be explained by a unit change in employee participation in decision making. The remaining percentage of 72.8% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment. For the private universities regression analysis shows a relationship $R=0.267$ and $R^2=0.071$. This meant that 7.1% of variation in the organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in employee participation in decision making. The remaining percentage of 92.9% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee non-monetary benefits and employee terms of employment. This shows that a unit change in employee participation can result in a higher variation in organizational commitment among academic staff in public universities than in private universities. This is shown in table 4.49

The ANOVA test in Table 4.shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 and 0.005 for both public and private universities respectively are less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a relationship between employee participation and organizational commitment in the public and private universities in Kenya.

The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model for the public university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 21.943$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.538$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05. The results for the private university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 21.654$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.365$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.005 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that for both sectors the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1\neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the models $Y=21.943+0.538$ (Employee Participation) + e and $Y=21.654+0.365$ (Employee Participation) + e for the public and private sectors respectively are significantly fit. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between employee participation in decision making and organizational commitment in both public and private universities in Kenya. This is shown in table 4.49 below

Table 4.49 Model Summary on Employee Participation/Organizational Commitment as per the University Sectors.

Model Summary

University's Sector	R	R Square
Public	.522 ^a	.272
Private	.267 ^a	.071

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Participation

ANOVA^b

University's Sector	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	Regression	1887.638	1	1887.638	63.670	.000 ^a
	Residual	5040.066	170	29.647		
	Total	6927.705	171			
Private	Regression	226.846	1	226.846	8.262	.005 ^a
	Residual	2965.313	108	27.457		
	Total	3192.158	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Participation

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients^a

University's Sector		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Public	(Constant)	21.943	1.210		18.141	.000
	Employee Participation	.538	.067	.522	7.979	.000
Private	(Constant)	21.654	2.158		10.037	.000
	Employee Participation	.365	.127	.267	2.874	.005

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

4.10 Employee Non-monetary Benefits versus Organizational Commitment

4.10.1 Scatter plot

To show the kind of a relationship that existed between the independent variable employee non-monetary benefits and the dependent variable organizational commitment, a scatter plot was generated. From figure 4.13, the scatter plot suggests that there is a positive linear relationship between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment. Therefore the level of influence of employee non-monetary benefits on organizational commitment can statistically be tested by undertaking a linear regression analysis.

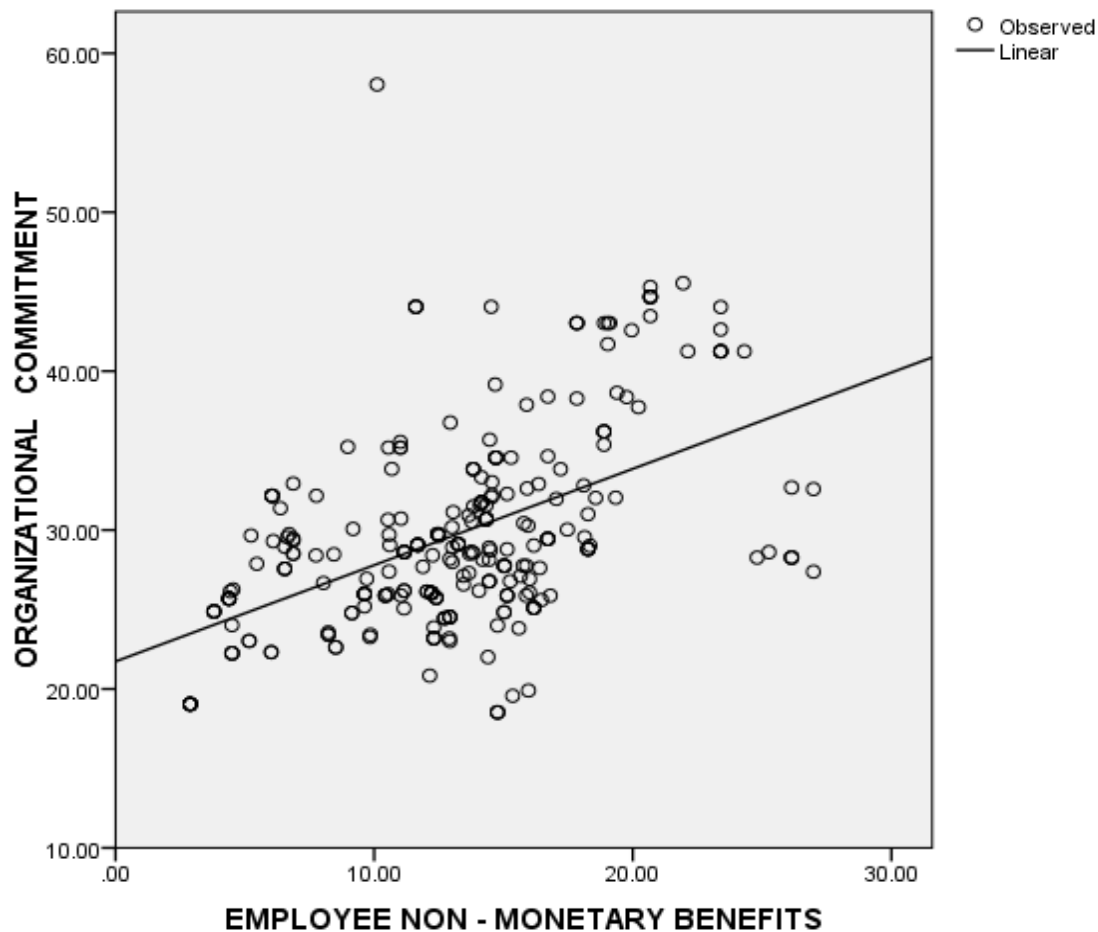


Fig. 4.13 Regression line of Employee Non-monetary Benefits versus Organizational Commitment

4.10.2 Correlations

The Pearson Correlation of employee participation in decision making versus organizational commitment was computed and established as 0.503 (p-value=0.000). From table 4.50, it could then be concluded that there is a moderate positive linear relationship between the two variables since the correlation coefficient is ranging between 0.4 and 0.6 as per to Dancey and Reidy's (2004) correlation coefficient categorization.

Table 4.50 Pearson Correlation of Employee Non-monetary Benefits versus Organizational Commitment.

		Organizational Commitment	Employee non - monetary Benefits
Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.503**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	282	282
Employee non - monetary Benefits	Pearson Correlation	.503**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	282	282

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

4.10.3 Correlations as per University Sectors

The Pearson Correlation of employee non-monetary benefits versus organizational commitment for the public university academic staff was computed and established as 0.534 (p-value=0.000). There was not much difference between this value and the Pearson Correlation for the two sectors combined which was 0.503. However, for the

private universities the value was computed and established as 0.263 (p-value=0.005) which is lower than Pearson Correlation for the public universities. These results are shown in table 4.51 below

Table 4.51 Pearson Correlation of Employee Non-monetary Benefits versus Organizational Commitment as per the University Sectors

University's Sector			Organizational Commitment	Employee Benefits
Public	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.534**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	172	172
	Employee Benefits	Pearson Correlation	.534**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000		
	N	172	172	
Private	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.263**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.005
		N	110	110
	Employee Benefits	Pearson Correlation	.263**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)		.005		
	N	110	110	

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

4.10.4 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis shows a relationship $R = 0.503$ and $R^2 = 0.253$ which shows that 25.3% of the corresponding change in organizational commitment can be explained by unit change in employee non-monetary benefits. The remaining percentage of 74.7% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making and employee terms of employment.

Table 4.52 Model Summary for Employee Non-monetary Benefits versus Organizational Commitment

R	R Square
.503 ^a	.253

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Non - Monetary Benefits

To test the significance of regression relationship between employee non - monetary benefits and organizational commitment, the regression coefficients (β), the intercept (α), and the significance of all coefficients in the model were subjected to the t-test to test the null hypothesis that the coefficient is zero. The null hypothesis state that, β (beta) = 0, meaning there is no relationship between Employee Non - Monetary Benefits and organizational commitment as the slope β (beta) = 0 (no relationship). The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model in table 4.34 shows that the constant $\alpha = 21.732$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.606$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the model $Y=21.732 + 0.606$ (Employee Non - Monetary Benefits) + e, is significantly fit. The model Organizational Commitment = $\alpha + \beta$ (Employee non-monetary benefits) holds as suggested by the test above. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between employee non - monetary benefits and organizational commitment.

Table 4.53 Coefficients for Employee Non-monetary Benefits

	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	21.732	.879		24.727	.000
Employee Non - monetary Benefits	.606	.062	.503	9.750	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Further, F-test was carried out to test the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there is a regression relationship, between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment. The ANOVA test in Table 4.54 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment.

Table 4.54 Employee Non-monetary benefits versus Organizational commitment**ANOVA Results**

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2752.653	1	2752.653	95.072	.000 ^b
Residual	8106.921	280	28.953		
Total	10859.574	281			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Non - monetary Benefits

The findings are in line with Ju *et al.*, (2008) study on influence of non-monetary benefits (fringe and mandatory) on employee organizational commitment. Their study aimed at revealing whether employee benefits offered by organizations influence

organizational commitment for employees in food-manufacturing industry in the state of Kedah, Malaysia. Their study produced a beta value of 0.152 (p-value <0.05) suggesting that mandatory benefits directly influences organizational commitment and fringe benefits was also found to significantly influence organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.399$, p-value <0.01). This study was also supported by Khalisanni and Khalid (2012) in their study on the role of wage and benefit in engaging employee commitment. There was found to be a positive relationship between employee benefits and organizational commitment.

4.10.5 Regression Analysis as per University Sectors

The regression analysis for the public university sector shows a relationship $R=0.534$ and $R^2=0.285$. This was slightly higher than R and R^2 for both sectors combined which were 0.503 and 0.253 respectively. This meant that 28.5% of variation in the organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in employee non-monetary benefits. The remaining percentage of 71.5% was explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making and employee terms of employment. For the private universities regression analysis shows a relationship $R=0.263$ and $R^2=0.069$. This meant that 6.9% of variation in the organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in employee non-monetary benefits. The remaining percentage of 93.1% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation and employee terms of employment. This shows that a unit change in employee non-monetary benefits can result in a higher variation in organizational commitment among academic staff in public universities than in private universities. This is shown in table 4.55.

The ANOVA test in Table 4.shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 and 0.005 for both public and private universities respectively are less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a relationship between

employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment in the public and private universities in Kenya.

The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model for the public university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 19.927$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.727$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05. The results for the private university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 24.270$ is significantly different from 0, since the p- value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.344$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.005 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that for both sectors the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1\neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the models $Y=19.927+0.727$ (Employee Non-monetary Benefits) + e and $Y=24.270+0.344$ (Employee Non-monetary Benefits) + e for the public and private sectors respectively are significantly fit. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment in both public and private universities in Kenya. This is shown in table 4.55 below

Table 4.55 Model Summary on Employee Non-monetary Benefits/Organizational Commitment as per the University Sectors.

Model Summary

University's Sector	R	R Square
Public	.534	.285
Private	.263	.069

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Benefits

ANOVA^b

University's Sector	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	1 Regression	1975.160	1	1975.160	67.799	.000 ^a
	Residual	4952.545	170	29.133		
	Total	6927.705	171			
Private	1 Regression	221.014	1	221.014	8.034	.005 ^a
	Residual	2971.144	108	27.511		
	Total	3192.158	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Benefits

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients^a

University's Sector	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
Public	1 (Constant)	19.927	1.407			14.161	.000
	Employee Benefits	.727	.088	.534		8.234	.000
Private	1 (Constant)	24.270	1.305			18.593	.000
	Employee Benefits	.344	.121	.263		2.834	.005

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

4.11 Employee Terms of Employment versus Organizational Commitment

4.11.1 Scatter plot

A scatter plot was generated to show the kind of a relationship that existed between the independent variable employee terms of employment and the dependent variable organizational commitment. From figure 4.14, the scatter plot suggests that there is a positive linear relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment. Therefore the level of influence of employee terms of employment on organizational commitment can statistically determined by undertaking a linear correlation and regression analysis.

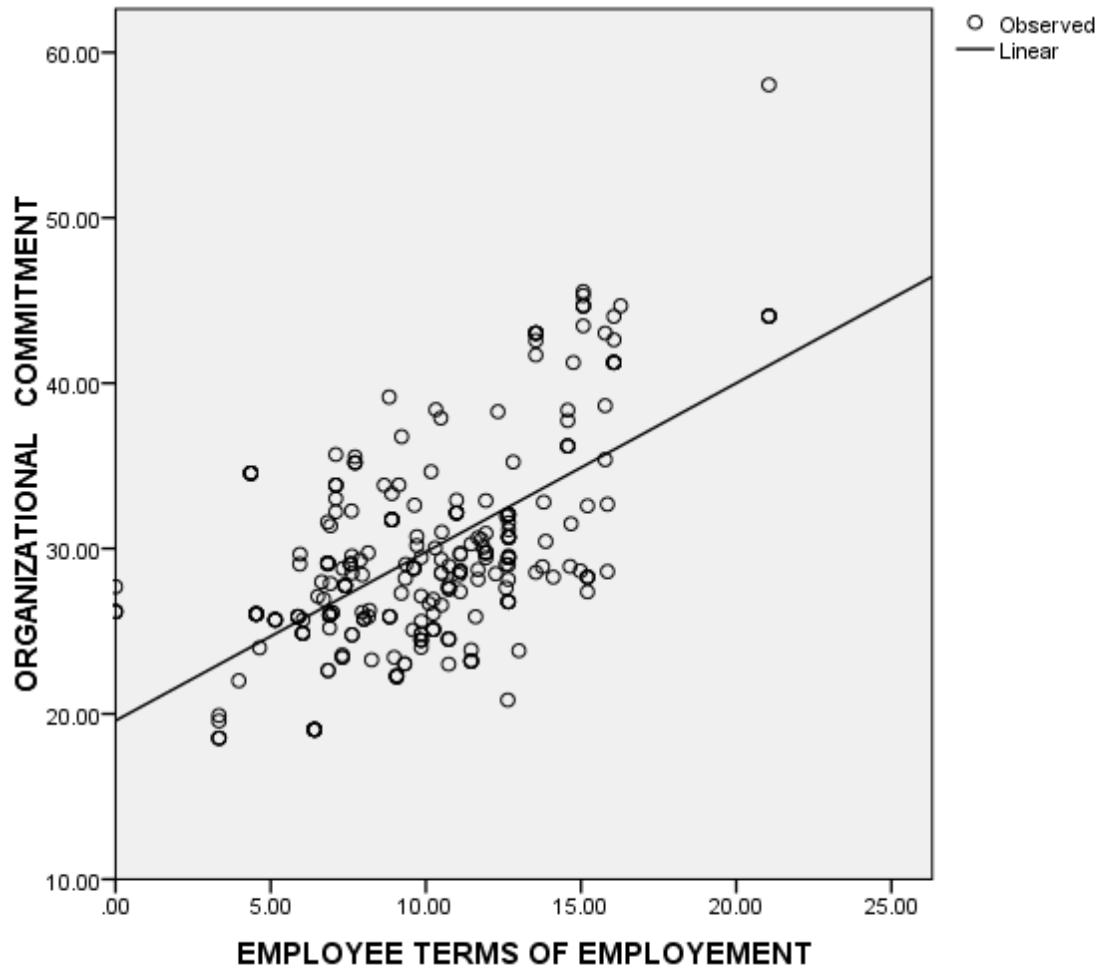


Fig. 4.14 Regression line of Employee Terms of Employment versus Organizational Commitment

4.11.2 Correlations

The Pearson Correlation of terms of employment versus organizational commitment was computed and established as 0.612 (p-value=0.000). From table 4.56, it could then be concluded that there is a moderate positive linear relationship between the two variables since the correlation coefficient is ranging between 0.4 and 0.6 according to Dancey and Reidy's (2004) categorization.

Table 4.56 Pearson Correlation of Employee Terms of Employment versus Organizational Commitment

		Organizational Commitment	Employee Terms of Employment
Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.612**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	282	282
Employee Terms of Employment	Pearson Correlation	.612**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	282	282

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

4.11.3 Correlations as per the University Sectors

The Pearson Correlation for terms of employment versus organizational commitment for the public university academic staff was computed and established as 0.517 (p-value=0.000). The value was slightly lower than Pearson Correlation for the two sectors combined which was 0.612. However, for the private universities the value was computed and established as 0.788 (p-value=0.005) which is higher than Pearson Correlation for the public universities. These results are shown in table 4.57 below.

Table 4.57 Pearson Correlation of Employee Terms of Employment versus Organizational Commitment as per the University Sector.

University's Sector			Organizational Commitment	Terms of Employment
Public	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.517**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	172	172
	Terms of Employment	Pearson Corr.	.517**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
		N	172	172
Private	Organizational Commitment	Pearson Corr.	1	.788**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	110	110
	Terms of Employment	Pearson Corr.	.788**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
		N	110	110

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

4.11.4 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis shows a relationship $R = 0.612$ and $R^2 = 0.374$ which shows that 37.4% of the corresponding change in organizational commitment can be explained by unit change in employment terms. The remaining percentage of 62.6% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making and employee non-monetary benefits.

Table 4.58 Model Summary for Employee Terms of Employment versus Organizational Commitment

Summary

R	R Square
.612 ^a	.374

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Terms of Employment

To test the significance of regression relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment, the regression coefficients (β), the intercept (α), and the significance of all coefficients in the model were subjected to the t-test to test the null hypothesis that the coefficient is zero. The null hypothesis state that, β (beta) = 0, meaning there is no relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment as the slope β (beta) = 0 (no relationship between X and Y). The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model in table 4.59 shows that the constant $\alpha = 19.589$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 1.021$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than p=0.05.

This implies that the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the model $Y=19.589 + 1.021$ (Terms of employment) + e, is significantly fit. The model Organizational Commitment = $\alpha + \beta$ (Terms of employment) holds as suggested by the test above. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment.

Table 4.59 Coefficients for Employee Terms of Employment

	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	19.589	.836		23.438	.000
Employee Terms of Employment	1.021	.079	.612	12.936	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Further, F-test was carried out to test the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there is a regression relationship, employee terms of employment and organizational commitment. The ANOVA test in Table 4.60 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment.

Table 4.60 Employee Terms of Employment versus Organizational commitment ANOVA Results

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	4062.309	1	4062.309	167.339	.000 ^b
Residual	6797.264	280	24.276		
Total	10859.574	281			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Terms of Employment

The findings are consistent with Akbiyik and Witte (2012) in their study on job insecurity and affective commitment in seasonal versus permanent workers. Their results

suggested that contract type (permanent/non-permanent) might be one of the most important indicators of affective commitment among non-permanent workers. On the other hand, this result contradicts those of De Witte and Naswall, (2003) who found no significant differences according to employee contract type.

Mostly non-permanent employees in the universities do not receive the same kind of benefits (e.g. health insurance, medical support, pension plans) and good working conditions as permanent employees. One can therefore argue that they are not strongly embraced as members of the organization. This may result to lower emotional attachment to the organization among non-permanent employees. Although this research did not aim at comparing the two contract types the results show that the contract type (permanent or temporary) influence organizational commitment.

4.11.5 Regression Analysis as per the University Sector

The regression analysis for the public university sector shows a relationship $R=0.517$ and $R^2=0.268$. This was slightly lower than R and R^2 for both sectors combined which were 0.612 and 0.374 respectively. This meant that 26.8% of variation in the organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in Terms Employment. The remaining percentage of 73.2% was explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making and employee non-monetary benefits. For the private universities regression analysis shows a relationship $R=0.788$ and $R^2=0.621$. This meant that 62.1 % of variation in the organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in employee terms of employment..The remaining percentage of 37.9% is explained by other variables namely, workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation and employee non-monetary benefits. This shows that a unit change employee terms of employment can result in a higher variation in organizational commitment among academic staff in private universities than in public universities in Kenya. This is shown in table 4.61.

The ANOVA test in Table 4 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 for both public and private universities is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that there was a relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment in the public and private universities in Kenya.

The results on the beta coefficient of the resulting model for the public university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 22.216$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 0.856$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.000 which is less than 0.05. The results for the private university sector shows that the constant $\alpha = 16.185$ is significantly different from 0, since the p-value = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The coefficient $\beta = 1.227$ is also significantly different from 0 with a p-value=0.005 which is less than 0.05.

This implies that for both sectors the null hypothesis $\beta_1=0$ is rejected and the alternative hypothesis $\beta_1 \neq 0$ is taken to hold implying that the models $Y=22.216+0.856$ (Terms of Employment) + e and $Y=16.185+1.227$ (Terms of Employment)) + e for the public and private sectors respectively are significantly fit. This confirms that there is a positive linear relationship between employee terms of employment and organizational commitment in both public and private universities in Kenya. This is shown in table 4.61 below.

Table 4.61 Model Summary on Employee Non-monetary Benefits/Organizational Commitment as per the University Sectors.

Model Summary

University's Sector	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Public	1	.517 ^a	.268	.263	5.46243
Private	1	.788 ^a	.621	.618	3.34656

a. Predictors: (Constant), Terms of Employment

ANOVA^b

University's Sector	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	1	Regression	1855.214	1	1855.214	62.176	.000 ^a
		Residual	5072.491	170	29.838		
		Total	6927.705	171			
Private	1	Regression	1982.619	1	1982.619	177.028	.000 ^a
		Residual	1209.539	108	11.199		
		Total	3192.158	109			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Terms of Employment

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients^a

		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
's Sector	Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Public	1 (Constant)	22.216	1.190		18.665	.000
	Terms of Employment	.856	.109	.517	7.885	.000
Private	1 (Constant)	16.185	.922		17.563	.000
	Terms of Employment	1.227	.092	.788	13.305	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

4.12 Pearson Correlation Matrix for Independent and Dependent Variables

Correlation matrix is used to determine the extent to which changes in the value of an attribute is associated with changes in another attribute. The correlation coefficient can range from -1 to +1, with -1 indicating a perfect negative correlation, +1 indicating a perfect positive correlation, and 0 indicating no correlation at all. Table 4.62 shows there is a high positive correlation between organizational commitment and employee terms of employment at 0.612, there is a high correlation between organizational commitment and workplace spirituality at 0.605. Finally a high correlation also exists between organizational commitment and employee non-monetary benefits at 0.503. The relationship between organizational commitment and independent variables employee participation and work-life balance was low at 0.445 and 0.152 respectively.

From the table 4.62 below all the predictor variables were shown to have a positive correlation between them. Apart from employee terms of employment and employee participation which were highly correlated at 0.612 the other independent variables produced correlation coefficients of below 0.5. The relationship between terms of employment and employee non-monetary benefits was moderate at 0.494, between

workplace spirituality and employment terms at 0.484, between employee participation and work-life balance at 0.438 and between employee benefits and work-life balance at 0.461. The lowest relationship existed between workplace spirituality and work-life balance practices at 0.225.

The correlation coefficient value (r) ranging from 0.10 to 0.29 is considered weak, from 0.30 to 0.49 is considered medium and from 0.50 to 1.0 is considered strong (Wong & Hiew, 2005). According to Field (2005), correlation coefficient should not go beyond 0.8 to avoid multicollinearity. There was no multicollinearity problem in this research since the highest correlation coefficient was 0.612 existing between organizational commitment and terms of employment. Similarly the correlation coefficient between employee participation and terms of employment was less than 0.8 at 0.612.

Table 4.62 Pearson Correlation Matrix for Independent and Dependent Variables

		OC	WS	WB	EP	EB	ET
OC	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	282					
WS	Pearson Correlation	.605**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	282	282				
WB	Pearson Correlation	.152*	.225**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.000				
	N	282	282	282			
EP	Pearson Correlation	.445**	.389**	.438**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000			
	N	282	282	282	282		
EB	Pearson Correlation	.503**	.384**	.461**	.387**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	282	282	282	282	282	
ET	Pearson Correlation	.612**	.484**	.396**	.612**	.494**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	282	282	282	282	282	282

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

* OC-Organizational Commitment WS-Workplace Spirituality, WB-Work-life Balance, EP-Employee Participation, EB-Employee non - monetary Benefits, ET-Employment Terms

4.12.1 Pearson Correlation Matrix for Independent and Dependent Variables for the Separate Sectors

In the public universities, workplace spirituality had the highest correlation with organizational commitment at 0.567. This was followed by employee benefits whose

correlation with the dependent variable was 0.534. The weakest relationship was between work-life balance practices and organizational commitment at 0.053. The case was slightly different in the private universities as the independent variable terms of employment had the highest correlation with organizational commitment at 0.788. This was followed by workplace spirituality at 0.662 and just like in the public sector the least relationship was found between work-life balance and organizational commitment.

From the table below all the predictor variables in the public sector were shown to have a positive correlation between them. The highest correlation was between the independent variables employee participation and terms of employment at 0.673. The weakest correlation was between work-life balance and terms of employment at 0.333. In the private university sector the highest correlation was between the variables employee participation and work-life balance at 0.656. The weakest relationship was between work-life balance and workplace spirituality at -0.109. In both sectors there was no multicollinearity problem since all correlation coefficients among the variables were below 0.8.

**Table 4.63 Pearson Correlation Matrix for Independent and Dependent Variables-
Public Universities**

		OC	WS	WB	EP	EB	ET
OC	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	172					
WS	Pearson Correlation	.567**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	172	172				
WB	Pearson Correlation	.053	.416**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.488	.000				
	N	172	172	172			
EP	Pearson Correlation	.522**	.447**	.369**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000			
	N	172	172	172	172		
EB	Pearson Correlation	.534**	.537**	.491**	.489**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	172	172	172	172	172	
ET	Pearson Correlation	.517**	.532**	.333**	.673**	.554**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	172	172	172	172	172	172

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

a. University's Sector = Public

**Table 4.64 Pearson Correlation Matrix for Independent and Dependent Variables-
Private Universities**

		OC	WS	WB	EP	EB	ET
OC	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	110					
WS	Pearson Correlation	.662**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	110	110				
WB	Pearson Correlation	.179	-.109	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	.256				
	N	110	110	110			
EP	Pearson Correlation	.267**	.282**	.656**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.003	.000			
	N	110	110	110	110		
EB	Pearson Correlation	.263**	.101	.275**	.284**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.292	.004	.003		
	N	110	110	110	110	110	
ET	Pearson Correlation	.788**	.385**	.465**	.477**	.414**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	110	110	110	110	110	110

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

a. University's Sector = Private

4.13 Multiple Linear Regression Model for Workplace Spirituality, Work-life balance, Employee Participation, Employee Non-Monetary Benefit, Terms of Employment and Organizational Commitment

To get more information about the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, a multiple linear regression was carried out.

Hypothesis for the multiple linear regression model:

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0$$

H₁: at least one of $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ is not equal to 0.

From table 4.65, results show that R=0.987 and R-Square =0.974 which is a strong relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. This meant that 97.4% variability in organizational commitment could be accounted for by all the independent variables combined.

Table 4.65: Model Summary on Terms of Employment, Work life balance, Employee Benefits, Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation and Organizational Commitment.

Model Summary

R	R Square
.987 ^a	.974

- a. Predictors: Terms of Employment, Work life balance, Employee benefits, Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation
- b. Dependent: Organizational Commitment

A further test on the beta coefficients of the resulting model shows that Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation, Employee benefits and Terms of Employment have a significant positive effect on organizational commitment of university academic staff with gradients 0.894, 0.239, 0.349 and 0.483 respectively. Apart from employee participation which had a p-value of 0.001 the rest had a p-value of 0.000. However,

work-life balance had an insignificant effect on organizational commitment with p-value of 0.141 which is greater than 0.05 as shown in table 4.42 thus prompting its exclusion from the model.

Table 4.66: Overall Regression Model Coefficients

Coefficients^{a,b}

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.	
	Coefficients		Coefficients			
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
	Workplace Spirituality	.894	.059	.583	15.174	.000
	Work-life Balance	-.152	.103	-.050	-1.476	.141
1	Employee Participation	.239	.071	.138	3.381	.001
	Employee Benefits	.349	.071	.162	4.930	.000
	Terms of Employment	.483	.111	.169	4.367	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

The ANOVA test in Table 4.67 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that the null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between all independent variables jointly and organizational commitment.

Table 4.67: F-test for Multiple Regression Model

ANOVA^{a,b}

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	253072.032	5	50614.406	2078.304	.000
Residual	6745.978	277	24.354		
Total	259818.010 ^d	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

4.14 Multiple Linear Regression Models for the Two Sectors

The results obtained in the table below show a moderate difference in R and R-Square between the two sectors. For the public sector $R = 0.986$ and R-Square 0.973. This meant that 97.3% variability in organizational commitment could be accounted for by all the independent variables combined. The case was not different in the private universities where the values of R and R^2 were 0.993 and 0.978 respectively. This meant that in the private sector 97.8% variability in organizational commitment could be accounted for by all the independent variables combined.

The ANOVA test in Table 4.shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between all independent variables jointly and organizational commitment among academic staff in both public and private universities in Kenya.

A further test on the beta coefficients of the resulting model shows that Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation and Employee benefits had a significant positive effect on organizational commitment of public universities' academic staff with gradients 1.038, 0.367 and 0.580 respectively. However work-life balance practices and

organizational commitment had a moderate and significant negative relationship with organizational commitment with a gradient of -0.543. The gradient for terms of employment was 0.030 and a p-value of 0.851 which is greater than 0.05 thus prompting its removal from the model.

In the private universities a test on the beta coefficients of the resulting model shows that workplace spirituality, work-life balance and terms of employment had a significant positive effect on organizational commitment of private universities' academic staff with gradients 0.880, 0.350 and 0.943 respectively. The variables employee participation and employee non-monetary benefits had insignificant relationship with private universities' academic staff organizational commitment gradients -0.114 (p-value=0.337) and 0.107 (p-value=0.203) as shown in the table below.

Table 4.68 Model Summary on Terms of Employment, Work life balance, Employee Benefits, Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation and Organizational Commitment as per University Sector

Model Summary

University's Sector	R	R Square
Public	.986	.973
Private	.993	.987

a. Predictors: Terms of Employment, Work-life Balance, Employee Participation, Employee Benefits, Workplace Spirituality

ANOVA

University's Sector	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Public	1	Regression	167575.049	5	33515.010	1.184E3	.000 ^a
		Residual	4726.597	167	28.303		
		Total	172301.646 ^b	172			
Private	1	Regression	86349.765	5	17269.953	1.554E3	.000 ^c
		Residual	1166.600	105	11.110		
		Total	87516.365 ^b	110			

a. Predictors: Terms of Employment, Work-life Balance, Employee Participation, Employee Benefits, Workplace Spirituality

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients

Univer- sity's Sector		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Public	Workplace Spirituality	1.038	.097	.663	10.704	.000
	Work-life Balance	-.543	.149	-.180	-3.645	.000
	Employee Participation	.367	.091	.208	4.011	.000
	Employee Benefits	.580	.117	.292	4.941	.000
	Terms of Employment	.030	.157	.010	.188	.851
Private	Workplace Spirituality	.880	.071	.597	12.323	.000
	Work-life Balance	.350	.153	.112	2.291	.024
	Employee Participation	-.114	.118	-.069	-.965	.337
	Employee Benefits	.107	.083	.041	1.280	.203
	Terms of Employment	.943	.124	.334	7.612	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

4.14.1 Optimal Model

To get the optimal model the insignificant variable work-life balance was removed. R and R² remained the same at 0.987 and 0.974 respectively as shown in table 4.69 below.

Table 4.69: Model Summary on Terms of Employment, Work life balance, Employee Benefits, Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation and Organizational Commitment.

Model Summary

R	R Square
.987 ^a	.974

a. Predictors: terms of employment, employee benefits, spirituality, employee participation

After removing work-life balance one of the independent variable, further test on the beta coefficients of the resulting model shows that Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation, Employee benefits and Terms of Employment have a significant positive effect on organizational commitment of university academic staff with gradients 0.880, 0.205, 0.313 and 0.475 respectively as shown in table 4.70.

The proposed model shows that workplace spirituality (Beta = .574) was the most important in influencing organizational commitment. This was followed by terms of employment (Beta=0.166) and employee non-monetary benefits (Beta=0.146). However, employee participation was found to have the weakest influence on organizational commitment (beta= 0.119).

Table 4.70 Coefficients after Dropping Work-life Balance Variable**Coefficients^{a,b}**

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.	
	Coefficients		Coefficients			
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	Workplace Spirituality	.880	.058	.574	15.106	.000
	Employee Participation	.205	.067	.119	3.061	.002
	Employee Non-monetary Benefits	.313	.067	.146	4.700	.000
	Terms of Employment	.475	.111	.166	4.285	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

The ANOVA test in Table 4.71 shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between all the four independent variables (excluding work-life balance) jointly and organizational commitment.

Table 4.71: F-test for Multiple Regression Model**ANOVA^{a,b}**

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
1	Regression	253018.976	4	63254.744	2586.370	.000 ^c
	Residual	6799.035	278	24.457		
	Total	259818.010 ^d	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

c. Predictors: Terms of Employment, Employee Benefits, Workplace Spirituality, Employee Participation

This implies that the model $Y_1 = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + e$ holds

The optimal model was found to be as follows:

$$Y = 0.880 X_1 + 0.205 X_3 + 0.313 X_4 + 0.475 X_5$$

Where:

Y = Organizational Commitment

X1 = Workplace Spirituality

X3 = Employee Participation

X4 = Employee non-monetary benefits

X₅ = Employee Terms of Employment

From the research findings above, the revised study model is as in Figure 4.12

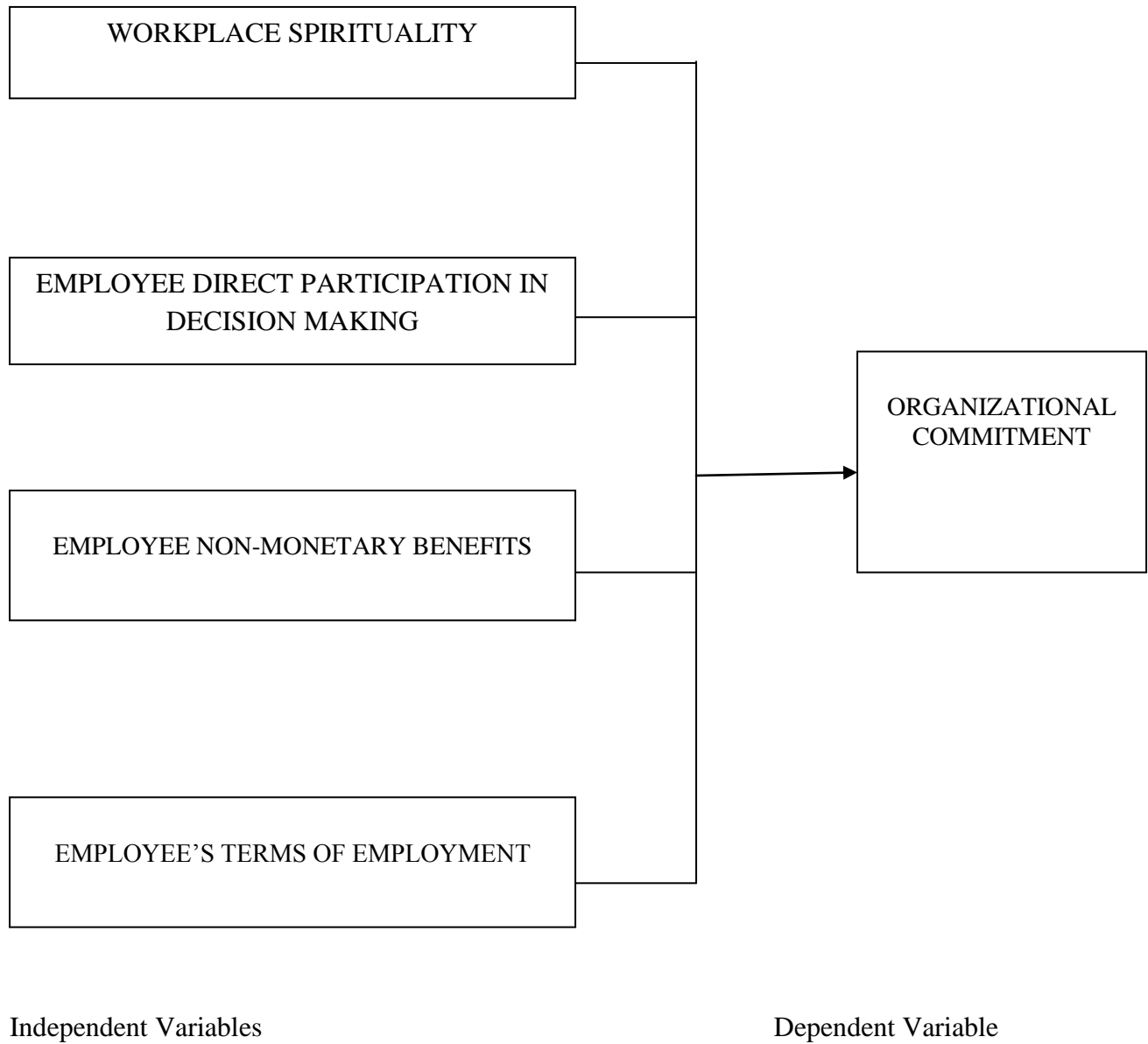


Figure 4.15 Revised Study Model

4.14.2 Optimal Model for the Public University Sector

In order to obtain the optimal model the insignificant variable Terms of Employment was removed. R and R² were retained as 0.986 and 0.973 respectively as shown in table 4.72 below.

The ANOVA test in Table 4.shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and concludes that there is a relationship between all the four independent variables (excluding Terms of Employment) jointly and organizational commitment of the academic staff in the public universities in Kenya.

After excluding the independent variable Terms of Employment, a further test on the beta coefficients of the resulting model shows that Workplace Spirituality, Work-life Balance Practices, Employee Participation, and Employee Benefits had a significant effect on organizational commitment of university academic staff with gradients 1.043, -0.545, 0.376 and 0.586 respectively as shown in the table below.

The proposed model shows that workplace spirituality (Beta =0.666) was the most important in influencing organizational commitment. This was followed by Employee Non-monetary Benefits (Beta=0.295), Employee Participation (Beta=0.213) and finally Work-life Balance at -0.180.

Table 4.72 Optimal Model for the Public University Sector after Dropping Terms of Employment Variable.

Model Summary^c

R	R Square
.986	.973

a. Predictors: Employee Benefits, Employee Participation, Work-life Balance, Workplace Spirituality

b. University's Sector = Public

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	167574.051	4	41893.513	1.489E3	.000 ^a
	Residual	4727.594	168	28.140		
	Total	172301.646 ^b	172			

a. Predictors: Employee Benefits, Employee Participation, Work-life Balance, Workplace Spirituality

b University's Sector = Public

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	Workplace Spirituality	1.043	.093	.666	11.172	.000
	Work-life Balance	-.545	.148	-.180	-3.678	.000
	Employee Participation	.376	.078	.213	4.805	.000
	Employee Benefits	.586	.114	.295	5.153	.000

a. University's Sector = Public

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

This implies that the model for the public universities $Y_1 = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + e$ holds

The optimal model was found to be as follows:

$$Y = 1.043X_1 - 0.545X_2 + 0.376X_3 + 0.586X_4$$

Where:

Y = Organizational Commitment

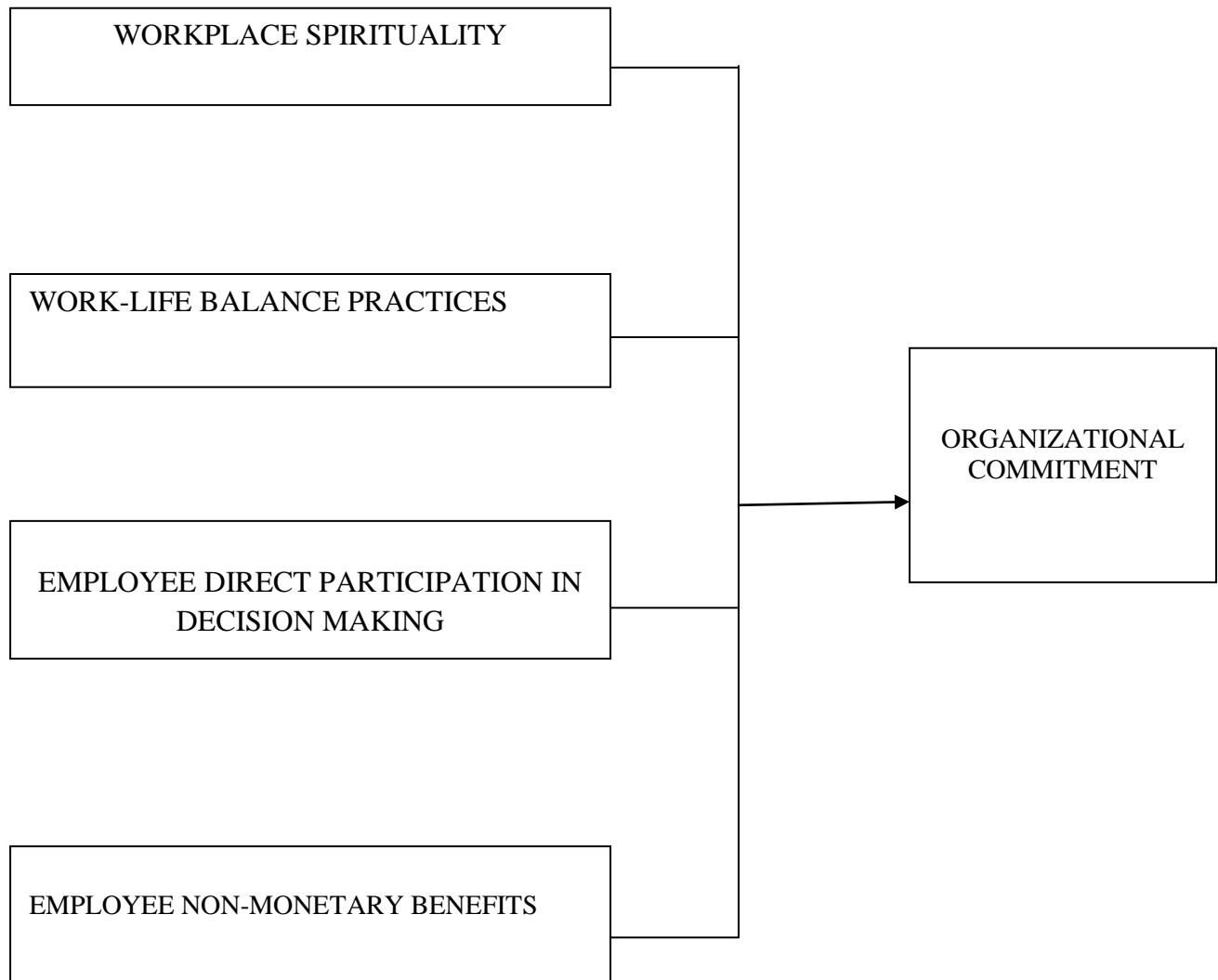
X₁ = Workplace Spirituality

X₂ = Work-life Balance Practices

X₃ = Employee Participation

X₄ = Employee non-monetary benefits

From the research findings above, the revised study model is as in Figure 4.16



Independent variables

Dependent Variable

Figure 4.16 Revised Study Model for Public Universities.

4.14.3 Optimal Model for the Private University Sector

To obtain the optimal model the insignificant variables Employee Participation and Employee benefits were removed. R and R² remained the same as 0.993 and 0.986 respectively slightly higher than those of public university sector.

The ANOVA test in Table 4.shows that the significance of the F-statistic 0.000 is less than 0.05 meaning that null hypothesis is rejected and conclude that there is a relationship between all the three independent variables (excluding Employee Participation and Employee Benefits) jointly and organizational commitment of the academic staff in the private universities in Kenya.

After excluding the independent variables Employee Participation and Employee Benefits, a further test on the beta coefficients of the resulting model shows that Workplace Spirituality, Work-life Balance Practices and Terms of Employment had a significant effect on organizational commitment of university academic staff with gradients 0.848, 0.272, and 0.987 respectively as shown in the table below.

The proposed model shows that workplace spirituality (Beta =0.575) was the most important in influencing organizational commitment. This was followed by Terms of Employment (Beta=0.350) and finally Work-life Balance at 0.087.

Table 4.74 Optimal Model for the Public University Sector after Dropping Terms of Employment Variable.

Model Summary

	R	R Square
	.993	.986

a. Predictors: Terms of Employment, Work-life Balance, Workplace Spirituality

b. University's Sector = Private

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	86324.760	3	28774.920	2.584E3	.000 ^a
	Residual	1191.605	107	11.136		
	Total	87516.365 ^b	110			

a. Predictors: Terms of Employment, Work-life Balance, Workplace Spirituality

b. University's Sector = Private

c. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized		Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	Workplace Spirituality	.848	.050	.575	16.894	.000
	Work-life Balance	.272	.100	.087	2.734	.007
	Terms of Employment	.987	.119	.350	8.299	.000

a. University's Sector = Private

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	Workplace Spirituality	.848	.050	.575	16.894	.000
	Work-life Balance	.272	.100	.087	2.734	.007
	Terms of Employment	.987	.119	.350	8.299	.000

a. University's Sector = Private

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

This implies that the model for the private universities $Y_1 = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_5 X_5 + e$ holds

The optimal model was found to be as follows:

$$Y = 0.848X_1 + 0.272X_2 + 0.987X_5$$

Where:

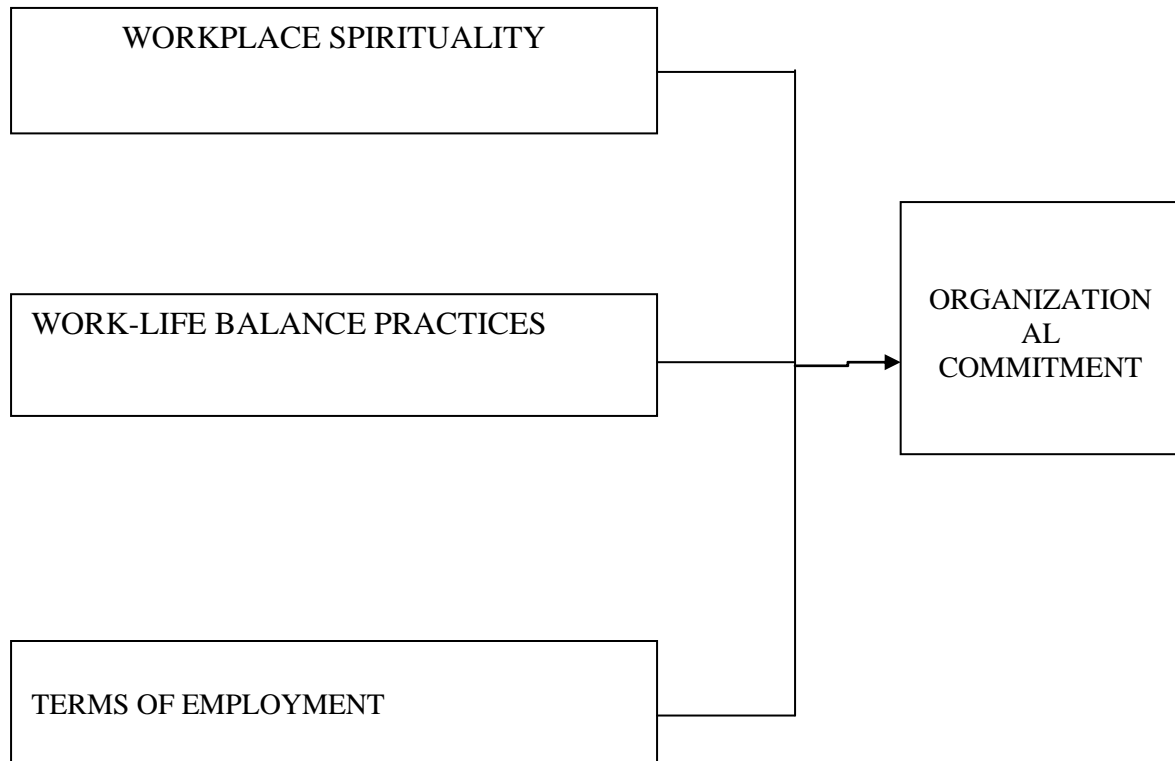
Y = Organizational Commitment

X1 = Workplace Spirituality

X₂ = Work-life Balance Practices

X₅ = Terms of Employment

From the research findings above, the revised study model is as in Figure 4.17



Independent variables

Dependent variable

Figure 4.17 Revised Study Model for Private Universities.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This study sought to investigate the determinants of organizational commitment among the academic staff in the private and public universities in Kenya. Specifically the study dealt with workplace spirituality, work-life balance practices, employee participation in decision making, employee non-monetary benefits and terms of employment. This chapter summarizes the research findings on response rate, the general background information and the statistical analysis. Summary of discussions of specific objectives/research hypothesis has also been done including the assessment of the meaning of the results. The conclusions and recommendations relate directly to the specific research objectives.

5.2 Summary of Findings

Objective 1: To establish the effect of workplace spirituality on organizational commitment of academic staff in the public and private universities in Kenya.

The study established that workplace spirituality has a positive influence on organizational commitment. The findings confirmed that 36.6% of variation in the organizational commitment can be explained by a unit change in workplace spirituality. Comparing the two sectors, public universities' academic staffs were found to have higher levels of workplace spirituality than those from private universities. Among the five independent variables workplace spirituality had the highest mean scores for both sectors.

Spiritual Leadership Model as proposed by Fry (2003) is one of the most widely used models of workplace spirituality. According to this model the goal of spiritual leadership is to develop an organizational vision and values in line with specific strategies, as well as to increase the power of individuals and teams. Those who are in management

position as expected to possess values, attitudes, and behaviors that are necessary to intrinsically motivate an individual's self and even others. Spiritual leaders can increase employee motivation in terms of encouraging employees to live meaningfully and purposefully. When employees feel that their work is meaningful an indicator of workplace spirituality, they become committed to their organization. According to Organizational Support Theory if the employees feel that their emotional needs are met through a spiritual workplace, their Perceived Organizational Support (POS) will increase. POS would create a felt obligation to reciprocate through organizational commitment.

Objective 2: To examine the effect of work-life balance practices available in the public and private universities in Kenya on academic staffs' organizational commitment.

In the second objective the study sought to examine the effect of work-life balance practices on employee organizational commitment. The findings were that the variable work-life balance practices had a weak but positive influence on organizational commitment. It was found that it is only 2.3% change in organizational commitment which could be explained by a unit change in work-life balance practices. When the sectors were separated the study found that work-life balance does not influence organizational commitment of the academic staff in the public universities. For the private universities work-life balance was found to have a weak influence on organizational commitment. Social Exchange Theory suggests that by satisfying important individual needs such as provision of work-life balance practices employees may respond with higher levels of satisfaction and commitment to the organization since according to this theory all human relationships are formed by a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives.

Objective 3: To investigate the effect of employee direct participation in decision making on academic staffs' organizational commitment in the private and public universities in Kenya.

The study sought to investigate the effect of employee direct participation in decision making on academic staffs' organizational commitment. Employee participation in decision making was found to influence organizational commitment. The study established that 19.8% change in organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in employee participation in decision making. There was not much difference in employee participation when the sectors were separated. However mean score for employee participation for the public sector remained higher than that of the private sector. Employee participation was also found to positively influence organizational commitment in both sectors.

When organizations allow their employees to participate in decision making, according the Theory of Psychological Ownership, the employees will regard tangible or intangible targets as an extension of themselves and may produce positive attitudes and stronger organizational commitment. This theory was proposed by Pierce *et al.* (2004).

Objective 4: To evaluate the effect of non-monetary employee benefits adapted by the public and private universities in Kenya on their academic staff organizational commitment

Employee non-monetary benefits were found to influence organizational commitment. The results showed that 25.3% of the corresponding change in organizational commitment can be explained by unit change in employee non-monetary benefits. Descriptive statistics results showed a high difference in mean scores for the public and private sectors. This implied that there was a disparity in the way employee non-monetary benefits were administered in the two sectors. After separating the two sectors, employee non-monetary benefits were found to positively influence organizational commitment of the academic staff in each of the sectors.

Social exchange theory can be used to explain the relationship between employee non-monetary benefits and organizational commitment. Social exchange theory suggests that by satisfying important individual needs such as through employee non-monetary benefits, employees may respond with higher levels of satisfaction and commitment to the organization. They will carry out cost-benefit analysis and if they feel that their relationship with the organization is beneficial they will be attached to their organization.

Objective 5: To determine the effect of academic employee's terms of employment on their organizational commitment in the public and private universities in Kenya

The fifth variable in this study was employees' terms of employment where the study sought to investigate whether it influences organizational commitment. The findings showed that employee terms of employment positively influenced organizational commitment of the academic staff in the public and private universities in Kenya. It was found that 37.4% change of the corresponding change in organizational commitment could be explained by a unit change in employment terms. In descriptive statistics there

was not much difference in the mean scores for the two sectors. However the mean score for public sector was higher than that of the private sector implying that the employment terms among academic staff in public universities may be more favorable than that of their private universities counterparts.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings it was concluded that workplace spirituality is a critical determinant to organizational commitment. Although most recent research on determinants of commitment do not emphasize on the intangible factors, this does not suggest that intangibles, such as workplace spirituality are irrelevant. Workplace spirituality should be embedded to sustain and recognize the spiritual and moral dimensions to work among the universities academics especially those working in private universities. Those organizations that will recognize and value the spiritual dimension to work will provide a more meaningful and humane environment for the academic staff in the universities in Kenya. According to social exchange theory if the employees feel that the environment is meaningful and humane they will feel indebted and reciprocate through organizational commitment.

Pertaining to work-life balance practices the study concluded that these practices are not highly embraced in the universities in Kenya and there exist a weak relationship between this variable and organizational commitment. Apart from existence of home working arrangements and getting opportunities to attend to personal matters the other practices are not popular in the universities in Kenya. Availability of work-life practices may increase positive job-related attitudes such as organizational commitment. Such practices also act as symbols of organizational concern for employees and on the basis of social exchange theory, employees will also reciprocate by showing commitment to the organization. Work-life balance practices will promote employee interest in and obligation to the organization.

The study also found out that most of the academic staffs in the public and private universities in Kenya become committed to their organizations as their level of participation in decision making increases. Employee participation mostly is in the form of delegation of duties, staff meetings with the seniors and problem solving groups. When employees are delegated duties, participate in staff meeting will according to the theory of psychological ownership perceive the organization as an extension of their own. The hypothetical basis of the study was thus ascertained by confirming that employee participation in decision making increases organizational commitment. The study also concluded that employee participation in decision making in private universities in lower than in private universities. This could be attributed to the differing forms of participation available in the different sectors.

Pertaining to employee non-monetary benefits, these benefits were found to have a strong relationship with organizational commitment. In this study paid leave, medical services and retirement were more prevalent in the universities as they are mandatory meaning it's a legal requirement to provide these benefits. Other benefits like, seminar sponsorships, staff educational assistance and employees' children education support were not prevalent since they are not required by law. There is also a high sector difference in the provision of these benefits. The study therefore concluded that employee non-monetary benefits are more popular in public universities in Kenya and less popular in the private universities. The social exchange theory posits that commitment develops as a result of an employee's satisfaction with the rewards and inducements the organization offers, rewards that must be sacrificed if the employee leaves the organization.

Although this research did not compare the permanent and non-permanent terms of employment it was concluded that terms of employment were found to have a strong positive relationship with organizational commitment. The study revealed that the

number of non-permanent staff in the universities in Kenya was high at 42.9%. Considering the fact non-permanent employees do not receive the same kind of benefits (e.g. health insurance, medical assistance, pensions plans) and good working conditions (e.g. job safety, opportunities for training) as their permanent counterparts, one can argue that they are not strongly attached to their organization. Since they are not assured of their job security, non-permanent employees may find it hard to internalize the organizational values, and to demonstrate a strong desire to stay. According to Organizational Support Theory the POS for such a category of employees will be low and such employees are likely to display less organizational commitment.

5.4 Recommendations

The issue of spirituality in the academic workplace is vital since it is from within the higher academic institutions that the leaders of tomorrow emerge. Development of the intellect, emotion, and spirit are crucial to good teaching. This study recommends that university administrators should maintain a spiritual workplace so as to develop a whole person (mind, body, and also spirit). This can be done by ensuring that the work is meaningful and there is a sense of togetherness (for example encouraging teamwork). During recruitment and selection human resource personnel in the universities should ensure employees' values are aligned with organizational values. Strong organizational values will need to be developed to ensure that the values and rights of all employees are respected. Managers of organizations need to be careful when making changes and ensure that these changes do not impact workplace spirituality in a negative way as this will lower the levels of organizational commitment.

Governments need to support and assist universities, companies and other organizations whether public or private to implement and introduce policies for work-life balance. For example, the British Labor government launched a work-life balance campaign in 2000 to encourage employers to introduce flexible working practices to satisfy employees' desires for work-life balance. The Kenyan government can benchmark British

government's practice to encourage Kenyan universities, companies and other organizations to introduce work-life balance programs. The government can also encourage employers to introduce work-life balance strategies by providing incentives to the companies that implement such programs as flexible working time, child care assistance, staff recreational facilities, gender/age related services and compassionate leave arrangements. However this may be a challenge especially for small universities and small and medium enterprises due to lack of funds.

Managements need to increase their interactions with employees in staff meetings and increasing guided discussions of topics related to issues in the organization. Employee suggestion schemes and attitude surveys should be implemented where employees can be interviewed to determine their perceptions of various organizational issues especially those that affect their working life. Effort should be made to increase employee participation especially in the private universities. Employees should be allowed to make contribution in policy development since they play a major role in policy implementation and this among others can increase organizational commitment.

Kenya's universities' management and administrators also should take into consideration type of non- monetary benefits that their employees most prefer at given situations in order to retain employees and indirectly employees will also be more committed to their employer universities. This study found that mandatory benefits are common in the universities unlike other benefits which are not required by law. Governments should make effort to enact laws that will make it compulsory for every employer to provide some form of benefits to their employees especially in the private sector where the application of these benefits is low. Some of the benefits can be in form of favorable retirement plans, educational assistance for the employees and possibly their children.

Pertaining to employee terms of employment this study recommended that universities should come up with policies and strategies to ensure that the high number of non-

permanent employees is reduced. For those that require their staff to have PhD to qualify for permanent employment, such employees should be supported so that they can undertake their courses and join permanent employment.

5.6 Areas for Further Research

This study only investigated the effect of terms of employment on organizational commitment but did not compare the two terms of employment. Further research should compare the level of organizational commitment among permanent and non-permanent employees. Whereas there are so many determinants of organizational commitment, the scope of this study allowed it to be investigated only five of them. Further research should investigate other determinants of organizational commitment.

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APPENDIX 1

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Dear respondent

My name is Lawrence Wainaina a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology school of Human Resource Development. I am pursuing a course in Human Resource Management and thus I am conducting a research on the employee commitment among the academic staff in private and public universities in Kenya. As a teaching staff of the university, you are requested to participate in this study by kindly answering the following questions. The information you provide shall be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used for academic purposes only. You are requested not to indicate your name. Please provide responses to the question in part 1 and 2 of the questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,

Lawrence Wainaina

APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

PART 1: Respondent Background Information

University

Please indicate the name of your University

Gender (a) Male (b) Female

Age (please tick as appropriate)

(a) 18-24 (b) 25-30 (c) 31-36 (d) 37-42
(e) 43-48 (f) 49-54 (g) 55-60 (h) Over 60

Terms of employment a) Permanent b) Non-permanent (contract)

Highest education level a) Degree b) Masters c) PhD

How many years have you worked in this university?

(a) 1-5 (b) 6-10 (c) 16-20
(d) 16-20 (e) 21-25 (f) Over 25

Department.....

Indicate your marital status a) Single b) Married
c) Separated d) Divorced
e) Widowed

PART 2: Section A

1.0 Workplace Spirituality

1.1 Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by placing a *tick* in the column that best reflect your opinion. The statements concern your happiness if you are to spend your career life with your current employer
(**Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD**)

	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
A1	While in this university I experience joy at work.					
A2	In this university work is connected to what I think is important in life.					
A3	As an employee of this university I always look forward to coming to work					
A4	In this university employees are linked with a common purpose					
A5	Working cooperatively with others is valued in this university.					
A6	I believe employees genuinely care about each other in this university					
A7	I feel there is a sense of being a part of a family in this institution.					
A8	I feel positive about the values of this university					
A9	I always feel connected with this University's goals					
A10	This University cares about whether my spirit is energized					

1.2 In your own opinion do you believe that the alignment between your personal values and organizational values can influence your attachment to this university?

a) Yes b) NO

1.3 In your own opinion can sense of community prevailing in this university contribute to your attachment to this Institution? a) Yes b) NO

Section B

2.0 Work-life Practices

2.1 Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning your feeling of emotional attachment to your current employer

(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
B1	As far as I am concerned working hours are flexible in this university					
B2	In this university working hours are convenient to me					
B3	Compressed working days arrangements exists in this university					
B4	At times I can work at home as there exists home working arrangements e. g. on-line teaching, examinations marking & students' marks entry					
B5	I always get opportunity to attend to my personal matters when they arise					
B6	Maternity / Paternity leave schemes exist in this university					

B7	We receive child care assistance in this university (e. g. financial and on-site child care)					
B8	The university provides us with recreational facilities (Gym subsidies and sports facilities)					
B9	As far as am concerned I enjoy some services offered by my employer because of my gender and/or age					
B10	Compassionate leave arrangements exists in this university					

Section C

3.0 Employee Direct Participation in Decision Making

3.1 Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning your happiness if you are to spend your career life with your current employer.

(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
C1	In this university there are meetings between administrators and all staff for whom they are responsible					
C2	There are groups that solve specific problems or discuss aspects or performance in this institution					
C3	Management regularly gives employees information about financial situation of the university					
C4	Committee meetings are held within the organization where as a member I get opportunity to make my					

	contribution					
C5	Quite often there are formal surveys of employees' views or opinions in this university					
C6	There are discussions between management and subordinates on matters concerning the organization					
C7	Quite often I get chances to be delegated duties by my seniors					
C8	When there is a project to be implemented in this university management makes effort to ensure project teams are put in place					
C9	There are joint consultations between management and other staff in the department/university					
C10	Suggestion schemes exist in this university where employees give their views for example suggestion boxes					

Section D

4.0 Employee Non-Monetary Benefits

4.1 Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning your feeling that you want to be identified with this university.

(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
D1	As a member of staff I enjoy a paid leave when I ask for it.					
D2	As a member of staff I get vacations now and then					
D3	The university has favorable retirement plans for me					
D4	The university has favorable Insurance medical plans for me					
D5	I have always received educational assistance from the university when a need arises					
D6	The medical and health services provided by the university to me are favorable					
D7	The university has Insurance medical plans for employees' immediate family members i.e. spouse and children					
D8	Employees enjoy children educational assistance from the university.					

D9	I always get an opportunity to attend seminars and conferences under university sponsorship					
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Section E:

5.0 Employee's Terms of Employment- Permanent/Non-permanent (Contract)

5.1 Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning your employment terms and attachment to this university

(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
E1	In my current employment terms I would be very happy to spend therest of my career with this employer					
E2	In my current employment terms I have an emotional attachment to this Institution					
E3	Even in my current employment terms my self esteem in the job remains high					
E4	As far as my contract terms are concerned, I always feel I want to be identified with my current employer					
E5	In my current employment terms the university is ready to support me in times health and medical need					
E6	Even as a permanent / contract employee the university does not hesitate to support me in times of education need					

E7	As far as my contract terms are concerned, right now, staying with my employer is a matter of necessity.					
E8	Most universities are reluctant to offer employment on permanent terms leaving me with limited options					
E9	My current employment terms do not in any way reduce chances of my promotion					
E10	In my current employment terms the university has really helped me grow financially					

5.2 In your own opinion do you believe that your employment terms (permanent/non-permanent) affect your attachment to this university? Yes

No

Section F

6.0 Employee Organizational Commitment

6.1 Please tick your feelings on the following statements concerning your emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in this university.

(Strongly agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided-U Disagree-D, Strongly disagree-SD)

	Statement	S A	A	U	D	SD
F1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this University					
F2	I feel personally attached to this University					
F3	I feel proud to tell the others that I work at this University					
F4	Working at this University has a great deal of personal meaning to me					
F5	I feel that problems faced by this university are also my problems					

F6	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my job in this university					
F7	Right now, staying with my university is a matter of necessity					
F8	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my university now					
F9	It would be very hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to					
F10	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives					
	Statement	S	A	U	D	SD
		A				
F11	I would feel guilty if I left my university right now					
F12	I would not leave working for my university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it					
F13	I owe a great deal of loyalty to my university considering all it has done for me (e.g. training, medical assistance, promotion etc)					
F14	I believe that this university deserves my loyalty					
F15	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave working in my university right now					

6.2. Highlight some of the contributions made by this university to you such that you feel you have an attachment to it (preferably related to work-life balance, workplace spirituality, employees' participation in decision making, non-monetary benefits and terms of employment)

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

.....**THANK YOU**

APPENDIX 3: LIST OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

1. University of Nairobi (UoN) – established 1970 and chartered 2013
2. Moi University (MU) - established 1984 and chartered 2013
3. Kenyatta University (KU) - established 1985 and chartered 2013
4. Egerton University (EU) - established 1987 and chartered 2013
5. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) - established 1994 and chartered 2013
6. Maseno University (MSU) - established 2001 and chartered 2013
7. MasindeMuliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST) - established 2007 and chartered 2013
8. DedanKimathi University of Technology (DKUT) - 2012
9. Chuka University (CU) – 2013
10. Technical University of Kenya (TUK) - 2013
11. Technical University of Mombasa (TUM) - 2013
12. Pwani University (PU) - 2013
13. Kisii University (EU) - 2013
14. University of Eldoret - 2013
15. Maasai Mara University - 2013
16. JaramogiOgingaOdinga University of Science and Technology - 2013
17. Laikipia University - 2013
18. South Eastern Kenya University – 2013
19. Meru University of Science and Technology – 2013
20. Multimedia University of Kenya - 2013
21. University of Kabianga - 2013
22. Karatina University – 2013

Public University Constituent Colleges

These are established by a Legal Order upon satisfying set minimum standards by the Commission for University Education. These are:

1. Murang'a University College (JKUAT) - 2011
2. Machakos University College (UoN) - 2011
3. The Co-operative University College of Kenya (JKUAT) - 2011
4. Embu University College (UoN) - 2011
5. Kirinyaga University College (KU) - 2011
6. Rongo University College (MU) - 2011
7. Kibabii University College (MMUST) - 2011
8. Garissa University College (EU) - 2011
9. TaitaTaveta University College (JKUAT) – 2011

Source: Commission for University Education 2013

APPENDIX 4: LIST OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

Chartered Private Universities

1. University of Eastern Africa, Baraton - 1991
2. Catholic University of Eastern Africa - 1992
3. Scott Theological College - 1992
4. Daystar University - 1994
5. United States International University - 1999
6. Africa Nazarene University - 2002
7. Kenya Methodist University - 2006
8. St. Paul's University - 2007
9. Pan Africa Christian University - 2008
10. Strathmore University - 2008
11. Kabarak University - 2008
12. Mount Kenya University - 2011
13. Africa International University - 2011
14. Kenya Highlands Evangelical University - 2011
15. Great Lakes University of Kisumu (GLUK) - 2012
16. KCA University, 2013
17. Adventist University of Africa, 2013

Universities with Letter of Interim Authority (LIA)

1. Kiriri Women's University of Science and Technology -2002
2. Aga Khan University - 2002
3. Gretsia University - 2006
4. Presbyterian University of East Africa - 2008
5. Inoorero University - 2009
6. The East African University - 2009
7. GENCO University - 2010

8. Management University of Africa - 2011
9. Riara University - 2012
10. Pioneer International University - 2012

Source: Commission for University Education 2013

APPENDIX 5: UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA BY 2014 UNIVERSITY WEB

RANKING

University

Location

1 University of Nairobi	Nairobi
2 Moi University	Eldoret
3 Strathmore University	Nairobi
4 Kenyatta University	Nairobi
5 United States International University	Nairobi
6 Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	Nairobi
7 Mount Kenya University	Thika
8 Catholic University of Eastern Africa	Nairobi
9 Egerton University	Njoro
10 Maseno University	Maseno
11 Kenya Methodist University	Meru
12 University of Eastern Africa, Baraton	Eldoret
13 Africa Nazarene University	Nairobi
14 Technical University of Kenya	Nairobi
15 Daystar University	Nairobi
16 MasindeMuliro University of Science and Technology	Kakamega
17 KCA University	Nairobi
18 Technical University of Mombasa	Mombasa
19 Multimedia University of Kenya	Nairobi
20 JaramogiOgingaOdinga University of Science and Technology	Bondo
21 DedanKimathi University of Technology	Nyeri
22 Africa International University	Nairobi
23 Kiriri Women's University of Science and Technology	Nairobi

24 Inoorero University	Nairobi
25 Kabarak University	Nakuru
26 Pan Africa Christian University	Nairobi
27 Kisii University	Kisii
28 Pwani University	Kilifi
29 The Presbyterian University of East Africa	Kikuyu
30 Adventist University of Africa	Nairobi
31 Laikipia University	Nyahururu
32 Management University of Africa	Nairobi
33 St. Paul's University	Limuru
34 Greta University	Thika
35 University of Eldoret	Eldoret
36 Meru University of Science and Technology	Meru
37 Great Lakes University of Kisumu	Kisumu
38 University of Kabianga	Kericho
39 Karatina University	Karatina
40 Chuka University	Chuka
41 The East African University	Nairobi
42 Maasai Mara University	Narok
43 Kenya Highlands Evangelical University	Kericho
44 South Eastern Kenya University	Kitui

Source: Webometric Ranking of World Universities 2014

APPENDIX 6: TABLE FOR DETERMINING SAMPLE SIZE

Population	Sample Size
100	30
200	132
300	169
400	196
500	218
600	235
700	249
800	260
900	270
1000	278
1500	306
2000	323
4000	351
6000	362
8000	367
10000	370

Table developed by Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgirs (2001)