INFLUENCE OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT IN THE BANKING SECTOR IN KENYA

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Influence of Diversity Management Practices on Employee Commitment in the Banking Sector in Kenya

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

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research work to my late grandmother Mellisa Omukenya for the living and toiling for me at my tender age, my father Yonah Wycliffe Amuhoyi Eshiteti, from whom I have learned lessons larger than my life; to my wife Leah Patricia Musita for the support she has accorded in my entire postgraduate life; and to my daughters Diana Mitchelle, Alice Natasha and Christine Leonida and son Jonah Patrick Eshiteti, for bringing joy into my life.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS   Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

BLS   Bureau of Labour Statistics

CBK   Central Bank of Kenya

EEO   Equal Employment opportunities

EU   European Union

HIV   Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus

HR   Human Resource

HRDM   Human Resource Diversity Management

IT   Information Technology

KHRC   Kenya Human Rights Commission

LGBT   Lesbianism, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender

NCIC   National Cohesion and Integration Commission

NCPWD   National Council of Persons with Disabilities

NESB   Non-English Speaking Background

NGEC   National Gender and Equality Commission

OS   Organizational Support

OST   Open Systems Theory

POS   Perceived Organizational Support

PWD   People with Disability

UK   United Kingdom

USA   United States of America

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Building Cultural Awareness It is the cultural influence on one's thoughts, knowledge, skills, perspectives, beliefs and behaviours and how employees understand the behaviours of those from different cultural backgrounds that are different from their own (Patrick & Kumar, 2012). This study defined Building Cultural Awareness in terms of minimizing miscommunications and the building of relationships with diverse others.

Diversity Management Practices these are formalized practices intended to enhance stakeholder diversity, create a positive working relationship and gain value from the diverse workforce (Yang & Konrad, 2011). This study defined diversity management practices in terms of diversity training, diversity reward, building of cultural awareness and diversity networking within the organization.

Diversity Networking It is the dynamic socio-political actions of building, maintaining and using work relations for personal, career and organizational benefits (Yin-Mei, 2016). This study looked at it from the encouragement of support groups as well as joining of social groupings.

Diversity Reward It is the rewards articulated extrinsically or intrinsically on the principles of fairness and equity, and guided consistently with the values of the organization (D'Netto, Shen, Chelliah, & Monga, 2014). Accordingly, diversity reward was measured in terms

of performance based and individual based rewards ag given to individual employees.

Diversity Training	Is the systematic process that involves educating the workforce about their cultural, racial or ethnic, socio-economic and religious differences within the employment fraternity (Babalola & Margues, 2013). It was defined in terms of attitudinal change training and effectiveness of diversity training programs.
Employee Commitment	Is a mental bond between the employee and the organization and a strength that is contingent on a certain degree of employee involvement, employee loyalty and belief in the value of the organization (Meyer, Stanley & Parfyonavo, 2012). This study adopted Allen and Meyer's (1993) three constructs of employee commitment of affective, continuance and normative commitment.
Organizational Support	It is the tendency to have a general feeling of being supported across many circumstances by either the organization or its agents (Asya, 2011). For this study, Organizational support was looked at in terms of personal focused support and task focused support (Eisenberger, Shoss, Karagonlar, Gonzalez-Morales, Wickham & Buffardi, 2013).

ABSTRACT

Employee commitment in commercial banks in Kenya arising out of many cases of discrimination and exclusion has been reported in a number of research studies. Nonetheless, promoting diversity management practices which would address this anomaly in these institutions is still very low. On the other hand, most of the existing empirical studies in this area have been conducted in the western countries. Further, there is inadequate research about the relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment and the moderating influence of organizational support on this relationship in Kenyan banks. Thus, the main objective of this study was to investigate the influence of diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Specific objectives were to: establish whether diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking tend to influence employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya; and to investigate the moderating influence of organizational support on the relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment. The research study adopted descriptive survey research design, with a target population comprising 36,212 employees working in the 43 commercial banks in which a sample size of 384 respondents was drawn classified in three strata: top management, supervisory, and general staff. Sampling was done by stratified and simple random techniques. Data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire. The study also used descriptive and inferential statistics in the analysis of the data. Demographic data was analysed by using frequency distributions and Percentages with the results presented in charts and tables. Inferential statistics were obtained by carrying out correlations analysis, bivariate, multiple, hierarchical and step-wise regressions analyses, to test for the degree of association (correlations) between the variable pairs and their influence on employee commitment. The findings indicated that each of the diversity management practices had a significant influence on employee commitment. It was further revealed that organizational support has a significant moderating influence on the relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment when the four predictor variables were measured jointly. From these findings, a conclusion was drawn that diversity management practices are closely associated with employee commitment and that organization support moderates the relationship between the two. Therefore, the study recommended that the management of banks should adopt policies that take into account issues of diversity in training, cultural awareness, equitable compensation and reward systems that articulate the principle of fairness and equity, allow employee participation and networking as they offer their own support to all employees without discrimination.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with introduction of the study in view of the relevant predictor, moderator and the predicted variables. It commenced by exploring the background information about the topic of study, statement of the problem, the objectives and hypotheses, significance, scope and limitations encountered in the course of carrying out this survey.

1.1 Background

Waned employee commitment to the organization is always characterized by practical failure to manage HR outcomes such as increased turnover (Meyer, Stanley & Parfyonavo, 2012), a dissatisfied workforce (Aladwan, Bhanugopan & D'Netto, 2015) and a decreased productivity among employees (Kyambi, 2015). However, globalization has led to the concept of mobile and diverse workforce, which has prompted organizations and managers within the Human Resource departments to pay more attention on how the management of such workforce can improve employee commitment (Ahmed & Bukth, 2019; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Derven, 2014; Ifedapo, 2010; Ollapally & Bhatnagar, 2009). According to Kundu (2016); Gupta (2013) the failure to manage diversity among employees can lead to a direct decline in their commitment. Nonetheless, the debate on the net value of HR diversity will no doubt continue, although there can be no debate about the importance of effectively managing it (Kundu & Mor, 2017; Katerina, Karen & Chester, 2012).

However, banks in Kenya have seen a constant turnover among some members of their workforce to less lucrative jobs such teaching. This turnover has been attributed to the challenge of failing to use HR diversity management practices effectively (Gokulsing & Tandrayen-Ragoobur, 2014). For instance, employed women and other minority groups have reported inequitable workplace experiences among other outcomes (Aydemir & Skuterud, 2008) which is critical for any organization that

may want to enhance its employees' commitment. Globally, women representation at the executive's position at the Fortune 500 companies has stagnated at 14.5% since 2010 (Martin Alcazar, Romero Fernandez & Sanchez Gurdey, 2013). Similarly, there is a stark lack of HR diversity in corporate boardrooms since minority groups get less involved in leadership decisions despite the constitutional requirement for inclusiveness (Onyango, 2015; Government of Kenya, 2010). All these express reasons for the decline in employee commitment. Academically, this area has also remained beset with problems of inadequacy especially from the banking sector in Kenya.

Furthermore, evidence from the global and national talent indicate that Kenya and many other nations, are still looking for a diverse workforce to fill the skills gaps in some of the labour market areas (Kinyanjui, 2013; Yap, Holmes, Hannan & Wendy, 2010). As a result, business environments and some leadership in governments have argued for increased workforce diversity at the workplace, with some of them supporting diversity regulations that can compel firms to do so (Jin, Lee & Lee, 2017). Arising from this argument, some employers have developed practices such as diversity training, diversity networking, and building cultural awareness (Rumana & Mutuku, 2017; Madera, 2013; Yap *et al*., 2010) and diversity reward (Nazir *et al.,* 2016; Miao, Newman, Sun & Xu, 2013) to enhance effective the management of the modern-day diverse workforce (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; D'Netto, Shen, Chelliah & Monga, 2014) and further enhance their commitment to the organization (Chang, Nguyen, Cheng, Kuo & Lee, 2016). According to Robertson, Kulik and Tan (2013), close to 67% of organizations in USA have been reported to have the implementation of diversity training on course. Howver, there is no adequate literature to determine how this training can be most beneficial to the said organizations (Kalinoski, Debra, Peyton, Leas, Steinke & Bowling, 2013).

Building cultural awareness promotes cultural diversity in HR and strengthens employees' ability to communicate with a wide span of people (Rumana & Mutuku, 2017; Madera, 2013). Consequently, through building cultural awareness, Marriott International company help employees to gain competencies that enable them to

work effectively with peers and customers from diverse cultures. Diversity reward makes sure that there is equity in pay and that a rewarding procedure is done in an equitable manner (D'Netto *et al.,* 2014) since inequality is a major cause of reduced employee commitment (Shen, Chanda, D'Netto & Monga, 2009). However, some researchers have also indicated that organizational support has a significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and HR outcomes such as employee commitment (Won-Moo, Su-Jin, Jeong-Ju, & Yae-Won, 2015; Eisenberger, Shoss, Karagonlar, Gonzalez-Morales, Wickham & Buffardi, 2013). Nonetheless, employees can also directly reciprocate to the extent of perceived commitment to the organizational support received, such that the higher the organizational support received, the higher the employee commitment to the organization (Ahmed, Nawaz, Ali & Islam, 2015).

1.1.1 A Global Perspective on Diversity Management Practices

The business trends of globalization and increasing diversity have turned the attention of world managers to employee commitment through the management of diversity by use of proper and fair reward systems (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013; Babalola & Margues, 2013). Global statistics indicate that blacks and minority ethnic groups in the United Kingdom (UK), make up 12.4% of the working population, yet they still only add up to less than 5% of top managers (Steward, 2016). In addition, the gap between blacks and ethnic minority in non-management roles has also widened from 1.1% to 4% as from 2006 to 2013 (Wyatt & Sylvester, 2015). Furthermore, the general rate of employment is higher for the white persons at 13.6% gap than that for the ethnic minorities across the country (UK's Inequality Audit report, 2017). This indicates a lack of diversity practices or probably a sheer failure by the firm to employ them.

In the United Arab Emirates, the workplace is a prime example of cultural diversity at both public and private firms (Bakr, Forstenlecher & Al-Nakeeb, 2009). However, the employment practice on the ground is characterized by clear disparities between groups. For instance, the average pay for Emiratis in all sectors is three times more than that of an expatriate, while in disciplinary measures, there is little job security

for expatriates as compared to Emiratis (Forstenlechner, 2009; Bakr *et al*., 2009). In the Australian Service sector, employment of Indigenous Australians and people with disability have declined steadily from 2.7% to 2.1% and from 4.0% to 3.0% respectively, since 2002 (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2013). Nevertheless, diversity management is neither well understood nor appreciated in many organizations in Australia (Davis *et al.,* 2016). In addition, firms have failed to prioritize diversity management practices with most managers only giving the concept a tentative engagement.

Consequently, the representation of Australian people from the Non-English Speaking Background (NESB) has increased slightly (4.5 to 5.1%) over the stated period. Additionally, equity and diversity statistics denote that Indigenous Australians, people with disability and NESB representation is 1.1%, 3.2% and 7.8% respectively (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2013). In United States of America (USA), the human resource is more diverse with 36% as people of color, 64% non-Hispanic white, 16% Hispanic, 12%, African-American; and 5% those of the Asian origin (Bureau of Labour statistics, 2014). Nonetheless, People with Disability's (PWD) talents are being under-utilized despite their contribution to the economy (US Census Bureau of statistics, 2012). For instance, about 11% Americans have a disability, yet, only 21% of the 11% are in the labour force.

Although Asian countries have made huge economic strides, their women and other minority groups have not gained sufficient attention (Yonjoo, Gary, Iratrachar, Wei-Wen, Gertrude, Mayuko, Lee, Li, Nisha, Jamilah & Siti, 2015). The inequality in gender and race, coupled with the under-utilization of female talent are widely spread and deeply rooted in many Asian parts. Further, Japan and Korea are lagging in matters to do with effective HR diversity management, with minority representation at the top management standing at 20% for Japan and 0% for North Korea (Yonjoo *et al.,* 2015; Magosh & Chang, 2009). In addition, the glass ceiling also occurs at the middle level management, affecting both women and other minority groups. In china, organizations don't look at HR diversity management as an issue of concern; rather they tend to focus their attention on the conflict avoidance and not the addition

of value to the business (Cook & Saini, 2012). In comparison, the management of HR diversity in India is of greater importance to the organizations since managers are more familiar and articulate the idea of HR diversity in their own firms.

1.1.2 HR Diversity Management from a Regional Perspective

Regionally, the concept of HR diversity management has attracted a lot of attention from managers of most organizations in African. This is because many of the employment practices in many organizations in Africa, is informed by sectarian considerations such as ethnic, cultural or sexual orientations (Kinyanjui, 2014; Munjuri & Maina, 2013; Yap *et al.*, 2010). On paper, diversity management in Africa seem to have been embraced by the South Africa government after having emerged from a unique apartheid system with the laying down of equity policies in the constitution in 1998 (Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Tshikwatamba, 2003). Nonetheless, even with the advent of a democratic order in South Africa, this has not changed the workplace much, which is still characterized by many discrimination and inequality instances (Kyambi, 2015; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Ifedapo, 2010) and hence, a decline in employee commitment in many firms.

Therefore, most organizations in Africa, still grapple with the challenges of reduced productivity among employees, decline in job satisfaction, and low employee commitment (Munjuri & Maina, 2013; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Kwame, 2012). However, the discourse about HR diversity management is mainly grounded on the social identity and the social exchange theories (Akobo & Osikwemhe, 2018; Bereketeab, 2011). For instance, Kamoche, Chizema, Mellahi, and Newenham-Kahindi (2012) noted that the multicultural nature of Human Resources in African corporates' creates the tendency for the individual employees to relate with those of the same cultural background, those that they can identify with. In the Ghanian corporate sector, the structural and management plan of human resources is strongly influenced by the socio-cultural paradigms (Akobo & Osikwemhe, 2018; Sackey, Boahemaa, & Sanda, 2011), a paradigm that seems to suggest that women are the greatest supporters of their male counter parts (Akobo, 2016). In Eritrea, the political parties tend to influence the nature and state of gender and class in employment

(Akobo & Osikwemhe, 2018; Tessema & Soeters, 2006). This tends to affects employee commitment and performance in many organizations. For instance, gender, age, class, or political views, instead of merit or experience, usually influence the promotions at the workplaces in Eritrea.

1.1.3 HR Diversity Management Practices in Kenya

According to the Constitution of Kenya 2010 (Government of Kenya, 2010), women, youth, persons with disabilities and ethnic minorities are recognized as special groups that deserve to be protected by the constitution at all places including the workplace. Similarly, HR diversity at the workplace is a result of parliamentary acts and civil rights laws that help guide effective HR diversity management. Important laws that deal with workplace discrimination, exclusion, and prejudice include: Employment Act 2007, Labour Relations Act 2007, Persons with Disabilities Act 2003 and the Sexual Offenses Act 2006 (Government of Kenya, 2010). On the international scene, Kenya has ratified major international rights instruments (Kenya Human Rights Commission, 2010). Of relevance to this study are: the convention on elimination of all forms of discrimination against women of 1976 and ratified by Kenya in 1984, the convention on elimination of all forms of racial discrimination of 1965, signed by Kenya in 2001 and the most recent being the convention on the rights of persons with disabilities of 2006 as ratified in 2008. In the same breadth, Kenya has also adopted some International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions that govern discrimination in employment such as the equal remuneration convention.

Through Acts of parliament, Kenya established some regulations to discourage all forms of discrimination and promote HR diversity in all sectors (The Government of Kenya, 2010). For instance, Persons with Disability Act prohibits discrimination of employees by both public and private employers. To prohibit discrimination based on one's perceived, suspected or actual HIV status, the HIV and AIDS Prevention and Control Act 2006 was enacted (HIV and AIDS Prevention and Control Act, 2006). The National Cohesion and Integration Commission (NCIC) was inaugurated through the NCIC Act of 2008 to obligate all public establishments to ensure

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representation of Kenya's diversity by having not more than two-third of staff from the same ethnic or gender group.

However, KHRC (2010) pointed out that despite these provisions; their actual achievement on the ground is below expectation, especially when it comes to the instantaneous implementation of some international obligations. Notable among them is the fact that Kenya has not signed the optional protocol to the convention on elimination of discrimination against women (CEDAW), which recognizes the committee's competence to hear an individual's complaint or institute investigations into breaches to the convention. Similarly, there has been a delay of many reforms required to bring Kenya's domestic law into line with its international obligations (KHRC, 2010). Consequently, HR diversity at workplaces is replete with inconsistencies of both positive and negative influences (National Gender and Equality Commission, 2016; Munjuri & Maina, 2013).

Nonetheless, the essence of HR diversity in the Kenyan service sector cannot be gainsaid. According to Article 232 of the constitution of Kenya, to afford adequate and equal opportunities for the appointment, training, and advancement of employees from all backgrounds at all levels is very important (NCIC, 2016). Accordingly, Section 7(1) of the NCIC Act demands that, ''all workplace establishments shall seek to represent the diversity of people of Kenya in the employment of staff''. According to Green and Kelly (2002), diverse workforce tends to improve its productivity and the competitive advantage of the firm out of the symbiosis of creativity, new ways of thinking and strategic as well as innovative delivery.

1.1.4 HR Diversity Management in the Commercial Banks in Kenya

Banks in Kenya carry out the business of risk, since globalization has led to a huge change in the operation of the banking sector. As a results of globalization, accompanied by other factors, commercial banks have faced many challenges such as being placed under receivership or statutory management for some players (Central Bank of Kenya, 2015). On the contrary, the sector has remained a major contributor to the growth of other sectors (CBK, 2016). Commercial banks in Kenya,

employ up to 25.0 % of the labour force and contribute up to 16.3 % of the gross domestic product (Waigajo, Elegwa & Kahiri, 2012). As at December 2016, 36,212 people were employees of the sector, with over 35 million depositors benefiting from their services (CBK, 2015). Furthermore, commercial banks in Kenya have grown exponentially across the East and Central Africa (Kyalo & Gachunga, 2015), enabling the growth of the staff membership beyond one nationality and cultural background (CBK, 2015).

However, to increase on employee commitment, each bank must manage its HR diversity effectively (Munjuri & Maina, 2013). Taking the que, Equity Bank avails financial services that are modern and inclusive and which maximize opportunities for all employees (Gacheri, 2012). Nonetheless, this just remains an effort and the company tends to focus more on the profit margins. Accordingly, Barclays bank treats its employees fairly to enable them contribute fully to the vision and goals of the bank (Barclays Bank's annual report, 2014). Subsequently, the global pillars of gender, multiculturalism, Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) and disability tend to help the bank catering for all without discrimination. Standard Chartered Bank prides itself in its ability to manage HR diversity more effectively by believing in equal representation of talent at all levels (Standard Chartered Bank's Diversity management report, 2017). Accordingly, 25.7 per cent of the bank's top management is comprised of women and other minority groups. The report further asserts that Standard Chartered bank uses its diversity in HR to craft innovative services and products. However, excluding certain groups from spheres of influence usually prevents them to fully contribute to and benefit from the innovative activities of the firm (Raza & Tariq, 2016), which may just be the reason for the implementation of HR diversity management practices in many organizations.

1.1.5 Employee Commitment

Employee commitment is a very critical factor when it comes to improved productivity and performance of any organization, commercial banks included (Mukanzi, Gachunga, Ngungi & Kihoro, 2014; Padala, 2011). As a defining factor, employee commitment shapes how human resources are managed in organizations. It

is seen from a psychological mind set which is typified by the relationship between the employee and the employer or organization, with the consequence on the part of the employee to either continue or discontinue his or her service (Mukanzi *et al.*, 2014; Wekesa, Namusonge & Iravo, 2013; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Many studies have shown that there exists a relationship between Human Resource diversity management and employee commitment (Rumana & Mutuku, 2017; Ashikali & Groenveld, 2015; Kyambi, 2015; Yap *et al.*, 2010), although a majority of these researches have focused on the dimension of Human Resource diversity such as age, gender, ethnicity and culture among many others (Rumana & Mutuku, 2017; Munjuri & Maina, 2013). On the other hand, employee commitment has been categorized into the affective, continuance and normative dimensions (Meyer & Allen, 1991) as adopted by the research study. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment of an employee to his or her organization (Mukanzi *et al.*, 2014; Kaur Sahi & Mahajan, 2014; Meyer & Allen 1991). As a dimension, affective commitment has been positively linked to HR diversity management through the social identity and the social exchange theories (Cropanzone *et al.*, 2017; Madera, Dawson & Guchait, 2016; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012; Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

Continuance commitment has been defined as the discernments of the employee of the costs accompanying the leaving of the company (Meyer, Stanley & Parfyonavo, 2012; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen 1993). According to Meyer *et al.* (2012), many researches have indicated that employees who exhibit continuance commitment to the organization tend to perform poorly, have more dysfunctional behaviours and show less organizational citizenship behaviours. This dimension, has positively been linked to HR diversity management through the institutionalization, social identity and the open systems theories (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Emery, 2004; DiMaggio & Powell, 1991).

Normative commitment is the feeling of obligation by the employee to continue working for the organization because it is the right thing to do (Wekesa *et al.,* 2013; Jønsson & Jeppesen, 2012; Meyer *et al.*, 2012). Mukanzi *et al.* (2014); Meyer and

Allen (1991), observed that normative commitment can be developed through conditioning in areas such as rewarding of employees, cultural imitations and learning. Kundu (2016) suggested that by providing diversity rewards and trainings to employees, obligates them to repay the benefit through commitment to the organization. This means that the provision of these benefits strengthens the psychological contract between the employee and employer. Similarly, this dimension, has positively been linked to HR diversity management through the equity theory and the social exchange theory (Cropanzone *et al.*, 2017; Kundu, 2016; Madera, Dawson & Guchait, 2016; Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Day, Holladay, Johnson & Barron, 2014; Newman & Sheikh, 2012; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Employee commitment in commercial banks is hampered due to exhaustion and fatigue due to the long hours of work (Mukanzi *et al.,* 2014; International Labour Organization's report, 2010). As a result of the reduced commitment, commercial banks in Kenya are slowly witnessing an increased rate of employee turnover to less lucrative jobs such as teaching (Omollo & Oloko, 2015). Muli (2014); Gitonga, Kamara and Orwa, (2014); Kyambi (2015) all have concurred by indicating that employee commitment in commercial banks has remained very low due to constant cases of discrimination and exclusion. The Salaries and Remuneration Commission report (2017); Rumana and Mutuku (2017); NGEC (2016) and Ngingi (2016) have also argued that the decline in employee commitment in commercial banks, can be attributed to many cases of wage differentials, while Tandrayen-Ragoobur and Pydayya (2016); Omollo and Oloko (2015); Gokulsing and Tandrayen-Ragoobur (2014) have intimated that the decline is because of the intentional discrimination towards part of the workforce to the extent of failing to give them pay rises and promotions and the feelings of unfair treatment by a section of employees which easily deprive banks of alternative views through the loss of skills, knowledge and experience. Hitherto, the scope to which diversity training, diversity reward, cultural diversity awareness and employee networking tend to positively influence employee

commitment, has been documented in various researches (Kundu & Mor, 2017; Kundu, 2016; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Madera, 2013). Similarly, Kyambi, (2015); Kamoche, Siebers, Mamman and Newenham-Kahindi, (2015) have also noted that, clear diversity practices can help build a favourable employees' wellbeing and improved commitment to the organization.

However, from a statistical perspective, the average workers in commercial banks in Kenya, are changing jobs more than ten times in their work lives (Kyalo & Gachuga, 2015; Obiero, 2014; Yego, 2010). Accordingly, Obiero (2014) asserted that commercial banks have experienced a sizeable human capital flight in spite of the growth in profitability. In terms of participation, only 29 per cent of jobs in commercial banks are held by women and less than 10 per cent by minority groups such as ethnic minority, those with disabilities (Ngingi, 2016) and the LGBT albeit not openly declared (Fullerton, 2013). Further, male employees in commercial banks earn a large premium over their female counterparts (Mwaura, 2010) with many excluded from decision making processes. Consequently, women and other minority groups find their bargaining position extremely weakened (Ugarte, 2017).

Empirical studies have been carried out on HR diversity in developed countries such as USA (Jin *et al.,* 2017; Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017; Peretz, Levi & Yitzhak, 2015), Australia (Davies *et al*., 2016; D'Netto *et al*., 2014) and UK (Steward, 2016; Wyatt & Sylvester, 2015) while others have also been carried out in Kenya (Kyalo & Gachunga, 2015; Ngui, Elegwa & Gachunga, 2014; Kinyanjui, 2013). However, many of them focus on how diversity dimensions such as age, ethnicity, gender among others affect HR outcomes like performance (Rumana & Mutuku, 2017; Jin *et al.,* 2017; Gitonga *et al*., 2014) but they have inadequately addressed the gap between diversity practices and employee commitment besides the moderating influence of organizational support on the relationship. Therefore, there is a significant gap between diversity practices' scholarship and their influence on HR outcomes (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017) such as the commitment of employees in commercial banks in Kenya.

1.3 Research Objectives

This study was guided by the general and the specific objectives.

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to investigate the influence of diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

This study was guided by the following specific objectives.

1) To establish the influence of diversity training on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.
2) To determine the influence of diversity reward on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.
3) To determine the influence of building cultural awareness on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.
4) To find out the influence of diversity networking on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.
5) To investigate the moderating influence of organizational support on the relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

From the five objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated for testing later on in the study:

H_{01}: Diversity training has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

H_{02}: Diversity reward has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

H$_{03}$: Building cultural awareness has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

H$_{04}$: Diversity networking has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

H$_{05}$: Organizational support has no significant moderating influence on the relationship between Human Resource diversity management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

1.5 Significance of the Study

There is an increase in heterogeneity among employees in banks and hence an increased challenge in managing HR diversity (Ngui *et al.,* 2014). Effective diversity management of employees play a major role in enhancing their commitment to the organization. Findings of this study will be very useful to commercial banks in increasing the commitment of employees and hence reduce the costs associated with fresh recruitment. The same findings will act as a reference point for the public as well as company's policy on the effective management of Human Resources.

In addition, this study's findings and recommendations would be of great use to the practicing C.E. Os, HR managers and other administrators in articulating strategies that are deliberate and targeted to enhance opportunities for all and help address some of the challenges in diversity rewards, diversity training, employee networking and cultural diversity awareness. Such information would be useful to all stakeholders in the sector, policy makers in finance, HRM, employee unions, government and other researchers in the same field. In addition, findings of the study could enhance interpersonal relationships, mutual understanding and acceptance of each other without regard to the demographic differences.

Policy makers in commercial banks may also be beneficiaries since, the findings could help them understand the prevailing scenario in terms of workforce diversity practices and how best they could apply them for increased performance and commitment in their organizations. Similarly, these policy makers may also make

comparisons about HR diversity practices between their own organizations and their market competitors. In addition, the Government of Kenya, as the largest employer, could apply the findings in its public service workplace. Future scholars could also use the findings to expand the body of knowledge in the management of workforce diversity and employee commitment. Such findings may inspire and provide ground for further research in the same area.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study was conducted in 43 commercial Banks that were licenced by the CBK (CBK, 2015) from the western Kenyan counties of Kisumu, Kakamega, Busia, Vihiga and Bungoma. Western part of Kenya stretches from the county of Kisii to the county of Busia bordering the neighbouring Uganda (7 counties). Therefore, the region is large enough with all banks represented and so is the diversity in human resources. Accordingly, 40 banks were privately owned while the government had control stakes in the remaining 3. Of the 40, one bank was under statutory management at the time of this study while another was undergoing receivership (CBK, 2016). However, the questionnaire was administered to the top management, supervisory and the lower cadre staff who included tellers and secretaries with a sample target of 384 respondents from a target population of 36, 212 employees in the commercial banks. The study focused strictly on the influence of diversity management practices on employee commitment and the moderating influence of organization support on the relationship between these variables. In addition, this study was conducted between the months of August 2016 and November 2016 and its cost remained within the budget set.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

Several limitations were experienced in the course of conducting the study. The fact that all the data was collected by use of self-report questionnaires created some challenges. For instance, the measurement relied more on the responses given and did not seek to get the real actions in management of HR diversity on the ground. Additionally, most of the measures used in the study were of the likert scales which

were likely to create a mono method bias challenge, a great threat to validity. The problem with collecting much data using the same method and/or type of scale is that the findings can then be attributed to individuals' tendencies to respond to similar types of measures in similar ways. While this bias might have been a threat, it is unlikely to have been serious since validity to the questions asked was ensured by establishing a chain of evidence from all level of employees, selecting and adapting questionnaire items from previous relevant researches, and referring the research instrument to professional judgment for checking as to whether it measured the claimed measure.

In addition, banks are very busy work places, with many customers waiting to be served all the time. Banking halls in such banks as Equity, Cooperative and Kenya Commercial Bank were always fully packed most of the days. Thus, the data collection process was slowed down, while some of the potential respondents declined to fill the questionnaire because of the time constraints on their part. As a remedy to this, the researcher self-administered more questionnaires (400) than the sample size (384) indicated in excess of 16 questionnaires to take care of the unreturned ones. In addition, some respondents and particularly those in the lower cadre seemed to have their own reservations about giving unreserved information for fear of intimidation by their superiors and at times, referring the researcher to the head office for permission. Nonetheless, the study endeavored to establish a rapport with all respondents by assuring them of the confidentiality of information given. Furthermore, this study focused on diversity management practices and whether they have any significant influence on employee commitment. As such it did not address itself to the possibility that employee commitment could also influence HR diversity. However, it may also be possible that highly committed employees could also enhance the attraction and retention of a highly diverse workforce.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This study reviewed literature relevant to the predictor, moderator and the predicted variables. An eclectic approach to this review focusing on different theoretical debates in line with diversity management practices and employee commitment was adopted. The chapter commenced by exploring the relevant theories to topic understudy, and progressed with the review under the following themes: conceptual framework, review of variables, empirical review of the previous studies, and research gaps. A critique of the empirical literature to the study was also discussed, with a summary of the review winding up the chapter.

2.2 Theoretical Review

Theoretical framework is a set of concepts and ideas showing the proposed relationships among these concepts or variables (Maxwell, 2011). The simplest form of a theory consists of two concepts joined by a proposed relationship such as the variables of diversity management and the predicted variable - employee commitment. This study was guided by five main theories that included the Social identity theory by Tajfel in 1978 (Tajfel, 2010), Equity theory by Adam Stacy in 1963 (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013), institutional theory as advanced by DiMaggio and Powell in 1983 (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991), Open systems theory (Emery, 2004) and Blau's social exchange theory of 1964 (Cropanzone, Anthony, Daniels & Hall, 2017; Kundu, 2016; Mitchell, Cropanzano & Quisenberry, 2012).

2.2.1 Social Identity Theory

The way people work is influenced by a multiplicity of factors yet social identities serve as very important drivers of organizational performance and the commitment of employees to the organization (Korte, 2007). By definition, workplaces are social entities that comprise of interacting groups of people (Korte, 2007; Hodgkinson,

2003). Hence, work in organizations is usually accomplished through such groups as advanced by social identity theory which portends to be the unifying concept about how people think and influence subsequent behaviour (Dick & Kerschreiter, 2016; Korte, 2007; Jenkins, 2004). Advanced by Tajfel and Turner in 1979, and as a theory of group membership and behavior, social identity theory was developed with the aim of understanding how individuals make sense of themselves and other persons in a social environment such as the workplace (Tajfel, 2010; Korte, 2007; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Accordingly, individual employees develop and sustain several, socially driven identities within an organization. However, they tend to derive a slice of their identities from the memberships and the interactions among and within groups in the organization (Dick & Kerschreiter, 2016; Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

According to Tajfel (2010), when offered a place to belong by a group of individuals, then such an offer becomes a person's source of self-esteem, providing him or her with a sense of belonging and fitting into the group. Consequently, the theory posits that individual employees tend to put themselves and others into categories of groups by use of personal dimensions like gender, ethnicity, and disability among others (Nair & Neharika 2015; Tajfel 2010; Korte, 2007). Accordingly, they divide the world into 'them and us' to create distinct out-groups and in-groups. The in-group then tends to discriminate and develop stereotypes against the out-group to enhance self-image.

The perception of employees is therefore an inclusive-exclusive continuum in which individuals are made to be part and parcel of the system (Mor Barak, 2011). This is because the brain of an individual is already wired to perceive human differences as they tend to prefer others that share in the affiliations of a group (Wildermuth & Wildermuth, 2011). Thus, social identification is the perception of oneness with or the belonging to some human aggregate (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). It provides the fundamental understanding about how diversity training influences employee commitment (Waight & Madera, 2011) as well as building cultural diversity awareness (Madera, 2013). As posited out by Korte (2007), it offers the opportunity

to enrich the appreciation of diversity training interventions as undertaken by training professionals within the organization.

However, Mor Barak (2011) notes that this theory seems to be very broad but rather generic in view of its social categorization concept. It argues that all types of categories are treated as equal and as such it cannot account for the heightened significance of diverse categories that have deep historical roots in terms of cultural values. Additionally, it conceptualizes identity primarily as self-defined and downplays the consequences of other groups that affect their own sense of inclusion and exclusion from many activities. Some of the possible consequences associated with diversity training programs could include a ''backlash'' against workforce diversity, an increased fear in the participants, and a strengthening of divisions between and within groups at the workplace (Wildermuth & Wildermuth, 2011). As a matter of fact, since the implication of social identity theory is that factors in the workplace that trigger the categorizations of individual employees are likely to interfere with diversity efforts, they can very easily encourage stereotyping, prejudice, and intergroup conflict (Korte, 2007; Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

However, this is a mega theory that can be used to explain the universal influences of HR diversity through social categorization as well as group membership (Mor Barak, 2011) and the adoption of common identity within the organization which can also facilitate HR diversity efforts (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), such as diversity training and the building of cultural diversity awareness. Thus, because of its all-embracing orientation and strengths, the social identity theory has been used by many researchers in a similar field (Rumana & Mutuku, 2017; Mercurio, 2015; Waight & Madera, 2011; Yap *et al.,* 2010) which makes it relevant for this study. The theory expands one's sense of self when in a group using the means of social identification processes as he or she defines himself or herself as per the categories that one shares with the rest (Holck, Muhr & Villesèche, 2016; Dick & Kerschreiter, 2016). The strength of social identity theory lies in its deep meaning to individuals that live and work in groups or teams within organizations (Korte, 2007) such as those in commercial banks. This theory is linked to the variables of diversity training and

building of cultural diversity awareness, through which employees are taken through a distinct set of programs aimed at facilitating positive inter-group interactions, reducing prejudice and discrimination, and enhancing the skills, knowledge, and motivation of employees to interact with diverse co-workers and customers (Kyambi, 2015; Pendry, Driscoll & Field, 2007). Diversity training inculcates skill, knowledge and awareness, the cornerstone on which a respectful and inclusive workplace can be built (Bendict, Egan & Lofhjelm, 2001).

2.2.2 Equity Theory

Equity theory was advanced by Adam Stacy in 1963 (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013). The theory is described as one that uses the equation in which it compares an individual's inputs (i.e., what an employee feels he/she contributes to an organization) with his or her outcomes (i.e., what an employee feels he/she gets from the organization in return). Accordingly, if he or she finds that these ratios are unequal, then inequity is perceived and hence all other job outcomes including employee commitment are affected negatively. Nonetheless, Pritchard (2016) observed that the equity theory stresses on equity in relation to the pay structure and treatment all employees fairly. He also posited that the perception of fair treatment is a source of both job satisfaction and a positive evaluation of the organization for diverse groups of people that work for the same organization. Accordingly, the perception of procedures and practices as being consistent, unbiased and accurate by employees, makes such procedures and practices to be considered as being fair and hence positively influencing employee commitment (Choi & Rainey, 2014). In addition, when employees perceive the existence of a climate of general fairness and fair treatment, such a perception will enhance a positive perception of HR diversity management outcomes such as employee commitment (Hassan, 2002).

Consistently, when a diversity climate is perceived to be fair it increases the minorities' employee commitment and their intention to stay with their organizations (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Day, Holladay, Johnson & Barron, 2014). In addition, the allocation of organizational rewards in a systematic manner and to a diverse workforce can be very crucial in ensuring that organizational employees perceive the

pay decisions as being fair and equitable (Prouska, Psychogios, & Rexhepi, 2016; Day *et al.*, 2014; Fischer & Smith, 2003). However, Hassan (2002) noted that equitable or inequitable treatment is perceived from the employees' comparison made from within and from without the organization, with outcome factors such as salary, salary increase, promotions, fringe benefits, incentives, and recognition. If the process of awarding these outcomes is perceived to be fair then it could raise the level of commitment among employees (Day *et al.*, 2014; Balassiano & Salles, 2012; Fischer & Smith, 2003).

Furthermore, when conducted fairly, diversity training and diversity rewarding can also strive to sensitize workers to differing values, communication norms, and interaction patterns that could thwart coordination between different people (Waight & Madera, 2011). This could also have a significant effect on employee commitment (Madera, 2013). However, critics of the theory have argued that while it is laudable to pursue fairness, this cannot be the prime concern of organizations. For example, Beardwell, Holden and Claydon (2004) suggested that goals of managers in organizations are profits and efficiency and not necessarily morality. Furthermore, if equity theory were to guide the decision-making process in firms, then it would possibly be detrimental to business operations and ultimately to the bottom line. Therefore, Pritchard (2016) posits that while equity theory may be a significant step ahead, it may need further specification. All the same, several researches have supported the predictions of equity in under-payment and over-payment to different categories of employees (Prouska *et al.,* 2016; Day *et al.*, 2014; Meena &Varka, 2013; Balassiano, & Salles, 2012). Further, this theory is closely linked to the concept of diversity reward and diversity training. On a set of beliefs of fairness and equity, employees are paid in tandem with their qualifications, trainings, experience and performance.

2.2.3 Institutional Theory

Literature on institutions tend to suggest that organizations are under the influence and the pressure to implement HR practices that can be viewed to be appropriate for the situation (Washika, Marion & Tamer, 2017; Ute, Uhlaner & Stride, 2014; Bruton, Ahlstrom & Li, 2010) and hence the focus on the institutional theory. Advanced by DiMaggio and Powell in 1983 (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991) institutional theory suggests that institutions are deeply rooted in institutional context that is wider and so appropriate, and that HR practices always require to be institutionalized. According to Scott (2007), institutionalization is a process that instils values in the HR within the organizational setting. In other words, it serves as a means of supplying the intrinsic worth to a process that promotes stability. Additionally, institutionalization as a process creates a social order and hence, a social reality upon which social interactions within the organization are created (Bruton, Ahlstrom & Li; 2010). Social orders tend to occur when individuals take actions, interpret them and share the comprehension of such actions with others (Scott, 2007). These understandings tend to classify people's behaviour into categories which enable individual persons to respond in the same fashions ((Bruton *et al.,* 2010). When actions become repeated over time, they get assigned the same meanings by oneself and by others, and this is the institutionalization.

Similarly, DiMaggio and Powell (1991) observed that institutionalization is a class element whose prominent characteristics include cultural elements, normative beliefs and cognitive systems. Therefore, the theory is characterized by elaboration of rules and requirements to which organizations must conform in order to receive support and legitimacy (Kaufman, 2010). Hence, according to Paauwe & Boselie (2005), organizational HR practices for the management of diversity tend to be a direct reflection of or a response to the regulations and structures that tend to build into the bigger environment. This environment then becomes a source of legitimization and rewards for HR diversity practices as well as sanctions on certain activities of the firm such as discrimination (Kaufman, 2010). However, Najeeb (2014) posited that

individual actors, organizations or the entire service sector strive to gain or maintain legitimacy which takes the regulative, normative and cognitive forms.

Regulative legitimacy is the sanctioning by some explicit laws or policies achieved through legalization of certain practices (Kaufman, 2010) while normative legitimacy is the congruence between the social values that are associated with or implied by organizations and norms of accepted behavior (Tsai, 2010). Similarly, cognitive institutions account for the cultures and ethics as observed within the firm. However, DiMaggio and Powell (1991) stated that institutions exert three types of pressures namely; coercive, normative and mimetic on organizations for conformity to organizational isomorphism.

According to Makela, Bjorkman and Ehrnrooth (2010), coercive pressures are usually brought by government actions, and in this case through the workplace anti-discrimination laws, rules and regulations. Christina (2014) posited that prior research has shown that government regulations and legislations are significant coercive pressures that drive organizations towards adopting diversity management practices. In addition, the government's insistence on Affirmative Action (AA) and Employment Equity (EE) programs tend to have given rise to the development of recruitment and screening practices intended to diversify the employment base (Tsai, 2010). According to Yang & Konrad (2011) these programs were meant to provide accommodation to workers with disability, as they reduce discrimination in promotions, compensation and career advancement.

Normative isomorphism as described earlier can occur through the subjection of individuals to a rigorous socialization process which can enable them to reflect on the existing norms and beliefs of the organization (Allemand & Odile, 2014). This norms and values can be developed through diversity training, building Cultural awareness and diversity networking (Boon, Paauwe, Boselie & Den Hartog, 2009), which could then enhance the similarity of skills and knowledge of the entire workforce (Tsai, 2010; DiMaggio & Powell, 1991). According to Tsai (2010), employees in the same industry can become more committed to the organization if they receive similar HR practices from the same institution.

Finally, mimetic isomorphism reflects on how organizations tend to imitate other organizations as they influence other firms successfully (Yang & Konrad, 2011). This, according to Najeeb (2014), could help reduce uncertainty with the practices of managing HR diversity and effectively enhance employee commitment. That is, an organization can even imitate a competitor because of uncertainty or the fads in the management fields to implement practices for managing HR diversity successfully. According to Kossek and Pichler (2006), the best practices for managing HR diversity should accomplish the promotion of organizational justice and inclusion, and the reduction of employee discrimination and prejudice as a source of employee commitment. Nonetheless, there is one major problem associated with the research that uses the Institutional theory to comprehend the business activities including HR diversity management practices. Accordingly, institutional theory lays its emphasis on the cultural institutional influences that are more associated with the societal norms of institutions. For instance, many studies have used the cultural dimensions of Hofstede to examine the Institutional theory's impact on certain business and entrepreneurial activities (Yang & Konrand, 2011; Tsai, 2010). However, Ute *et al.* (2014) pointed out that Institutional theory has been identified as a very useful lens to fully understand the business and HR activities in general, including building of cultural diversity awareness.

2.2.4 Open Systems Theory

The open systems theory by Emery (2004) was developed from early times in history. Prior to its development, the systems theory had been developed by Von Bertalanfly in 1950s to unify the thinking about the physical, biological and social sciences. From this thought, Bertalanfly referred to the systems as the configuration of parts that are connected and joined together by the web of relationships (Mele, Pels & Polese, 2010). From the organizational viewpoint, a system is a set of interacting functions that attain inputs from the environment, processing them, and then releasing the outputs back to the environment. Thus, open systems theory posits that organizations tend to be influenced by their own environments through the resource provision (Amagoh, 2008; Bastedo, 2004).

In an organizational setting, workers are members of certain social groups and work organizations. According to Bastedo (2004), these groups and work organizations play important roles in shaping workers' behaviours and actions. As a result, these workers move back and forth between the workplace and their own social groups and inadvertently bring some external influences into the organizational values and behaviours (Cankaya, 2015). These impact on the internal functioning of the firm, linking it to the cultural awareness hypothesis. That is, employees strive to get an understanding of the diverse cultures to create a harmonious working relationship and boost their commitment (Cankaya, 2015). They can do so through diversity training, building of cultural awareness and diversity networking.

However, the framework of open systems theory was developed by Katz and Kahn to include some basic characteristics that flow from the human relations perspective differentiating the open systems theory from other similar types of theories like the closed systems theory (Polese, 2010). These characteristics include: individual employee differences which presumes that management must recognize that people are different and may react differently to similar situations (Emery, 2004). Thus, management may need to initiate programs that would enable one to learn about the diverse cultural values exhibited by everyone. Therefore, according to Mele *et al.* (2010), appreciating HR diversity in organizations is significantly associated with employee commitment.

Another characteristic includes the mutual interest perspective. Accordingly, employees have an inherent need to socialize at their work and this drives them to pursue membership in formal groups that have common interest with them. On the contrary, these formal groups rarely satisfy their needs and hence, there is always a need to facilitate the formation of informal groups which can then bring employees together to pursue common interests. For instance, recreation facilities for all workers allow for creation of informal socialization among those that take advantage of opportunities without any regard to the background differences. Lastly, Polese (2010) argues that employees want to be treated with respect and they must have their individuality respected for them to love their job as they become committed to

their organizations (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Accordingly, respect creates a sense of belonging within the individual and hence, increased commitment to work.

Similarly, Polese (2010) claimed that despite the advantage of creating a corporate design that is socially conscious of its environment and the creation of a model that universally operates around the mutually beneficial interests, the open systems theory has had very negligible impact on empirical research in organizations. Ashmos and Huber (1987) opined that although the open systems theory has widely been used to label and legitimize many studies, the theory has not been applied widely as a research guide. This is so because, very few researchers have been able to consider the many components which must be included in a simple open systems model that comprise of inputs, the transformations, outputs and the feedback effects or their interrelationships (Amagoh, 2008). This study has directly and explicitly identified the various components of the open systems theory through enhanced diversity training, rewards, cultural awareness employee networking and organizational support as dimensions of inputs, transformations, and outputs of an organization towards the employee. Nonetheless, basing on the advanced criticism, it may seem attractive to look at another model in the managemnent of diversity in Human Resources; the social exchange theory (Cropanzone *et al*., 2017; Kundu, 2016; Mitchell *et al*., 2012).

2.2.5 Social Exchange theory

As one of the most prominent conceptual frameworks, the Social exchange theory was advanced by Blau in 1964 (Cropanzone *et al.,* 2017; Kundu, 2016), and it provides an explanatory framework to explain how HR diversity management practices can be related to employee commitment. The theory is based upon a "psychological contract" between the employer and employee (Madera, Dawson & Guchait, 2016; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012) which is also founded on the concept of reciprocity. The reciprocity concept is of the view that employees receive economic or socio-emotional benefits from their organizations in form of HR diversity practices, and that they get obligated to respond in ways that are beneficial for the organization. For instance, the provision of diversity rewards by an organization

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strengthens the psychological contract between the employee and employer (Kundu, 2016). On being rewarded for their work by the firm, employees tend to reciprocate by increasing both the normative and affective commitments to the organization (Newman & Sheikh, 2012). For instance, the theory postulates that employees may show a greater obligation in a relationship with 'favours' which can create obligations for the future (Madera *et al.,* 2016; Kundu, 2016).

Consequently, both types rewards tend to play a key role in enhancing employee commitment (Kundu, 2016; Newman & Sheikh, 2012). Equally, Celik, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2011) argued that diversity training positively and significantly correlated to employee commitment. This is consistent with the assertion of the social exchange theory which suggests that employees tend to demonstrate greater obligation in the workplace relationships which have 'favours' that tend to create future benefits (Madera *et al.,* 2016; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012). Therefore, Kundu (2016) opined that diversity management practices can be regarded as reflecting the philosophy of employee commitment in the organization. Thus, the basis of the social exchange theory is said to be the norm of reciprocity where it commences with the employer giving a benefit to the expective employee who then tends to reciprocate as he/she creates a feeling of mutual obligation or commitment (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012).

Specifically, the providing diversity reward, diversity training, or building of cultural diversity awareness tend to engender the feelings of individual obligations, trust and gratitude in the employee who then responds by displaying his or her commitment to the firm (Madera *et al.,* 2016; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Thus, many authors have applied the theory of social exchange in highlighting that HR diversity practices are important determinants of HR outcomes (Kundu, & Mor, 2017; Kundu, 2016; Jauhari & Singh, 2013; Hashim, 2010; Magosh & Chang, 2009). For instance, Jauhari and Singh (2013) underscored the worth of reciprocity and asserted that employees can view a firm that adopts the approach of HR diversity management as an 'employer of choice', and in turn this may lead to increased employee commitment.

In addition, Tuzun and Kalemci (2012) posited that organizational support can be said to draw a lot of support from the social exchange theory. Accordingly, the theory advances the view that each party in the organization has perceptions and expectations regarding the behavior of the other party in that organization. However, these expectations and perceptions are related with the specifics of what each party must render. When both parties become beneficiaries from the exchange, then there will be no one to tell whether the expectations of the other one may have been fully met. Based on these arguments, organization support encompasses the employees' perception about their organizations' concern with their well-being and their contributions. It tends to cover the degree to the extend of organizational employees feeling that the organization is willing to fairly compensate them in exchange for their efforts, support them when they need to make their work interesting and stimulating, as well as have the organization provide them with adequate working conditions. Therefore, organizational support has been theorized to influence employees' general reactions to their job, including job satisfaction (Derven, 2014), and employee commitment (Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, 2015).

However, Cropanzone et al. (2017) noted that although Social exchange theory is among the most prominent conceptual perspectives in HR management, it has also been criticised for lacking sufficiency in theoretical precision and hence, it is limited in utility. Scholars in HR management have found it extremely difficult to make any priori predictions that regard the workplace behaviour of certain individuals (Cropanzon et al., 2017; Mitchelle et al., 2012). On the contrary, Social exchange theory has also been established to be very fruitful in explaining employee interactions at the workplace which is enhanced by diversity practices such as diversity training, diversity reward and building cultural awareness. For instance, the theory suggests that employees can be more willing to seek out relationships if they tend to feel that there will be rewards for doing so. The theory also denotes the importance of maintaining a friendly atmosphere at the workplace.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework has been defined as the visual or a written product that explains, either in a narrative form or graphically, the main things that are to be studied, including the key factors, variables or concepts, and the relationships that are presumed to exist among them (Rogers, 2016; Ravitch & Riggan, 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Robson (2011) described a conceptual framework as a system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that support and inform the research. Such a system can only be generated through a structured literature review. As indicated from the various sources, HR diversity management practices was found to be positively associated with employee commitment as depicted in figure 2.1. As a result, some firms are adopting practices which can get them honoured by some of the recognized bodies because of their commitment to diversity (Meena & Vanka, 2013). The four relevant independent variables to this study were obtained from relevant literature and theories (D'Netto *et al.,* 2014; Madera, 2013; Waight & Madera, 2011). According to Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) employees tend to become more committed in the belief that their firms will be more supportive of them. Subsequently, as pointed out by Meyer & Allan (1991), they reciprocate these perceptions through their own commitment, as conceptualized in figure 2.1:

Diversity Training

- Attitudinal change training
- Diversity training Effectiveness

Diversity Reward

- Individual based reward
- Performance based reward

Building Cultural Awareness

- Respect for diversity
- Diversity relationships

Diversity Networking

- Support groups
- Social grouping events

HRDM practices

Employee Commitment

- Affective commitment
- Continuance commitment
- Normative commitment

Organizational Support

- Person Focused Support (OS-P)
- Task Focused Support (OS-T)

Independent Variables   Moderating variable   Dependent Variable

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

The model in figure 2.1 proposes that employee commitment is a function of diversity training + diversity reward + building cultural awareness + diversity networking which is also moderated by organization support. According to the model, the interplay between the independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) and moderating variable (organization support) accounts for increased commitment among employees who work in commercial banks in Kenya.

2.4 Review of Variables

This segment reviewed literature related to the predictor variables understudy. They include; diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity or employee networking. Literature on organizational support as the moderating variable was also reviewed.

2.4.1 Diversity Training

Diversity training is one of the practices that help organizations achieve their goals (Joudal, Ahmad & Dahleez, 2016). It involves the the organization of skill tasks, information, and attitudes inorder to increase the performance of the organization (Grossman & Salas, 2011) and employee commitment (Yap *et al.,* 2010). In many organizations, diversity training has been said to be of great assistance in the reducing the prejudices. It helps discourage discrimination of part of the workforce (Madera, 2013). In a study to examine the perceptions of employees about their participation in diversity training programs (Yap *et al.*, 2010), it was noted that immigrants and the ethnically minority employees tend to face discrimination in treatment at their workplaces when it comes to diversity training. It suggested that employees who perceive diversity training to be effective become more committed to their organizations than those who perceive it to be less effective or non-existent. In conclusion, the study revealed that diversity training practices tend to positively and significantly affect the level of commitment among employees. However, the study the association of diversity training and commitment among employees has not been adequately established (Yap *et al.*, 2010).

Waight and Madera (2011) conducted a survey study among the part time and the full time employees in hospitality industry established that diversity training at the workplace is significantly correlated with the job satisfaction among ethnic minorities, as well as perceived workplace discrimination. Furthermore, a desktop research about diversity training in the firms located in the UK (McGuire & Bagher, 2010) it established that this predictor variable tends to promote inclusiveness and fair treatment of employees which by extention, increases the commitment of employees. Accordingly, diversity training was found to affect levels of employee commitment by advocating for greater awareness about HR diversity and its benefits. In the same breadth, in their survey research, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2013) posited that increased level of job satisfaction among employees, significantly increases the levels of employee commitment.

According to Waight and Madera (2011), diversity training can lead to improvements in morale, job satisfaction and the retention of the most qualified personnel. Nevertheless, with the increase in globalization and HR diversity in firms across the globe, the importance laid on the practice of diversity training in improving the commitment among employees cannot be emphasized more. Therefore, certain employers are in the process of developing programs for diversity training practices in order to manage their contemporary diverse workforce more effectively (Stewart, 2016; D'Netto *et al*., 2014; Madera, 2013; Yang & Konrad, 2011; Yap, *et al.*, 2010). For instance, 67% of organizations in the USA have reported that they have diversity training programs (Roberson, Kulik & Tan, 2013) although there is limited literature on how the practice of diversity training can be most beneficial (Kalinoski *et al.,* 2013).

A study by Bedhesha *et al.* (2008) which sought to examine how diversity training affects specific and the general attitudes among employees, established that 66% of the USA frms had diversity training programs then. Consistently, a study by D'Netto *et al.* (2014) seeking to explore employee perceptions concerning the benefits and challenges experienced as a consequence workforce diversity and diversity management practices which were adopted by manaufacturing firms in Australian, it

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was also revealed that these organizations provide diversity training programs through induction programs, checking on discrimination during the selection process, conducting the needs assessment for diversity training and training for ethnic minority employees. Consequently, Madera (2013) established in a survey study, that an ensemble of seven diversity practices among the Human Resources are used by almost all the 14 selected companies within the hospitality sector. These companies included Morgan Chase Bank, Coca-cola, Marriott International, Walt Disney and Health care service firms in the USA. This is meant to ensure an increase in employee commitment. On the contrary, information about the number of commercial banks with diversity training programs in Kenya still remains inadequate.

Accordingly, Homan, Eckhoff, Wendy and Voelpel (2015), suggested that some researches on HR diversity have indicated that there is a positive and significant influence between diversity training and HR outcomes. Others have have also reported that diversity training program can also be ineffective or quite unproductive. Furthermore, the cost associated with diversity training practice, combined with its ineffectiveness tends to raise doubts on whether diversity training is worth the investment. Consistently, Reynolds, Imran and Bradetich, (2014) also concurred the diversity training is positively associated with employee commitment, but at times it can also be very ineffective to the performance of the organization. In addition, several studies have indicated the stark lack of empirical research that may have examined the diversity training and employee commitment relationship (Waight & Madera, 2011).

However, effective training of the diverse workforce can increase the commitment of employees during organizational change (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). It can help employees get clarity on the achievement of the goals of the organization. According to Debra (2011) diversity training can help employees to overcome knowledge assimilation barriers which can lead to increased employee commitment. According to Njonjo (2017), commitment among employees can be influenced significantly by type of training received. Wamwayi, Iravo, Elegwa and Waititu (2016), established

that for diversity training to be effective, the participants must be exposed to its programs quite frequenly. Furthermore, Ashikhube, Chege and Musiega (2013) found a significant relationship between the needs assessment in training and employee performance, which in this case could be a function of employee commitment. However, Bennett (2010) had posited that the efficacy of diversity training is not very certain.

Similarly, Celik *et al*. (2011) opined that the predictor variable diversity training is positively correlated to employee commitment. Consistently, Blau's 1964 social exchange theory asserted that employees tend to exhibit greater obligation in relationships that have 'favours'which create obligations for the future (Cropanzano *et al.,* 2017; Madera *et al.,* 2016; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012). However, the basis of the social exchange association is the reciprocity norm, which commences with the employer's provision of a benefit to the current employee who reciprocates by creating a mutual obligation or commitment feeling (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012). Specifically, providing diversity training to people lean towards engendering the feelings of personal trust, obligations and gratitude within the employee who end up responding through his or her commitment to the organization (Madera *et al.,* 2016).

On the contrary, ineffective diversity training can lead to a backlash among trainees which can then lead to reduced employee commitment. This is consistent with Reynolds *et al.* (2014) findings that diversity training is not significantly related to employee commitment among ethnic minority managers, which is contrary to the non-ethnic minority managers. Similarly, inappropriate diversity training can provoke and victimize the mainstream employees for errors of the past as it makes 'political correctness' a priority (D'Netto *et al*., 2014). Thus, this leaves a majority of employees inadvertently isolated from becoming a productive part of the solution because of the likelihood of having low commitment to the organization. Based on the discussed relationship, this study sought to test the hypothesis that; $H_{01:}$ Diversity training has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya

2.4.2 Diversity Reward

The business environment across the globe has become excessively competitive (Hafiza, Shah, Jamsheed & Zaman, 2011) and as such, to acquire, retain and have committed and the right workforce is now a very big challenge to many organizations (Khan, Shahid, Nawab & Wali, 2013; Hafiza *et al.,* 2011). Khan and Afzal (2016) have suggested that the retention of employees can be linked to employee commitment directly such that the less the employee get committed, the more likely they are to leave. Rewarding employees fairly is very vital in sustaining both employee retention and commitment (Irshad, 2016; Safiullah, 2014). According to Kilimo, Namusonge, Makokha and Nyagechi (2012); Safiullah (2014); Nujjo and Meyer (2012), rewards to employees can either be extrinsic or intrinsic and offered to all employees in the organization. Hence, diversity rewards are offered to a set of diversity workforce, articulated on the principles of equity and fairness, and consistently with the organizational values and beliefs (Nazir *et al.,* 2016; Groeneveld, 2011). Further, diversity rewards can be given on the basis of one's performance or skills possessed or simply on the basis of agreed principles, say the collective bargaining agreements.

On the other hand, diverse employees get into the firms with special abilities and needs, as well as goals. In turn, they get in with expectations about a work environment that would enable them exercise their abilities, fulfilling their needs as they achieve their own goals (Ashikali, & Groeneveld, 2013). Accordingly, Mitchell *et al.* (2012) contended that social exchange as a theory suggests that an employee's life is a sequence of transactions between the employee and his or her employer (Cropanzano *et al.,* 2017; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012). In addition, social exchange theory posits that employees may exhibit greater obligation in the relationship with 'favours' that tend to create obligations for the future (Madera *et al.,* 2016; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012).

According to Prouska *et al.* (2016), in the least, all reward system play very crucial roles in attracting employees, enhancing their performance and maintaining their commitment. Such systems must safeguard the interests of everybody by ensuring

that there is equitable distribution of the benefits and incentive within (Day, Holladay, Johnson & Barron, 2014). According to D'Netto *et al.* (2014), inequitable pay systems, creates a very de-motivated and dissatisfied workforce. Equity theory proposes that treating employee fairly and ensuring equity in the pay structure is very vital when it comes to enhancing the commitment of employees (Pritchard, 2016; Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013). When procedures and practices within the organization are perceived to be unbiased, accurate and consistent by employees then they will be considered to be fair and hence positively affect the commitment of employees (Choi & Rainey, 2014).

Similarly, the allocation of rewards in a systematic manner and to a diverse workforce could also be very crucial in ensuring that employees perceive the pay decisions as being fair and equitable (Prouska *et al.,* 2016; Day *et al.*, 2014), although what could constitute fair pay decision may also have to depend on several factors. Nevertheless, D'Netto *et al.* (2014) opined, that sufficient literature to linking diversity reward as a means to guarantee equity in pay and increased commitment among employees does exist. Extrinsic rewards, which are tangible in nature, they are even more external to the performance of the job or task Hafiza *et al.*, 2011). Such rewards comprise bonuses, salary/pay, incentives, and promotions among others. On the contrary, intrinsic rewards are intangible or rather psychological in nature. They also include such things as meeting new challenges, being appreciated, employer's positive and caring attitude, as well as job rotation after one has attained a specific goal (Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Hafiza *et al.,* 2011).

However, once the pay has exceeded the subsistence level, intrinsic factors become stronger motivators to the individual worker (Gom, Jiony, Tanakinjal & Siganul, 2015) argued that. Nonetheless, motivating staff do require the intrinsic rewards such as satisfaction of the individual employee with his or her good job and that sense that you are doing something worthwhile. Numerous studies have advocated for both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards in trying to increase the commitment of the diverse workforce in a manner that observes equity (Nazir *et al.,* 2016; Miao *et al.,* 2013; Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

A study conducted to examine the effect of reward management practices on the commitment of employees working in public universities within the county of Nakuru (Korir & Kipkebut, 2016), it was established that are financial reward in nature were positively and significantly correlated to affective commitment. On the contrary, the study also established a weak, positive and significantly correlated between the same type of rewards and normative commitment. However, on the overall, it was found that financial reward practices has a positive and significant effect on the commitment of employees. These findings were corroborated by Ngui *et al.* (2014) who noted that together, both financial and non-financial rewards can enhance the performance of a firm because of increased commitment among employees in the firm. The findings further revealed a positive relationship between strategic reward, compensation and performance. They recommended the use of both financial and non-financial rewards together with the performances that are related to the pay schemes.

According to Chelangat and Gachunga (2016) concurred and posited that commitment among employees produce better outcomes for their organizations. Further it was observed that diversity rewards are very good tools to which can increase organizational commitment. In a study to establish the importance of diversity rewards on commitment and motivation (Nujjo & Meyer, 2012) the study revealed a positive and significant correlation with employee commitment. This relationship was found to be stronger for intrinsic rewards than for extrinsic ones. In addition, it was noted that monetary rewards did not account for the variation in the intrinsic motivation over and above that of the non-monetary rewards.

In Khan *et al.* (2013) study article which sought to investigate the various factors influencing both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, it was revealed that both reward types are positively and significantly related to performance as well as commitment of employees. In another study to establish how rewards are related to the motivation employees in non-profit firms in Pakistan (Hafiza *et al.,* 2011), it emerged that a direct relationship exists between extrinsic rewards and motivation of employees. On the other hand, intrinsic reward did not indicate any significant impact on the

motivation of employees and hence employee commitment. On the contrary, HR diversity practices are fully associated with employee commitment (Aladwan, Bhanugopan & D'Netto, 2015). However, the study did'nt predict that diversity reward has a significant influence on the commitment of employees. Nevertheless, Chew (2008) argued that perceived fair wages and salary could be the prime reason as to why employers and employess tend to agree on a number of issues. Inconsistently, Robyn and Preez (2013) argued that monetary pay in isolation can not be a sufficient reason that would positively affect the commitment of employees, since employees can remain with the firm due to other reasons.

Inconsistent with other researches, D'Netto et al. (2014) found out that diversity reward is not significantly related with the commitment of employees. Further, they found that although outstanding individual performance is not recognized mostly by managers, diversity rewards encourages team work and cooperation among the workforce. Nonetheless, performance based rewards are intended to help reduce the wage disparities and increase employee commitment (Fenwick, Costa, Sohal & D'Netto, 2011). In tandem with the same argument, it was revealed that there is a correlation between diversity rewards and employee commitment. Consequently, the study explained that if and when the monetary and non-monetary expectations of employees are fulfilled, then this will automatically increase the affective commitment. Nujjo and Meyer (2012) also asserted that intrinsic rewards are very dominant predictors of affective commitment. For, instance, women and minority group's intention to leave due to very low commitment is highly associated with the intrinsic rewards while men's and majority members' decision to leave is mostly motivated by extrinsic rewards (Meene & Vanka, 2013). Extrinsic rewards are of great help when it comes to the development of interest and trust about the goals and the commitment of the individual (Burke, 2002). All the same, the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are significantly related to both affective and normative commitment (Nazir et al., 2016). Nujjo and Meyer (2012) also indicated the existence of some relationship between the various types of rewards and employee commitment. Basing on given arguments the current study sought to test the

hypothesis that: $H_{02:}$ *Diversity reward has no significant influence on employee commitment.*

2.4.3 Building of Cultural Awareness

Cultural diversity management is very important to the organization because the world has become a global village (Malik, Madappa & Chitranshi, 2017). Madera (2013) and Korjala (2012) observed that with international trade in commercial banks becoming more pronounced, the increased use of a multi-cultural workforce has become a reality. Therefore, employees may need to be made aware of their cultural differences to foster unity with their colleagues. In a study to investigate the best practices in managing HR diversity working for the customer service organizations, Madera (2013) observed that 12 out of 14 organizations cited by the Diversity Inc. had cultural awareness programs or training. In addition, to help spearhead the company's outreach outside USA and make people aware of their sensitivity to cultural differences, Marriott International appointed a Global diversity officer.

Through its training in diversity awareness, the firm helps its employees to gain cultural competence and enhanced commitment. From this, Madera (2013) asserted that the hospitality industry in the USA embraces cultural awareness by celebrating some of the religious holy days such as Ramadan and the Lunar to enhance their employees' commitment among other outcomes. From the same findings, Madera (2013) noted that organizations embrace cultural awareness by initiating programs that welcome employees from all cultures and facilitate them to work as they gain more experience in their companies. This facilitation is significantly related to employees' ability to work more competently and hence, become more committed to the organization. Similarly, Groeneveld (2011) asserted that by understanding the collegue's value through cultural awareness significantly influences employee commitment. Dependably, building cultural diversity awareness has a significant influence on affective commitment (Guerrero, Julie & Muresanu, 2013).

Therefore, many organizations are devoting great effort and resources to manage cultural diversity which will then demonstrate that employees are not victims of unfavorable treatment within the organization. To add on, this cultural diversity awareness was also found to be significantly linked to employee commitment (Thatcher & Patel, 2011). Further, Lee and Matteliano (2009) argued that building cultural awareness inherently involves members of the organization becoming cognizant of the cultural backgrounds that their colleagues bring to the organization. This argument is consistent with the findings that self-awareness is key in valuing and respecting the differences between individuals which may equally serve as a foundation for employee commitment (Sue & Sue, 2008).

Further, Matic (2008) stipulates that employees' commitment is achieved more when employees' work values are matched with their experience. Thus, Leveson, Joiner and Bakalis (2009) suggested that there is an indirect positive association between building cultural diversity among employees and all types of commitment, and hence, the need for organizational support. According to Patrick and Kumar (2012) many organizations of Information Technology in India successfully build cultural awareness through reducing prejudice and stereotypes, minimizing miscommunications and building relationships with diverse others. He further asserted that organizations that manage their HR diversity in this manner become recipients of employee commitment. This is consistent with Open System's theory (Stern & Fyfe, 1996) suggestion that workers such as those that work in commercial banks, are members of social groups and work organizations which tend to play important roles in shaping other workers' attitudes, beliefs, behaviours and actions.

To achieve this, organizations must maintain an environment that can best provide employees with the encouragement to acquire specific kinds of knowledge about their own ethnic and cultural heritage and that of their colleagues (Fenwick *et al.,* 2011). In consistent with the same, Ozbilgin and Tatli (2008) posited that successful cultural diversity awareness and employee commitment are positively correlated as indicated by improved organizational performance. Similarly, Patrick & Kumar (2012) assert that the consequences for not managing cultural diversity would

include lack of skills, knowledge, competencies, and the interests in employees, which could then ultimately increase employee turnover and reduce individuals' and organizations' commitment. In addition, companies that manage cultural diversity and HR diversity in total can be recipients of more committed, and highly satisfied employees (Patrick & Kumar, 2012).

Nonetheless, the Social Identity theory (Tajfel, 2010) suggested that an individual's knowledge and awareness that he or she belongs to a given social group enhances the fact that he/she can enjoy some emotional and value significance because of his/her group membership. Thus, this could lead to increased commitment to the identity of the group and their commitment to the firm. Basing on the arguments given, this study sought to test the null hypothesis that; $H_{03:}$ *Building cultural awareness has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya*.

2.4.4 Diversity Networking

Employees' diversity networking has been greatly under-utilized in many organizations including commercial banks in Kenya; yet such networks are considered as critical instruments for inclusion and effective management of a diverse set of employees (Yin-Mei, 2016; Ortlien & Sieben, 2013; Owens & Acevedo, 2012; O'Toole & Meier, 2004). Accordingly, the business advantages and the benefits of employee networking in the place of work are still under-appreciated and under-valued (Bennett, Owers, Pitt & Tucker, 2010). However, O' Toole and Meier, (2004) asserted that network stability in organizations, especially in terms of personnel turn-over appears to have positive association with the commitment of employees. Consistently, the findings from other scholarly researches which suggested that networking behaviour has a positive influence on career related outcomes like promotions and compensation (Yin-Mei, 2016; Wolff & Moser, 2010).

Accordingly, promotions can be a prospective measure of upward mobility (Wolff & Moser, 2010) which could also lead to employee commitment (Claro & De Oliveira Claro, 2011; Huffmeier & Hertel, 2011). In line with the same, Bogren, Von Friedrichs, Rennemo and Widding (2013) posited that various studies have shown a

positive association between diversity networking and employee commitment and also between diversity networking and group effectiveness. As a matter of fact, Madera (2013) found out that there is effective utilization of diversity networking among the 14 customer service organizations cited by Diversity Inc. in the USA. For instance, Verizon Company established the Employee Resource Group to provide networking, mentoring, seminars and conferences for employees.

In some other organizations, senior members of staff could coach employees with less than three years in the organizations (Madera, 2013). In contrast, Lee and Kim (2011) established that mixed findings exist between social networking and affective commitment relationship. For instance, Mossholder, Settoon and Henagan, (2005) found out that there is a negative or nonlinear influence of employee networks on employee commitment. Similarly, Labianca and Brass (2006) established that in other instances, the relationship between employee or diversity networking and commitment of employees is negative and insignificant.

However, Claro and De Oliveira Claro (2011) asserted that despite the past findings, evidence on the influence of employee networking on their commitment has not be covered exhaustively. Nonetheless, organizations have constantly been called upon to use their networks consciously for the support of businesses (Palacios-Marques, Popa & Alguacil-Mari, 2016). Steward (2016) further suggested that employee networking can promote inclusiveness by embracing HR diversity. Hunt, Layton and Prince (2015) concurred that organizations that promote HR diversity management practices such as employee networking can perform better because of the enhanced employee commitment.

From Institutional Theory perspective, diversity networking is presumed to exert some form of normative pressures to which individuals from diverse backgrounds are subjected to the rigorous socialization to have them reflect the existing norms and beliefs of the organization (Tuttle & Dillard, 2007). Institutions in this sense are the regulative, normative and cognitive structures and activities that provide stability and meaning for the social behaviours through diversity networking. According to the proceedings of International Conference on Diversity in Organizations of 2011,

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networking opportunities are scarce for women and other minority groups. Thus, businesses may need to provide organizational support by setting up other networks that would increase the number of contacts for this category of employees. This may level the playing field in the organization. Hence, the current study sought to test the hypothesis that; $H_{04:}$ *Diversity networking has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

2.4.5 Organizational Support

According to organizational support as a concept, meeting socio economic needs and the determining the readiness of an organization to reward increased work effort, requires that employees develop a global belief that concerns the extent to which the firm values the contribution of employees and how it cares about their wellbeing (Wikham & Hall, 2014; Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Eisenberger *et al*., 2002). Hence, since they are the greatest valuable asset of any organization, employees tend to always look for organizational commitment towards their own socio-emotional needs (Ahmed *et al.,* 2015; Asya, 2011; Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen, 2009). Both the social exchange and organizational support theories tend to believe that organizational support can become a catalyst for any positive HR outcomes such as commitment or performance (Ahmed *et al.,* 2015; Neves & Eisenberger, 2014). In an examination of the implications of Perceived Organization Support, social exchange theory and the reciprocity norms, it was established that a supportive environment helps employees to develop feelings of obligation that would enable them to repay the organization by giving attention to their socio-emotional needs (McBey, Karakowsky, Ng, 2017; Eisenberger *et al.,* 2013; Shoss *et al.,* 2013; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

Accordingly, workers who get valued resources from the organization (opportunities for advancement, salary raises) tend to develop their perceptions of organizational support and so, feel obligated as based on the reciprocity norm to pay back by helping the organization to reach its objectives (McBey *et al.*, 2017; Ding & Shen, 2017; Neves & Eisenberger, 2014; Shoss *et al.,* 2013; Eisenberger *et al.,* 2013). McBey *et al.* (2017), opined that many research findings have shown a positive

relationship between organizational support and employee commitment as perceived by employees in the profit-making organizations. In contradiction, evidence also shows that this relationship does not exist in some of the non-voluntary organizations such as commercial banks (McBey *et al.,* 2017).

However, as a moderator, organizational support is concerned with employees' perception that their work and contributions are valued and that the organization cares for their wellbeing (Wikham & Hall, 2014; Eisenberger *et al.,* 2001). Thus, Eisenberger *et al*. (2001) suggested that organizational support is positively and directly associated with affective employee commitment. However, studies need to be conducted to fully comprehend the moderating influence of organizational support on the relationship between HR diversity management and employee commitment. Nevertheless, Ahmed *et al*. (2015) opined that organizations are investing large amounts of money in the provision and practice of organizational support, although the results of such investments are still being interrogated.

In spite of the strong empirical literature suggesting that HR diversity practices and commitment of employees are correlated positively (Davis *et al*., 2016; D'Netto *et al*., 2014; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013), there is also literature to suggest that the relationship between the two variables can be moderated by organizational support. Aladwan *et al.'s* (2015) study that examined the HRM practices' effects on commitment in the organization, found that the association between normative and affective commitments and HR diversity practices is affected by the perception and moderation of organizational support. Further, he suggested that supported Human Resource practices can help provide the stimulus for desired behavioural change and enhanced employee commitment. Similarly, Leveson *et al.* (2009) found out that the relationship between building cultural diversity perceptions and affective commitment is indirect and hence the need for organizational support. On the contrary, Chew (2008) posited that not all employees exposed to HR Practices can have their affective employee commitment increased even when the organizational support is not increased.

Prior research had earlier on found out that perceived organization support moderates the relationship between emotional labour and job satisfaction leading to a heightened employee commitment. Similarly, organizational support theory suggests that enhanced perceived organizational support makes employees feel more obliged to take care of the welfare of the firm, as they help the organization reach the set objectives (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2013). Besides, perceived organization support increases employees' effort outcome expectancy, which makes them to believe that their efforts will certainly be rewarded (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2013; Marique *et al.*, 2012). In a study by Tuzun & Kalemci (2012) to interrogate the correlation between perceived organizational support and turnover intention, it was established that employees can maintain their membership with the organization because of enhanced Perceived Organizational Support.

Similarly, other studies have indicated that Perceived Organizational Support is significantly related to turnover intentions (Allen *et al*., 2003) and employee commitment (Eisenberger *et al*., 2002). In other words, employees with high perceived organizational support tend to avoid high levels of turnover because of increased commitment (Jauhari & Singh, 2013; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). Accordingly, Mukanzi, Gachunga, Ngungi, & Kihoro (2014) asserted that perceived supervisor support can help mitigate the adverse effects that could lead to employees' intention to leave. They further posited that this support could expand the pool of resources available, as well as reinforce other limited resources such as emotional resources.

According to Asya (2011), the association between contingency pay and various types of perceived organizational support established two types of organizational support; person focused (OS-P) and task focused (OS-T) support. The study found out that there is no significant interaction between pay contingency with OS-T in affecting commitment. This was in contrast with OS-P's influence on the commitment of employees. Based on the above, sufficient literature exist to submit that HR diversity management is associated with employee commitment just as organizational support is with employee commitment. However, minimal literature

highlights the moderating influence of organization support on the relationship between diversity management practices and the commitment of employee (Wehab, 2010). To help fill this gap the study tested the null hypothesis which stated that: $H_{05:}$ *Organizational support has no significant moderating influence on the relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

2.4.6 Employee Commitment

As a psychological state of mind, commitment tends to bind the individual employee to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990), characterizing one's relationship with the firm, as he or she makes the decision to either continue or discontinue with membership of that organization (Mukanzi *et al.*, 2014).

Consistently, Wekesa, Namusonge and Iravo (2013) posited that commitment is of great significance to the firm since it is all about the worker's desire and willingness to uphold his or her membership. According to Jin *et al.* (2017), HR diversity management practices have been found to increase job satisfaction and a higher sense of employee commitment. However, employee commitment is a multi-dimensional construct as developed by Meyer and Allen in 1991(Chang, Nguyen, Cheng, Kuo & Lee, 2016; Jackson, Meyer & Wang, 2013; Aladwan *et al.*, 2013; Jønsson & Jeppesen, 2012).

This model has been used to generate research on the predictor variable used by many authors. As a concept, commitment comprises the continuance, affective, and normative constructs (Meyer *et al.,* 2012) which are regarded by dissimilar attitudes towards the organization. Mercurio (2015) described affective commitment has a psychological mindset which upsurges the expectations of worker to go on working for the organization. Accordingly, it is an emotional attachment to the firm and the desire to continue working with it (Nazir *et al.,* 2017; Kaur Sahi & Mahajan, 2014). Consequently, members who are committed on an affective construct, they may continue working for the same company just because they want to.

A survey research by Ashikali and Groeneveld (2013) showed that the influence of HR diversity management can partly be explained by its impact on the culture of inclusiveness of the firms. Consistently, Celik *et al.* (2011) suggested a positive and significant relationship between diversity training and affective commitment among employees. According to Meyer *et al.* (2012), there is a correlation between affective commitment and organizational performance. Nazir *et al*. (2017) did examine the association that exist between perceived organizational support, performance of the employee and affective construct commitment within the context of higher education in India. The findings revealed a positive influence of organizational support on affective commitment's construct.

However, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2013) indicated employee commitment as a predictor of performance besides reducing voluntary HR turnover, which ultimately boosts diverse groups' representation. Thus, committed employees can remain with the firm for longer, resist job offers that are more competitive and hence, they could easily recommend the firm to others because of their loyalty to the organization (Kumar & Kumar, 2014; Eshiteti, Okaka, Maragia, Odhiambo & Akerele, 2013). According to the theory of social exchange, employees tend to exhibit a superior affective commitment when they perceive that the organization meets their individual needs (Cropanzone *et al*., 2017; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012; Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

According to Meyer and Allen (1993), continuance commitment refers to the awareness about the costs associated with leaving the organization. This type of commitment is strongest when the available alternatives are few such that when employees are given better alternatives elsewhere, they will opt to leave (Meyer *et al.,* 2012). Still, employees may stay for other cumulative investments such as seniority, specific skills, involvement in the making of decisions which they would rather have lost by leaving the organization (Meyer *et al.,* 2012).

Normative commitment involves the individual employee's sense of obligation in wanting to stay with the organization because of believing that this is the right thing (Mukanzi *et al*., 2014). Additionally, its strength could be influenced by the

acceptable rules which are concerned with the reciprocal obligation concerning the organization and its members (Jønsson & Jeppesen, 2012). Hence, the philosophy of reciprocal obligation stresses that a person who gets to receive a benefit (like opportunities for training and personal rewards) shall be under a very strong normative obligation to pay back that benefit in another way and hence, his or her commitment to the company. In a study to explore the role of social networks on affective commitment, Lee and Kim (2011) argued that employees' affective commitment is mainly influenced by their social networks.

However, they asserted that limited attention has been paid to the influence of social networks on affective commitment and indeed other dimensions of commitment. In a study conducted by Kim, Lee and Kim (2015) to interrogate how workplace diversity management is influenced in a very high male dominated culture, it was discovered that diversity practices have a positive association with the commitment of employees. It was also discovered that female workers perceive diversity management practices in a more favourable manner than the male counterparts, indicating a positive and significant association betwee the diversity management practices and commitment among employees. As such, D'Netto *et al.* (2014) posited that companies need to dedicate slightly more attention to the HRM practices in order to increase the commitment of employees.

Due to the increase in globalization and so the diversity of workforce, the role of diversity practices in guaranteeing the commitment of employees cannot be overemphasized (Jackson *et al.,* 2013; Wekesa *et al.,* 2013). Consequently, the business environment is so complex that it is no longer possible for organizations to guarantee employees a lifelong job. This makes diversity management practices and commitment's issues even more pertinent. Basing on the arguments indicated, this study sought to interrogate the influence of diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

2.5 Empirical Review

This section empirically reviewed the relevant literature related to the predictor variables of diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural diversity awareness and diversity networking and how they have been linked to employee commitment.

2.5.1 Diversity Training

According to Madera's (2013) empirical analysis of the best diversity management practices of employees from a selected sample of hospitality and customer service top 50 companies as identified by the diversity Inc., a given number of highly related HR diversity management practices were used complementarily. These practices included: diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking. The findings revealed that organizations offer diversity training programs to implement and maintain a culture of diversity and inclusion as high up as 79 per cent. These practices were established to have a significant influence on the commitment of employees. It was also established that ten out of fourteen mentioned organizations had diversity training as a form of diversity management practices, while 12 out of 14 companies were in favour of cultural awareness programs. Besides, some organizations were found to have programs that welcome employees from all cultures and facilitate them to work and gain a wider experience. Hence, from his study, the relationship between diversity training, diversity networking and building cultural awareness and employee commitment was established. In addition, Yap *et al.* (2010) found out that employees who perceive diversity training to be effective are significantly more committed than those who perceive diversity training to be ineffective or non-existent.

Accordingly, Madera, Neal and Dawson (2011) sought to test the effectiveness of diversity training when focusing on empathy in the workplaces. A test analysis showed that there is a significant association between diversity training and employee attitudes towards a minority group of employees in the organization. Similarly, Reynolds *et al.* (2014) studied about how the managers in hotels perceive diversity training as being of value tp the organization. However, a small sample was

used and ended up with low response rates which made it difficult for the generalization of findings. Further research was suggested in order to understand all initiatives of diversity and add another measure that would increase the credibility of findings. However, the findings indicated the link between diversity training and organization commitment as positive and significant. Furthermore, the findings from Reynold's *et al*. (2014) research indicated that, managers perceive themselves to be of great significance due to the type of trainings that they receive. On the contrary, ethnic minority managers do not value diversity training significantly highly than their non-minority counterparts and hence, feel less committed.

In addition, Nguyen (2014) also examined development and enactment of diversity training in in the SMEs in USA. The findings established that diversity training exercise is not offered beyond awareness level, needs assessment is not carried out initially, and that the support for diversity training initiatives is varied. As a result, these initiatives were found not to be very effective and in fact, they tended to hurt more than aid.

2.5.2 Diversity Rewards

A research about organizational rewards and how they influence commitment within the organization (Nazir *et al*., 2016) was it was established that both constructs of diversity reward are significantly correlated to both normative and affective commitment. Accordingly, satisfaction with either extrinsic as well as intrinsic rewards (such as promotion, autonomy, salary, involvelement in making of decisions, benefits, training) has a substantial influence on affective and normative commitment. Nonetheless, some research studies have suggested that some of the extrinsic rewards have got superior influence on the commitment of employees (Nazir *et al.,* 2016). However, this study was carried out in organizations within the public and private sectors in China. Geographically, other areas could also be designated for further endeavours in research. In addition, the relationship between these rewards and employee's continuance commitment provides an area for further research and therefore, the need for this study.

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In another study, Kundu and Mor (2017) surveyed the relationship between diversity management and perceived organization performance. The findings revealed that perceived promotion of gender diversity is positively correlated to organizational performance. However, enhanced performance was found to be delivered by a highly-committed workforce (Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015). Further, Kundu and Mor (2017) observed that there were significant differences among employees' perceptions about the value of HR diversity practices used. In a survey research by Ortlieb and Sieben (2013), the study sought to establish why companies employ ethnic minorities as a diversity strategy for business logic. They noted that a theoretically grounded background for the practice of diversity at the workplace is still missing and hence, outlines a novel approach to the topic based on the resource based dependency theory as well as institutionalization and equity theories. The study found out that employment of minorities and their effective management can contribute to the organization's positive image as an employer who obeys fairness and prohibits discrimination.

In a survey by D'Netto *et al.* (2014) about diversity management as practiced in the manufacturing sector in Australia, it was realized that there is no overt discrimination in the sector although employers tend to adopt a legalistic compliance approach. However, their findings revealed that HR diversity management practices such as diversity rewards are fairly practiced, although the Australian firms do not capitalize on the benefits of HR diversity itself. Furthermore, Shen *et al*. (2009) investigated how firms manage diversity through HRM. From the results, lack of equality and discrimination still widely exist, while HRM practices such as the rewarding of diverse workforce mainly focuses on the compliance of EEO and AA legislations. For this reason, Tuzun and Kalemci's (2012) suggested that managers must strive to get the means of increasing employees' commitment through organizational support programs.

In another study, Groeneveld (2011) did seek to establish how HR diversity is related to turnover of employees in the public sector in Netherlands. The findings indicated that the turnover in women is mostly associated with intrinsic factors while the men's

decision to leave the public sector is associated with extrinsic factors. Nonetheless, the style of leadership and the management of the organization play a crucial role about employees' turnover intention when it comes to ethnic minority employees.

In his exploration on the application of total reward practices, Prouska *et al.* (2016) carried out a study about rewarding workers in an economic turbulence to improve organizational performance in the Small Medium Enterprises' (SMEs). The study found that during times of economic crisis, intrinsic and non-financial rewards such as employee involvement, supporting personal and professional development can be strong predictors of organization performance. Such elements of work environment have also been found to significantly influence employee commitment (Ndung'u & Kwasira, 2016; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012). Similarly, they remain strong and viable alternatives to the costly extrinsic and financial rewards.   However, the study employed a small sample which could not allow for any comparative analysis even though the findings could be indicative of the reward practices in Small &Medium Enterprises (SMEs).

2.5.3 Building Cultural Diversity Awareness

A research study by Ashikali and Groeneveld (2013) did seek to find how diversity management affect the affective construct of commitment. Results indicated that the relationship can be explained partially by the impact of diversity management practices on the organization's cultural inclusiveness. However, the study found that a positive correlation exists between diversity management practices and the affective construct of employee commitment. This meant that the more employees perceive that HR diversity practice are being implemented in their organization, the more they tend to feel committed. Thus, affective commitment is a consequence of diversity management practices.

Empirically, a survey by Kim, Lee and Kim (2015) did seek to determine how workplace diversity management affects organizational commitment in a male dominated culture. They examined how the differences among gender responses to the present diversity management practices, as well as the level of employee commitment due to such practices. The findings pointed out that diversity

management and commitment to the organization were positively related. Female employees in the same study reported more favourably about the perception of diversity management as practiced in the respective firms.

Similarly, Munjuri and Maina (2013) studied on how diversity management affect employee performance in the banks in Kenya. The study pointed out that organizations which embrace workforce diversity enjoys more creative decision making, satisfying work environments and hence, employees get involved as they feel encouraged to contribute meaningfully. Kinyanjui's (2013) study on the innovative strategies for management of diverse workforce in corporations in Kenya established that leadership is an effective HR diversity management strategy, for enhanced productivity and responsiveness to better performance.

2.5.4 Diversity Networking

According to Owen and Acevedo (2012), much research has been focused on the characteristics of networking management yet very few studies have addressed how organizational demographic composition might influence public managers' networking activities. In the same study, it was found that diversity management practices positively influence the amount of time spend by managers on networking. On the contrary, the study found out that diversity management practices have a negative influence on performance for those who earn low income. They further exhibit lower commitment to their organizations and work. According to Baruch and Holtom (2008), a wider sample size could provide a balanced view of the study issues on diversity networking. In a quantitative research, Davis *et al.* (2016) purposed to identify the attitudes of managers within the Australian corporates and comprehend the issues on diversity management as well as the practices that can be incorporated thereof. The findings revealed that diversity management is not appreciated nor understood, especially for the non-HR managers.

Accordingly, Madera's (2013) did study about diversity management practices as applied in the hotel industry in the USA, it emerged that there is effective utilization of diversity networking among the 14 customer service organizations cited by

Diversity Inc. For instance, Verizon Company established the Employee Resource Group to provide networking, mentoring, seminars and conferences for employees. In some other organizations, senior members of staff could coach employees with less than three years in the organizations (Madera, 2013). In contrast, Lee and Kim (2011) established that mixed findings exist between social networking and affective commitment relationship. For instance, Mossholder, Settoon and Henagan, (2005) found out that there is a negative or nonlinear influence of employee networks on employee commitment. Similarly, Labianca and Brass (2006) established that in some cases, diversity networking and employee commitment can be negative and insignificant.

According to Claro and De Oliveira Claro (2011), prior findings not withstanding, evidence concerning how diversity networking influence employee commitment has not been covered exhaustively. Hence, Palacios-Marques *et al*. (2016) suggested that organizations should constantly strive to make use of their networks consciously to support the business. Similarly, Steward (2016) further opined that employee networking can promote inclusiveness by embracing HR diversity. Hunt, Layton and Prince (2015) concurred that organizations that promote HR diversity management practices such as employee networking can perform better because of the enhanced employee commitment.

2.6 Critique of Existing Literature

A study by Kyambi (2015) did seek to interrogate how diversity management practices the influence performance of the noncommercial government agencies. Having 132 agencies as the target population, the study adopted a descriptive design instead of a survey given the level. Furthermore, the study introduced a moderating variable (senior management accountability) as an objective, but its model (regression) was not stated in the methodology, and neither was its moderating influence on diversity management practices (predictor variables) and organizational performance (predicted variable) tested. Hierarchical and step wise regression analysis should have been used to test for this moderation instead of only running a multiple regression analysis. According to Madera's (2013) article 'best practices in

diversity management in customer service firms', to successful manage a diverse workforce one must involve the diversity management practices to obtain successful outcomes such as employee commitment. The study sampled 14 companies from the top 50 companies as indicated by diversity Inc. However, with an appropriate research design, there was'nt any justification for the smaller sample size picked.

The purpose of Munjuri and Maina's (2013) study was to establish the effects of diversity management on employee performance. However, they used purposive sampling to obtain Nairobi as the study area because it was closer and hence more convenient. This was an argument that does not merit a scholarship defense and could therefore negatively affect the generalization of findings. Equally, a survey research design chosen was not the most appropriate for the given study since it had limited its target population only to those banks within Nairobi area. A survey research design would have been most appropriate if the target population would have included all banks and not a select few. Similarly, the study did not explain the reason behind the choice of only three bank branches out of 25 within Nairobi region. The study further suggested that there are only 110 branches across the country yet the CBK (2015) report espouse that there are more than 1443 banking branches in Kenya.

Accordingly, Ortlieb and Sieben's (2013) study; 'Diversity strategies and business logic: do companies employ ethnic minorities', seem to base much of its argument on ethnic minorities yet diversity is about treating everyone equally. The study preferred to use the resource based dependency theory which could be most appropriate for the research type. However, it offered many applications for future research on antecedents of diversity strategies. Similarly, Tandrayen-Ragoobur and Pydayya (2016) sought to analyze the magnitude of gender wage differentials in public and private sectors in Mauritius. They employed a cross sectional research design for the years 2006 to 2013. Given the length of time, the study could best have sought to establish the impact of wage disparities on some HRM outcome such as employee commitment. Therefore, the problem does not explicitly show a relationship between any two major variables. A two-stage stratification sampling

procedure was employed with a sample size of 12,000 employees each year. However, there is no mention of the population from which the sample size of 12,000 was selected or how the figure was arrived at. Despite the short-comings, their research design choice was not appropriate given the period of time the study took. A longitudinal research design would have been the most appropriate.

The purpose of Kinyanjui's (2013) study was to investigate innovative strategies for managing workforce diversity in Kenya's leading corporations. However, the study adopted a qualitative desk review of the previous researches. As a result, additional and empirical research on the influence of diversity management on employee commitment is needed. A descriptive research conducted by Galgalo & Guyo (2013) to investigate how diversity management practices have been exploited in the civil service in Kenya, established that the support from management, recognition of the different views, eradication of prejudices and biases, and the empowerment of employees on issues of diversity results in high performance. Furthermore, keeping of diversity inventories, incorporation of employees in making of decisions and creating workable policies and programs to regulate diversity tend to support diversity practices. However, diversity management practices are poorly implemented and that the eradication of prejudices and biases, together with employee empowerment on diversity issues has not been done. Therefore, the HR department receives less attention and support on issues of HR diversity.

However, the measures of diversity management practices have rather been poorly defined. Eradication of biases and Prejudice is simply an indication but not necessarily a practice of diversity management. In addition, the study adopted a census method to use all the 42 ministries in Nairobi County, but also used a sample frame of all the HR department personnel. In contradiction, the study failed to address how many respondents were involved and how they were arrived at. Similarly, the specific objectives were very poorly structured that the research only wanted the "yes or no" type of responses.

2.7 Research Gaps

A summary of the research gaps as obtained from the previous research are shown in table 2.1

Table 2.1: Research Gaps

Author(s) & Year	Objective	Methodology	Findings	Research gap
Rumana & Mutuku (2017)	to establish the effect of age and cultural diversity on the performance of organizations in the quality control sector,	Descriptive research design was used with a simple random sampling technique	Despite the importance of diversity strategies to the organizations' performance, cases of discrimination and workforce parity are still prevalent in many organizations in Kenya.	The study focused more on the dimensions of diversity in terms of age and culture rather than the HR diversity management practices which could be more encompassing. It also focused on the performance rather than employee commitmitment
Kyambi (2015)	to determine the influence of diversity training on the performance of noncommercial government agencies in Kenya.	The study adopted a descriptive research design. Data analysis was done using both descriptive, correlation and simple regression analysis.	The study found that diversity training was positively and significantly associated with organizational performance in non-commercial government agencies in Kenya	Although the study had a moderating variable, it only assumed a linear relationship, with no hierarchical and step wise regression to test for the moderation. -Similarly, the study related diversity training with organizational performance, but in non-commercial governmental

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				agencies. The current study was carried out in commercial banks in Kenya.
Nguyen (2014)	to examine how diversity training was developed and implemented in SMEs in USA.	The study used a descriptive survey research design. Data analysis was done using both descriptive and simple regression analysis	-The study established that diversity training was not being offered beyond the awareness level, and that it was being conducted without undertaking the needs assessment exercise.	-The study also assumed a linear relationship without either a moderating or mediating variable to the relationship, hence the inclusion of the moderator in this study.
			-Further, the Support for programs of diversity training were varied from one organization to the next	-The study was done in USA, and in SMEs, while the current study was carried out in Kenyan commercial banks
Reynolds *et al.* (2014)	to establish the perception of managers of hotels about the value of diversity training	Used a very small sample size, and hence, a very low response rate	The study found that the program of diversity training was not significantly correlated with the commitment of employees from the ethnic minority managers. This was not the case for those managers from the non-ethnic minority.	-Very low response rates. -The study was carried out in USA, and in the hotel industry, with no moderating variable.
Madera (2013)	An inquiry into the best practices in management of diversity within the customer service	The study used a descriptive survey research design. Data analysis was done using both descriptive,	A positive and significant correlation was found between the variables(predictor and predicted variables).	-a direct linear relations were found with no moderating or mediating variable between them, hence the inclusion of the

firms.	correlation and simple regression analysis		moderator in this study. -The study was also carried out in USA, and in the hotel industry, while the current study was carried out in Kenyan commercial banks
Ashikali & Groeneveld (2013)	An investigation about the practice of diversity management in public firms and how the practice affects the affective construct of employee commitment, with transformational leadership and inclusiveness as the moderator to the relationship	The study used a descriptive survey research design. Data analysis was done using both descriptive, correlation and simple regression analysis	The study findings indicated a strong connection between the management of diversity and the affective construct of commitment.	-The study only looked at one construct of employee commitment (affective) and did not test for the association with other constructs (continuance and normative commitments). -Further, the study used transformational leadership as a moderator, and carried out in Australia
Tandrayen-Ragoobur and Pydayya's (2016)	To determine how wage differntials among the different types of gender working in both public and private sector employment	The study used a cross sectional research design, and simple correlation and the techniques of regression were used for the analysis.	-the study found a statistical significant difference between the male and the female wages at all points of the wage distribution	Empirical evidence on gender wage gap remained inconclusive and hence, a similar research to be done in a different sector such as banking but with a different HR outcome such as employee commitment.
Madera, Dawson and	To examine how the psychological	The study used a survey research	The study found out that racial-ethnic identity	The study was also conducted in the USA, and in the hotel

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Guchait (2016)	diversity climate affected job satisfaction of managers of various hotels in USA, with the status of racia-ethnic minority as the moderator between diversity climate and job satisfaction.	design, conducting the research in hotel industry in the USA.	moderated the relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction	industry, yet the current study was carried out in Kenyan commercial banks -The variables picked on were different, the current study looks at the practices of diversity and not on dimensions of diversity
Mutuku, K'Obonyo & Awino (2013)	Effect of Top management team diversity on performance of banks in Kenya as moderated by the quality of decisions.	Conducted a descriptive research design, and used a purposive sampling technique.	They recommend that other researches should be conducted by using other moderating variables other than the quality of decisions.	-Other researches should be conducted by using other moderating variables other than the quality of decisions, hence organizational support.
Munjuri & Maina (2013)	To determine how workforce diversity can affect the performance of employees working in banks in kenya	The study adopted a descriptive survey, and a purposive sampling technique, The sample size was only obtained from Nairobi county in 25 commercial banks	The study established varying degrees of workforce's diversity on performance. Further, the study established a significant correlation between diversity management and organizational performance	The study used diversity dimensions such as age and gender as the constructs with performance as the outcome. This study used HR diversity practices as the predictors Further research in the same area and with a different outcome such as employee commitment.

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Kim *et al.* (2015)	To determnine how the management of workplace diversity affects a very high male dominated Culture.	The study adopted a survey research design, conducting it in the hotel industry in USA.	Practices of diversity management were given less attention in many organizations because of the misconception that diversity management is less relevant in most Asian countries due to their racial homogeneity.	They recommended the replication of the same study by using a larger sample and in a more diverse country and industry.
Soldan and Nankervis (2014)	to determine how employees perceive the effectiveness of diversity management in Australian public service.	The study adopted a survey research design.	The study submitted that there is a non-existence relationship between what diversity management policy seeks to accomplish and the reality experienced by employees in the organizations.	It recommended that future researches should go beyond the influences of diversity management practices and organizational performance and hence, employee commitment.

2.8 Summary of Literature Review

This study identified four categories of practices or constructs of diversity management as used by various organizations and discussed by various researches. The four categories included; diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking. Organization support was adopted and discussed as a moderating variable between the predictor and the predicted variables. This study may contribute to diversity management literature by investigating each diversity management practice's influence on the commitment of employees working in the sector of commercial banks with cognizance to the specific practice as adopted by the banks.

The sample that was drawn from commercial banks in Kenya provided a window into the diversity management practices as used by all. Given that all banks have HR diversity such as women, physically challenged persons, and other minority groups, the sector's management could use findings from this study to establish which one of these practices could be most successful for them. This may then act as successful models of diversity management in other sectors of the economy.

Similarly, reviewed theories directed that the study would test the hypotheses set after the verification of the assumptions of the linear regression models made. Variables of diversity training, building cultural awareness, and diversity reward were explained by the social identity, equity, institutional, open systems and the social exchange theories. According to Waight and Madera (2011), social identity theory provides a fundamental explanation about diversity training and building cultural awareness on employee commitment, while social exchange theory explains vividly the reasons behind diversity reward, diversity networking and the use of organizational support as a moderator.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology that was applied in carrying out this study as organized under the following themes: research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, pilot study, data collection procedure, measurement of variables, reliability and validity of research instruments, data processing and analysis.

3.2. Research Design

A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that combines relevance to the purpose of research (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). It is a blue print, plot and an edifice of investigation that can be conceived to obtain answers to given research questions (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Saunder, Lewis & Thomhill, 2014; Cooper & Schindler, 2011). This study adopted a descriptive survey research design. Surveys are data collection methods and techniques which involve asking individual questions to produce statistics about the characteristics of the population (Kothari, 2004). The design is done by administering a questionnaire that is either oral or written to a group of respondents with the responses forming the data for the study (Fraenkel &Wallen, 2006). Survey research is very prominent as a methodology which has been used extensively to study organizational problems in a structured manner (Malhotra & Grover, 1998).

This is the best design for social scientists who are always interested in original data collection in order to describe a population that could either be too large for direct observation (Singh, 2006). In addition, surveys enable researchers to obtain data about practices or situations at one point in time using questionnaires (Cooper & Schindler,

2011; Ngechu, 2010). The design involves the collection of some standardized information in a structured format. Therefore, a survey research design fitted well with the investigation that did seek to interrogate the correlation between diversity practices and commitment of employees as the best source of information. Similarly, many researchers have successfully utilized this research design in related fields (Jin *et al.*, 2017; Choi & Rainey, 2014; D'Netto *et al.*, 2014; Madera, 2013; Waight & Madera, 2011).

3.2.1 Research Philosophy

All researches are based on some underlying philosophies that tell the most appropriate research design for the study (Saunder, Lewis & Thomhill, 2014). Philosophies are the entire constellation of values, beliefs and techniques among many others, that are shared by members of a given discipline or community (Maxwell, 2011; Creswell, 2007). They are logical and consistent systems of thought upon which research studies and practices are based. These philosophies clarify the way data about a phenomenon can be collected, analyzed, and interpreted to give answers to research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2014; Maxwell, 2011). In addition, such philosophies also indicate the limitations of approaches and show how to adapt the research design to the constraints of different knowledge structures.

There are several research philosophies some of whom include; epistemology thinking whose aspects include Positivist, Interpretivist and realism (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). It is concerned with what constitutes acceptable knowledge in one's field of study. Ontology as a way of thinking about the research philosophy is classified into objectivism and subjectivism (Saunder, Lewis & Thomhill, 2014; Cooper & Schindler, 2011). It concerns itself with the nature of reality (Saunder, Lewis & Thomhill, 2014; Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz, 1998). Other philosophical thinking includes the pragmatism and axiological philosophies.

This research study sought to make use of both objective and subjective lenses of the ontology philosophy by adopting a descriptive survey research design. The ontology philosophy, concerns itself with the nature of reality with its two aspects (objectivism and subjectivism) which have their devotees within the management researches for their production of valid knowledge (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Saunder *et al.,* 2014). Objectivism portrays a position that things such as social entities in reality are external to and independent of the social actors concerned with their existence (Saunder *et al.,* 2014). For instance, although the management of diverse workforce may differ from one bank to another, it remains a function of different objective aspects of management such as diversity training, diversity reward, diversity networking and cultural diversity.

Similarly, subjectivism is another aspect of ontology philosophy which asserts that social phenomena are created from perceptions and consequent actions from these social actors (Saunder *et al.,* 2014; Cooper & Schindler, 2011). However, social interactions among social actors are in a continued process (Ramenyi *et al.,* 1998). Even so, social phenomena and perceptions such as discrimination, prejudice, stereotypes and exclusions may also be in a constant state of review through building of cultural awareness, diversity training and diversity networking.

3.3 Target Population

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010) a population can be defined as the total collection of all the elements on which the inference can be made to all possible cases which are of interest to the research study. Further, Orodho (2003) describes the population as a large collection of all subjects from where a sample can be drawn. He distinguishes it from the target population which he describes as the totality of cases that conform to the designated specifications as required by the research study. It could be people, events, other objects or something of interest to the study. The study targeted 36, 212 employees working in 43 banks in Kenya (CBK, 2016). In total, these commercial

banks consist of 1443 branches across the country (CBK annual report, 2015) with employees mainly categorized into three levels of operation as presented in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Target Population in Banks

Title	Population N_K	% Representation n_k
Top management	6,973	19.2
Supervisory	10,310	28.5
Lower cadre employees	18,929	52.3
Total	36,212	100

Source: CBK Report, 2015

3.4 Sampling Frame

On the sampling frame, Kothari and Garg (2014) defines it as a list which contains all the sampling units. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), a sampling frame is a list of all the items from which a representative sample can be drawn. For purposes of this study, the sampling frame comprised of all the top managers, supervisory employees and the lower cadre employees working in the 43 licensed banks in Kenya.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a portion of a population (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). It is a smaller group selected from the larger group which is used to make inference to the larger population (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). On the other hand, a sample size can be defined as the number of items that can be nominated from a universe (Kothari & Garg, 2014) which should not be too large nor too small but rather a representation of the target population that can be reached physically (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Thus, to get the required sample size, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formulae was used to obtain 384 respondents. The formula shows that when the study population is more than 10,000 then the sample size is calculated as:

$$n_0 \quad = \frac{Z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

Where:

n_0 = desired sample size (for a target population > 10,000 employees),

z = standard normal deviate at the requisite confidence level

p = the target population's proportion estimated to contain the measured characteristics = 0.5; q = 1- p and d = statistical significance level, set at = 0.05

Normally, $n_0 = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.50)\ (0.50)}{(0.05)^2}$

$\quad\quad\quad = 384$ respondents.

In addition, sampling is selecting a group of content units to analyse. It is the process of selecting individuals from a given sample to act as respondents in a research study (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). Accordingly, sample selection depends entirely on the target population's homogeneity, target population's size and the required degree of precision. Consequently, the characteristic of this data was divided into three strata (i.e. top management, supervisors and those in the lower cadre). Therefore, stratified sampling technique was used. Stratified sampling is a process in which certain subgroups or strata are selected for the sample in the same proportion as they exist in the population (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Thus, the sample size for each stratum was obtained by the proportionate stratified allocation formulae as obtained in Kothari (2004; pp 63), in which the sizes of samples as obtained from different strata were proportionally kept to the sizes of the strata. Proportionate allocation method is considered to be the most efficient and optimal design when the cost of selecting an item is equal for each stratum, when there is no difference in within-stratum variances, and

when the purpose of sampling is to approximate the value of some characteristics in the population (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Kothari, 2004). Therefore, by the application of this formulae the size of each sample in the stratum was obtained as indicated in table 3.2:

3.5.1 Sampling Technique

The study used simple random technique to select the samples from each stratum. According to Kothari (2004), a simple random sampling can be seen as a subset of the respondents chosen from a large population. Respondent are chosen randomly and entirely by chance from the entire population or from each strata, such that each respondent has the same probability of being chosen (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Kothari, 2008; Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The sampling technique allows one to externally make valid conclusions about the whole population based on the sample obtained. Thus, its benefit is that, this technique is free from errors of classification, besides its requirement for minimum advance knowledge about the population (Saunder *et al.*, 2014; Kothari & Garg, 2014; Fraenkel *et al.*, 2012; Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Therefore, respondents from every sub-group were selected for inclusion in the sample size using the simple random sampling technique. To determine each category's sample size, the calculations were done proportionately as indicated in table 3.2 and by use of the formulae;

$n_k = N_k \div N \times 384$

where N_k is population for each strata

N is the target population (36,212)

n_k is the sample size for each strata

Table 3.2: Sample Size per Stratum in Banks

Title	Population N_K	Sample n_k
Top management	6,973	74
Supervisory	10,310	109
Lower cadre employees	18,929	201
Total	36,212	384

According to Salant and Dillman (1994), the sample size should always be increased when the study uses stratified samples to maintain the necessary precision. Hence, this research study self-administered more than 384 (400 to be specific) questionnaires in commercial banks to cater for the discrepancies brought about through such things as uncollected or incomplete questionnaires. Respondents were drawn from 12 commercial banks at branch levels in five counties of Kisumu, Vihiga, Kakamega, Bungoma and Busia. These banks included; Kenya Commercial Bank (61), Cooperative Bank (53), Family Bank (43), Equity Bank (49), Standard Chartered Bank (13), Barclays Bank (9), Diamond Trust Bank (7), National Bank of Kenya (6), Bank of Baroda (4), Commercial Bank of Africa (9), Spire Bank (4), and Sidian Bank (3). In total, the number of banks from which data was obtained, consisted of 27.91 per cent. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), 10 % of the targeted population can constitute the sample size when conducting a survey research. The current research study exceeded this assertion. A summary of the respondents per each bank are shown in table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Respondents's Bank List

	NAME OF THE BANK	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS
1	Kenya Commercial Bank	61
2	Cooperative Bank	53
3	Equity Bank	49
4	Family Bank	43
5	Standard Chartered Bank	13
6	Barclays Bank	9
7	Commercial Bank of Africa	9
8	Diamond Trust Bank	7
9	National Bank of Kenya	6
10	Spire Bank	4
11	Bank of Baroda	4
12	Sidian Bank	3
	Total	**254**

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Data refers to the various types of information that is collected for research or assessment (Fraenkel *et al.*, 2012). Accordingly, such data can either be written essays, responses to the researcher's questions or written replies to a survey questionnaire. In addition, data collection refers to the gathering of information to serve or prove some facts (Kothari & Garg, 2014). This study gathered primary data by use of questionnaires which consisted of two parts and seven sections. Part I obtained the respondents' demographic information such as gender, age, level of education and employee's tenure. Further, part II was divided into six sections. Section A-F sought to obtain responses to the likert scale items on diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking as the independent variables. Section A with 10 items, asked questions linked to diversity training and adapted from previous authors in the same field.

Section B had 10 items and asked questions related to the construct of diversity reward (as adapted from Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Chew, 2008) in the various commercial banks.

Section C had nine items as used by Patrick and Kumar, (2012), to measure the variable of building cultural diversity awareness among employees. Similarly, section D had 8 questionnaire items as adapted from previous researches. Section E had organizational support as the variable which was also divided into person focused and task focused organizational support (Asya, 2011). Commitment of employees was measured in terms of the normative, continuance, and affective commitments (Mukanzi *et al.,* 2014; Meyer *et al.*, 2012). It was done in section F of the questionnaire.

Closed-ended questions with ordered choices were mainly used and required the respondents to examine each response independent of other choices given (McIntyre, 1999). The choices formed a continuum of responses which was provided by the Likert scales and numerical ranges. Cooper and Schindler (2011) opined that Likert scales are used frequently as variation of the summated rating scale; they are most reliable and provide greater volume of data than many scales. They are also a better approximation of the normal response curve.

3.6.1 Data Collection Procedures

According to Goddard and Melville (2006), the collection of data is a process of obtaining data for a given research study. Consequently, there are three main methods to obtain information with regard to data for research (Fraenkel *et al.* 2012). These methods include: collection by the researchers themselves (with no or very little involvement from other people), direct collection from respondents of the study and lastly, collection from others, that are frequently called, the informants. This study collected the information regarding data using self-administered questionnaires from the top management, supervisors and the lower cadre staff. Before the distribution of questionnaires to the respondents, an approval to carry out the study was obtained from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), which recommended that the study be carried out in Kakamega County. However, because of the nature of this as well as its own level, more commercial banks from the counties of

Kisumu, Vihiga, Bungoma and Busia were included. Each questionnaire had a cover letter that explained the objective of the survey and assured respondents of the confidentiality of their responses. A follow-up was made to the administered questionnaires to enhance the response rate. These questionnaires were administered to 384 employees of all categories and the collected data was edited carefully for purposes of correcting and adjusting any omissions, inconsistencies, irrelevant answers and wrong computations from the survey. After editing, the data obtained was organized or classified according to some common characteristics possessed by the distinct items in the questionnaire. Finally, the obtained data was arranged in columns and rows for absolute clarity in the data presented.

3.7 Pilot Study

According to Kothari and Garg (2014), a pilot study is a small study conducted prior to a large piece of research to determine whether the methodology, sampling, instruments and analysis are adequate and appropriate. Failure to pilot can contribute to haphazard work in the field (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Besides, a pre-test can help identify the short comings that could be experienced during the actual study and hence, put in place corrective measures. Therefore, during piloting, draft questionnaires were distributed to 25 employees in three commercial banks in Kakamega County, who were then excluded in the final data collection. This constituted 6.51% of the sample targeted. Cooper and Schilder (2011) opined that 5% to 10% of the sample targeted should comprise the pilot test for assisting in the establishment of the reliability of the questionnaire. The 25 questionnaires were self-administered. In the end, all the 25 questionnaires distributed for the pilot study were received and re-serialized. They were then coded and entered into the SPSS software for analysis by use of the descriptive (percentages) and inferential statistics, applying correlations and regressions. However, at this point, the study was more concerned with the reliability and validity of the research instruments as adapted from the previous relevant researches.

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3.7.1 Reliability of Research Instruments

Reliability test is used to measure a research instrument and figure out whether the instrument can be used as a measuring tool or not (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). It is the extend to which measures can be free from random error and hence, yield consistent results (Zikmund, 2003) and ascertain the research instrument's consistency when the process is repeated (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Yin (2003) explains that 'the main goal of a reliability test is to minimize the biases and errors in a research study,' which is an important consideration when assessing the value of any research. Thus, to determine the reliability as based on internal consistency, the Cronbach alpha (α) formula was applied and the results obtained from the pilot study presented in table 3.3.

Table 3.4: Cronbach Alpha Coefficients of Variables

Composite Variable	Cronbach Alpha	Number of Items	Comment
Diversity Training	0.795	10	Accepted
Diversity Reward	0.871	10	Accepted
Building Cultural Awareness	0.812	9	Accepted
Diversity Networking	0.703	8	Accepted
Organizational Support	0.826	10	Accepted
Employee Commitment	0.894	17	Accepted

To obtain the reliability coefficient, the questionnaires that were distributed for the pilot study were received and coded. They were then entered in the SPSS program software and the Cronbach test approach used to test for reliability of the questionnaire items. Cronbach alpha scanning is used to assess for internal consistency of each variable as used in the study (Cooper & Schilder, 2011; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In addition, Kothari and Garg (2014) posited that a Cronbach Alpha coefficient which is usually

expressed as $0 \geq \alpha \leq 1$, is acceptable when the obtained value is greater than 0.7. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was obtained for all variables: diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness, diversity networking, organization support and employee commitment, which gave alpha coefficients of more than 0.7 (see table 3.3). Hence, the questionnaire was reliable and suitable for data collection.

3.7.2 Validity of Research Instruments

Validity can be defined as the extent to which the results obtained represent a phenomenon being studied (Kothari & Garg, 2014). It is the appropriateness, correctness, meaningfulness and the usefulness of any inferences that the researcher draws based on the data collected by use of an instrument (Fraenken & Wallen, 2006). Thus, it can be used as a measurement to figure out how a research instrument meets its function. In essence, it is the most important idea to consider when selecting an instrument for data collection. According to Yin (2003), Creswell and Miller (2010), there exists three main categories of validity: construct validity, content validity, and criterion validity.

Construct validity can be defined as the degree of correspondence that exists between the constructs of the research instrument and their measures (Creswell & Miller, 2010; Bagozzi, Yi & Lynn, 1991). It defines how well a test instrument measures up to its claims and a necessity of ensuring that the things being investigated are valid proxies for the concepts that are the subject of the research objectives (Yin, 2003). To ensure construct validity, the study used multiple sources of evidence in form of employees at all levels, established a chain of evidence from them and key informants' review of case study reports as recommended by Yin (2003). The chain of evidence comprised employees' own assessment of their behavior, which could be reflected in organizations' HR diversity practices. The study also adapted the specific constructs as espoused by the previous researches since psychometricians (Nunnally, 1978; Cronbach, 1971) argued that to construct new measures for similar situations and variables can be very wasteful

in research. Accordingly, the choice of any validity procedure is governed by the lens that the researchers choose to validate the instruments or the paradigm assumptions of the study (Creswell & Miller, 2010).

Similarly, content validity is the degree of content coverage by the instrument which the instrument is supposed to measure. It is the extent to which an instrument provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions that guide the study (Wilson, Pan & Schumsky, 2012; Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Accordingly, if the instrument happens to contain a representative sample of the entire universe of the subject matter, then its content validity is said to be good, and the converse would be true (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Thus, the content validity of an instrument depends on the adequacy of the specified domain of the content that is sampled which could be obtained from the three sources of literature, experts and representatives of relevant populations under study (Yaghmaei, 2003).

To enhance and ensure for content validity, the questionnaire was given to a set of five HR experts from the corporate sector selected to judge how well the instrument met the standards. Their response on each item was evaluated by the content validity ratio (CVR), such that any item perceived to be 'essential' by more than two HR experts, was taken to have some degree of content validity. Contrary to that, it was rated 'non-essential'. However, the item that could not meet the statistical significance value (threshold) was supposed to be dropped and the rest to be retained. The higher the number of panelists (beyond 2 out of 5) who perceived each item as 'essential', the greater was the degree of content validity of the research instrument (questionnaire). Given these assumptions, the content validity ratio (CVR) formula was used as developed by Lawshe in 1975 (Wilson, Pan & Schumsky, 2012). That is:

$$CVR = [(N_e - (N / 2)) / (N / 2)]$$

Where;

N_e = number of panellists that indicated 'essential'

N = total number of panellists (5)

There was no chance of a zero CVR value since there was no definite half of 5 experts. However, when less than three out of five panellists indicated that the item was 'essential', then the CVR for that item would become negative. In the final analysis, the CVR for the whole test was computed giving an average value of 0.8 and thus, all the items except one were identified for inclusion into the ultimate questionnaire.

In addition, adapting the items of questionnaire from prior relevant researches (Nguyen, 2014; D'Netto *et al.,* 2014; Eisenberger *et al.,* 2008; Mukanzi *et al*., 2014; Patrick & Kumar, 2012; Asya, 2011; McGuire & Bagher, 2010; Leveson *et al*., 2009; Chew 2008; Meyer & Allen, 1991) also helped to enhance the content validity. Primarily, content validity is concerned with inferences about the constructs of the research instruments rather than the scores of the test. Therefore, measuring content validity of the research instruments is very critical since it also helps to ensure that construct validity is achieved, giving the reader and the researcher more confidence about the instrument (Yaghmaei, 2003). In addition, Cooper and Schindler (2011) opined that criterion validity is usually reflected in the success of the measures used for the predictive or estimation of the constructs.

3.8 Measurement of the Variables

According to Kothari and Garg (2014) measurement is the process of mapping aspects of a domain onto other aspects of range and then transforming the properties of objects from the domain onto the scale. Table 3.4 indicates how HR diversity practices, as well as employee commitment were measured in this study. The explanatory variable (diversity training) was measured by ten questionnaire items which were adapted partly

from Nguyen (2014), and D'Netto and Sohal (1999). Diversity reward was also measured by use of two sub constructs (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) with ten questionnaire items which were also adapted from Chew's (2008) and D'Netto *et al.'s* (2014) research surveys. Building cultural awareness as a predictor variable was measured by nine questionnaire items adapted from Patrick and Kumar's (2012) measurements of cultural diversity awareness. In addition, the fourth predictor variable of diversity networking was also measured by use of eight questionnaire items adapted from Madera (2013), O'Toole and Meier's (2004) previous researches.

To operationalize organizational support as the moderating variable, two sub constructs of 'person focused support' and 'task focused support' were used with ten questionnaire items as adapted from Eisenberger *et al.* (2013), Asya (2011) and as espoused from Eder and Eisenberger (2008). Similarly, the predicted variable of employee commitment was measured by use of the model constructs of normative, continuance and affective commitments. The composite variable used 17 questionnaire items, adapted from Mukanzi *et al*. (2014) as well as Asya (2011), and as obtained from Meyer and Allen (1991). These measurements were as shown in table 3.4:

Table 3.5: Operationalization and Measurement of Variables

Variable	Name of variable	Operationalization	Measurement	Measurement scale/adapted from
Dependent variable	Employee Commitment	Affective Commitment	-Happy to spend career within -Emotional attachment -Personal meaning -Sense of belonging -Part of family -Firms problem are my own	5-point likert scale; adapted from Mukanzi *et al.*(2014); Asya (2011);Meyer & Allen (1991)
	Employee commitment	Continuance Commitment	-Hard for me to leave -Work for overall benefits -Work not to disrupt my life -Stay as a matter of necessity -Few options to leave	5-point likert scale; adapted from Mukanzi *et al.*(2014); Asya (2011); Meyer & Allen (1991)
	Employee commitment	Normative Commitment	-Moral obligation to stay -Deserve my loyalty -Feeling of guilt to leave	5-point likert scale; adapted from Mukanzi *et al.*(2014); Asya (2011); Meyer & Allen (1991)

				-Put in soo much to leave	
				-Nice place to work	
				-Not right to leave	
Moderating variable	Organizational Support	Person Support	Focused	-Cares about employee's well being	5-point likert scale; adapted from Eisenberger *et al.*(2013); Asya (2011); Eder & Eisenberger (2008)
				-Considers goals and values	
				-Cares for opinion on personal matters	
				-Help to perform on the job	
				-Helps when in personal problems	
	Organizational support	Task Support	Focused	-Appreciates extra effort	5-point likert scale; adapted from Eisenberger *et al.*(2013); Asya (2011); Eder & Eisenberger (2008)
				-Shows concern on my work success	
				-Fairly compensates for effort	
				-Goals and values on work issues	
				-Provision of practical assistance on work	

Independent variable	Diversity Training	Attitude change towards others	-Training programs in diversity availed -Induction programs on diversity issues -Training for reduction of stereotypes -Frequent diversity workshops -Training opportunities to all -Allows all to participate in training	5-point likert scale; obtained from Nguyen (2014); D'Netto & Sohal (1999)
	Diversity training	Diversity training effectiveness	-Frequent needs assessment on diversity -Discrimination in selection to train -Assessment of cultural skills	5-point likert scale; adapted from Nguyen (2014); D'Netto & Sohal (1999)
Independent variable	Diversity Reward	Individual based Rewards	-Fair salaries to all -Adequate bonuses to all -Fair promotion opportunities to all -Job security	5-point likert scale; adapted from Chew (2003); D'Netto & Sohal (2014)

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	Diversity reward	Performance based Rewards	-Diversity championship	5-point likert scale; adapted from Chew (2003); D'Netto & Sohal (2014)
			-Autonomous working	
			-Exemplary performance recognized	
			-Compensation structure	
			-Opportunities for advancement	
Independent variable	Building Cultural diversity Awareness	Respect for diversity	-Respect for customs and beliefs	5-point likert scale; adapted from Patrick & Kumar (2012)
		Awareness Individual differences	-Avoid terms that spotlight groups	
			-Diversity celebrations	
			-Personal attitudes and opinions	
			-Avoid stereotypic messages	
	Building cultural awareness	Diversity relationships	-Training on cultural awareness	5-point likert scale; adapted from Patrick & Kumar (2012)
			-Formation of positive relationships	
			-Equal treatment of others	
			-Broadening experience base	

Independent variable	Diversity Networking	Support Groups	-Establish support networks	5-point likert scale; adapted from Patrick & Kumar (2012)
			-Joining of support networks	
			-Information sharing	
			-Mutual support for colleagues	
	Diversity Networking	Social Grouping events	-Confronting stereotypes in meetings	5-point likert scale; adapted from Madera (2013); O'Toole & Meier (2004)
			-Keeping minutes for such meetings	
			-Organizing social events	
			-Cultivation of trust and good relations	

3.8.1 Control of Common Method Biases

Though the validity construct for all variables in the study was tested, the analysis for the study was indisputably influenced partially by the common method bias. This exist if some common variation between any two concepts does become a function of common measurement and/or source used to gather the data (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Meier & O'Toole 2013). It gives yield to systematic measurement errors which may inflate the relationships between variables (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). By so doing, such errors in measurement tend to threaten the validity of the conclusions made about the relationships between the different measures.

Thus, common method biases can be very problematic since they form the main sources of errors in measurements. Widely, measurement errors are recognized as having both a random and systematic component (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). One of the main sources of systematic measurement errors is the method variance which arises out of a variety of sources of data (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991). This means that the common method variance would occur when the measures of both the predictor and criterion variables are obtained from the same rater or source (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003). In this regard, diversity practices (explanatory variables) in commercial banks, organizational support (moderator) and commitment of the employees (dependent variable) were all measured by perceptions of respondents (individual employees within commercial banks) in one questionnaire.

However, to avoid common method biases, this study collected the measures of variables from different sources. The advantage of this procedure is that it makes it impossible for the mind-set of the source or the one rating to show bias over the some relationship between the explanatory and criterion variable. This eliminates the effects of consistency motifs, implicit theories, social desirability tendencies, dis-positional and transient mood states and any tendencies on the part of the rater to acquiesce or respond in a lenient manner. This study also obtained data from anonymous respondents

although they were assured that there was no right or wrong answers but they should answer the questions as honestly as possible.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

This study used descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) to summarize the demographic profiles of respondents and the results were presented in charts and tables. Percentages were also used to analyse and present the various responses to statements that helped the study to measure the specific variables. Furthermore, correlations and regressions were used to test the five hypotheses. Linear and multiple regressions were used to explain the amount of influence on the dependent variable (employee commitment) as a result of the change in the HR diversity practices.

3.9.1 Correlation analysis

To determine the direction and strength of relations between the variables measured, bivariate correlation analyses were conducted. This analysis enabled the assessment of the extent to which one variable (predictor variable) was linearly related to the other variable (predicted variable). Many research studies have analysed data by use of bivariate correlation to determine the significance of the relations between any two variables. For instance, a study that did seek to determine how training and development affects workforce diversity in the Public University in Kenya (Bana *et al.*, 2016), a correlation analysis was used and indicated a significat effect of training and development on workforce diversity. Similarly, Badhesha *et al.* (2008) did seek to establish how diversity training affects specific and the general attitudes of employees within a multi-cultural education technology. The correlation analysis carried out indicated a significant effect of diversity training practices on specific attitudes. Further research was conducted by Newman and Sheikh (2012) to examine how organization rewards employee commitment relationship can be moderated by respect for authority as the moderator. A correlation matrix obtained indicated that organization rewards and employee commitment are significantly related.

Therefore, this study used correlation analysis to link diversity practices with employee commitment, as well as to establish a direct association between organization support and the predicted variable. Tabachnick and Fidell, (2001) posited that correlation analysis tend to measure the magnitutde and direction of the relationship between the two variables. A negative correlation coefficient (R) indicates that there is an inverse relationship, implying that an increase in one variable would cause a similar decrease in another variable. When correlation analysis was completed, a regression analysis was conducted.

3.9.2 Regression Analysis (Using Summated Scores)

Linear and multiple regression analyses were used to determine the strength of association between a set of predictor variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness, and diversity networking) and Employee commitment together with its dimensions of normative, continuance and affective, commitment. Prior research studies also used regression analyses to study the relationships between diversity management practices and HR outcomes such as employee performance or commitment among others (Kyambi, 2015; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013; Aladwan *et al.,* 2013).

Hierarchical and step-wise regression analyses were conducted to test for the moderating influence of organization support on the relationship between diversity management practices and the commitment of employees. In hierarchical regression, the dependent variable (employee commitment) was kept in raw form while the independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) and the moderator (organization support) were mean centered. Mean centering of predictor variables and the moderator can help reduce the risk of multi-collinearity (Chauhan, Ghosh, Rai & Kapoor, 2017). Further, the mean centered predictor variables and the moderator (organization support) were multiplied to create the interaction terms to be entered as a block in both hierarchical and step wise

regression models. Finally, a series of multiple regression analysis were carried out to test for the moderating influence of organization support on the relationship. Later, the interaction plots to show the level of relationships at high and low moderation, were generated using the process model by Andrew Hayes.

Two multiple regression models were used to interrogate the influence of diversity management on employee commitment. The first tested for the direct relationship between diversity management practices and commitment while the second was used to investigate whether organization support had a moderating influence on the relationship. Thus, the regression models used in this study were shown in equations I and II.

$$Y = \alpha + X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + X_3\beta_3 + X_4\beta_4 + \mu \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots \text{ (I)}$$

By multiplying the moderator through equation (I), equation (II) was obtained as shown:

$$Y = \alpha + X_1 X_5 \beta_6 + X_2 X_5 \beta_7 + X_3 X_5 \beta_8 + X_4 X_5 \beta_9 + \mu \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots \text{ (II)}$$

Where Y is Employee commitment;

X_1 is diversity training

X_2 is diversity Reward

X_3 is Building cultural awareness

X_4 is diversity Networking

X_5 is organizational support;

$\beta_1 - \beta_9$ are regression coefficients

μ is the error term

α is a constant or the y- intercept

3.9.3 Test of Assumptions

Since the classical linear regression analysis is underpinned by several assumptions that indicate whether the estimation techniques have desirable properties and that the hypotheses tests regarding the coefficient estimates can validly be conducted (Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, 2015; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2010), this study tested for five assumptions before the regression analysis was conducted. These assumptions were tested as described;

a) Test for Normality

Tests for Normality of any research data are very essential in determining whether or not the data obtained was modelled properly by a normal distribution (Moore & McCabe, 2014). This can be achieved through the construction of histograms or probability plots (P-P) in order to check for the data distribution. The most common numerical tests for normality are the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test. The most appropriate test is the latter for a relatively large sample sizes that range between 50-2000 items. If the significant value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test is greater than 0.05 (>0.05), then it means that the data set is normal. But if the significant value is less than 0.05 (<0.05), then the data set is said to be in a significant deviation from a normal distribution (Razali *et al.,* 2011). In the current study, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the P-P Plots were used to test for normality of the data collected.

b) Test for Linearity

Linearity test purposes to determine if the relationship between each of the predictor variables and the predicted variable is linear or not (Zientek, Kim & Bryn, 2016; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013). Linearity test is a requirement in both correlation and linear regression analysis. A good research in a regression model is one that shows a linear relationship between the predictor and the predicted variables. Linearity of the variables in this study was tested by use of 'the value significant deviation from linearity'. The rule of the thumb is that, this relationship is linear if the value sig. deviation from linearity is greater than 0.05, otherwise the contrary is true.

c) Test for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is the occurrence of the predictor variables being strongly correlated, such that it makes it difficult for one to determine the actual contribution of the respective predictor variables to the variance in the dependent variable (Zikmund *et al*., 2013; Zhang *et al*., 2011; Hair *et al*., 2010). The confirmatory tests for multicollinearity was done by use of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and its reciprocal the tolerance values.

d) Test for Heteroscedasticity

According to Gujarati and Porter (2009), heteroscedasticity is presented by the variations in the predicted variable all through the set data. It is the variance of error around the regression line such that this variance is not the same for all the predictors in the research study, or the errors of the model are not identically distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Accordingly, heteroscedasticity can be a source of threats to the error term which is supposed to be constant, since several regression analysis methods are based on assumption of equal variance (Park, 2008). To test for heteroscedasticity, the study used the Glejser test of heterogeneity of variances.

e) Test of Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation means that the variable observations are independent of each other (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Gujarati and Porter (2009) described autocorrelation as the correlation between members of a series of observations duly arranged based on time and space. To detect its presence or absence, the Durbin-Watson test was used. Accordingly, Durbin-Watson statistic varies from 0 to 4. A value closer to 4 indicates the existence of negative autocorrelation (Zikmund *et al*., 2013).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Any information obtained and identified with the respective respondents was and still remains confidential. If and when it will be requested, a summary of findings will be delivered to the respective commercial banks. Such data was obtained solely for research purposes and not for business. Similarly, participation of the respondents in this research was voluntary, and through informed consent. Therefore, there was no coercion of participants to give the required information. In addition, the questionnaire was structured such that the identification of the respondent by name was not a requirement and that such identity and the information given was and still is kept in strict confidence. Furthermore, the study stuck to the strict guidelines to produce an original document without having to plagiarize other authors' works.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This study investigated the influence of diversity management practices on commitment of employees in commercial banks in Kenya. Specifically, it examined how diversity practices variables such as diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking influence the commitment of employees. Further, it also investigated whether organization support can moderate the relationship between diversity practices and the commitment employees. Furthermore, this chapter presented empirical findings to the study using descriptive analysis and inferential statistics of Pearson correlation and the regression analyses. The coding of data was done and the analysis conducted in line with each independent variable used.

A statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 20 tool was used in the analysis. First, the study analyzed the sample population characteristics which were then presented in tables and figures. Secondly, the study analyzed the variables using descriptive statistics and discussed them according to the way they appear in the conceptual framework. Lastly, the inferential statistics of the variables was conducted using correlations and regression statistics after appropriately testing for the classical linear regression assumptions of normality, linearity, Multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity and independence of variables (auto correlation).

4.2 Response Rate

Response rate has been defined differently by different scholars. According to Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2003) response rate is the scope to which the final data includes all sample questions to be calculated, the total number of people whose items of interview are completed, and divided by the number of people in the entire sample.

Further, it includes those who may have refused to participate and those who may have been unavoidable and then multiplied by 100.

A total of 384 questionnaires were self-administered to the employees working in commercial banks, including the top managers, supervisory managers and those in the lower cadre. However, 254 questionnaires were successfully returned. This gave the rate of response at 66.15 per cent. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) pointed out that, 50 per cent response rate is adequate for descriptive surveys, while 60 per cent is good and above 70 per cent is very good. Based on such contention, the response rate for the study was rated as good. The good response rate can be attributed to the data collection procedures, in which the potential participants were notified of the intended survey. In a similar study about the effect of HR diversity management practices on employee sharing (Raza & Tariq, 2016), 60.9 per cent was obtained as the response rate.

Furthermore, a research study by Maingi and Makori (2015) about diversity in the workforce and performance of employees registered a 67.8 per cent response rate. Another research about the management of HR diversity and the performance of employees in government agencies which are non-commercial in nature (Kyambi, 2015) did register a response rate of 70.3 per cent. In contrast, Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) suggested that 100 responses for a survey type of research is a sufficient response rate. The respondent's characteristics included: gender, job category, age, education level and length of service. The target respondents were all employees from commercial banks in Kenya. For each characteristic, the results obtained were presented as shown in section 4.4.

4.3 Pilot Testing Results

The reliability of the data can be defined as the extent to which instruments of data collection give results that are consistent after repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). According to Creswell (2007), reliability coefficient estimates the consistency by determining whether each item on a test relate to all other items. It the best test for

internal consistency of the data. To determine for reliability (or internal consistency) of the data, the Cronbach Alpha (α) coefficient was used. That is, diversity management constructs (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking), the moderator (organization support) and commitment of employees (predicted variable) were all tested for reliability using the Cronbach alpha test which gave results as shown in table 4.1.

Diversity Training as a construct was measured by use of ten questionnaire items which were anchored on a likert scale of five points. Standardized Cronbach alpha examined gave a coefficient of 0.795. All the questionnaire items were adapted from Nguyen's (2014), and D'Netto's and Sohal's (1999) questionnaire items.

Diversity Rewards was the second construct in this study measured by ten questionnaire items, based on a five point's likert measure. The standardized Cronbach alpha examined gave a coefficient of 0.871. All questionnaire items for were adapted from a blend of Chew's (2008) and D'Netto *et al.'s* (2014) questionnaire items.

Building Cultural Awareness like the other two, building cultural awareness as a construct variable was measured by nine questionnaire items. All items were adapted from Patrick and Kumar's (2012) measurement of cultural diversity awareness, and gave an alpha coefficient of 0.812.

The fourth construct in this study was **Diversity Networking**. It was measured by eight questionnaire items or (8) declarative statements. It was adapted from a journal article by Madera (2013). The coefficient for the composite variable was given at 0.703 being the lowest but which was still above the recommended threshold value of 0.7.

On the other hand, **Organizational Support** was measured using two sub variables of person focused support and task focused support, as adapted from an article by Eisenberger *et al.* (2013); Asya (2011), Eder and Eisenberger (2008). It had a total of ten

questions, whose composite variable was measured on a five point likert scale, giving a very high Cronbach Alpha coefficient value of 0.826.

Finally, **Employee Commitment** as the predicted variable was measured using three constructs of normative, continuance and affective commitments., which were measured by six (6), five (5) and six (6) questionnaire items respectively. The items were adapted from previous researches of Mukanzi *et al.* (2014), and Asya (2011), who had earlier on adapted them from Meyer and Allen (1991). The Cronbach alpha examined for all the items gave the highest value of 0.894. A summary of the measurements with their Cronbach statistics are presented in table 4.1 as shown:

Table 4.1: Cronbach Alpha Coefficients

Composite Variable	Cronbach Alpha	Number of Items	N
Diversity Training	0.795	10	254
Diversity Reward	0.871	10	254
Building Cultural Awareness	0.812	9	254
Diversity Networking	0.703	8	254
Organizational Support	0.826	10	254
Employee Commitment	0.894	17	254

Therefore, based on the Cronbach alpha coefficients (Table 4.1) for all the composite variables in the study, it was found that the research instrument used was reliable enough and that the data collected was equally reliable. This is because all the variable items gave a composite Cronbach alpha of 0.795 for diversity training, 0.871 diversity rewards, 0.812 building cultural awareness, 0.703 diversity networking, 0.826

organizational support and 0.894 for employee commitment, all of which were above the acceptable 0.7 alpha coefficient value.

4.4 Demographic Information

This part of the study describes the study's population characteristics that relate to the collected and analyzed data. According to Mukanzi *et al*. (2014), every target population has got its characteristics. Hence, participants in the study were asked to indicate their gender, job category or position, age bracket, level of education and their tenure in the current commercial bank. The result for such information was summarized in the various sections.

4.4.1 Gender Distribution

The study did seek to establish the distribution in terms of gender as found in the banks in Kenya. From figure 4.1 the results revealed that commercial banks are composed of 61.8 per cent male employees and 38.2 per cent female workers. This results indicate that gender parity in the banks in Kenya is still not up to date. This contradicts many people's perceptions about male and female representation in the banking sector as being at par. The results of that distribution were presented in figure 4.1.
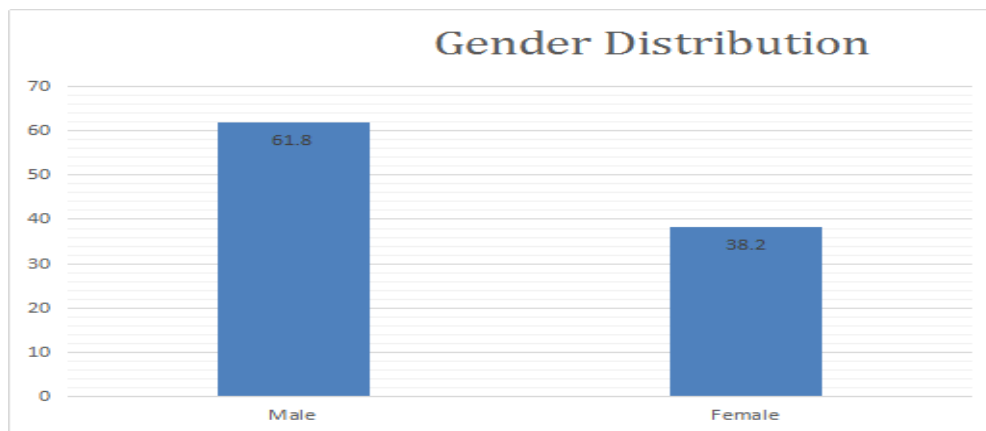
Figure 4.1: Gender Distribution

According to Ngigi (2014), women constitute 48 per cent of Barclays Bank employees, 43 per cent for employees of Co-operative Bank and 42 per cent for Kenya Commercial Bank's permanent workers. However, other banks have as low as 11.0 per cent. The findings were also supported by Mukanzi *et al.* (2014) who found out that the gender distribution in commercial banks stood at 55.6 per cent male and 44.4 per cent female at the time of his research. As a result, there is a low HR diversity in the sector which has deprived it of the alternative views to issues affecting it (Ngigi, 2014).

Similarly, the parity problem seems to be pronounced at the top management. Out of 37 respondents obtained from the top management, only 4 were female against 33 men. This translated to only 10.8 per cent women employees at the top as shown in table 4.2. The results in table 4.2 also indicated that female employees at the supervisory level exceeded the male employees by 55.7 per cent against 44.3 per cent respectively. The results are presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Job Category Vs Gender Cross Tabulation

		Gender	
		Male %	Female %
	Top Management	89.2	10.8
Job Category	Supervisory	44.3	55.7
	General Staff	62.2	37.8
Total		**61.8**	**38.2**

These results were inconsistent with the findings by Ngigi (2014), who pointed out that women find top jobs in the banks as being elusive to them, and that they only account for 29.0 per cent. Inconsistently, the Central Bank of Kenya (2015) survey also indicated that women occupy only 20.0 per cent of the positins at board of directors, with only two women serving as chairpersons at the time of this study. Nonetheless, Kundu and Mor (2017) posited that the promotion of gender diversity is positively and significantly related to employee performance. However, such a response rate can't generalized to the entire population of workers within commercial banks in Kenya.

On the international scene, Japan and Korea's private sector has 20.0 per cent and zero per cent respectively, in female and minority representation at the executive position (Magosh & Chang, 2009). According to Schwab *et al.* (2015), barriers to the promotion of women into top management positions still persist in many organizations. He further posited that for a company that tries to reach gender parity, its performance will be affected positively and so shall be the commitment of its employees. Similarly, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) argued that HR diversity management practices can closely be associated with increased employee commitment in an environment that is all-inclusive. Therefore, it is imperative that top managers in commercial banks should implement HR diversity practices to create an all-inclusive environment.

4.4.2 Age Distribution

The study also sought to analyze the distribution in terms age amongst the employees in commercial banks in Kenya. The results obtained in table 4.3 indicated that employees below the age of 34 years old were the majority at 138 (54.3 per cent), and those between 35 to 44 years were the second majority at 81(31.9 per cent). Respondents within the age bracket of 45-54 years old were also substantial at 34 in number representing 13.4 per cent. However, the sector still had a few employees above the age of 55 which accounted for approximately 0.4 per cent. The findings obtained were as shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Age Distribution

AGE		
	Frequency	Percent
<34	138	54.3
35-44	81	31.9
45-54	34	13.4
>55	1	.4
Total	**254**	**100.0**

The findings in table 4.3 implies that most of the workers in commercial banks is relatively young while the ageing generations of age 55 years and above were found to be declining in number. In a similar study, Kyambi (2015) found that 70.1 per cent of the workforce in the non-governmental agencies is between the age of 30 and 49 years. This was corroborated by another study done by Mbugua (2015) to establish if there is a significant correlation between strategic human resource (SHRM) and employee retention in commercial banks. This study found out that most employees (70.0 per cent) were below the age of 40 and only 28.0 per cent were between 40 and 50 years of age.

However, on the overall, the banking sector was found to be diverse in terms of its workforce. Therefore, the organizational management may need to engage better and most effective means of meeting the challenges of age as a diversity issue.

4.3.3 Academic Qualifications

The study also sought to establish the level of academic qualifications for the respondents. The findings in figure 4.2 show that 2.0 per cent of the participants in the study indicated that they were working within the banking sector on the strength of their certificate qualification while 4.4 per cent were diploma holders. However, these results also showed that 71.8 per cent of respondents were degree holders while 21.8 per cent had masters' degrees or post graduate eduaction. The results obtained were presented in figure 4.2 as shown:
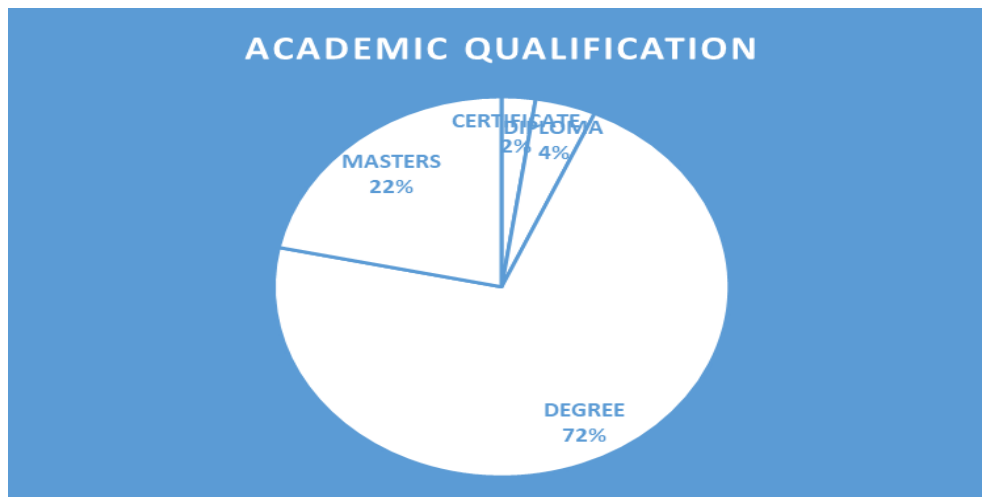
Figure 4.2: Academic Qualifications

Accordingly, the disparity in the education levels among the workforce may call for the opening up of more opportunities to have employees pursue further education that would bridge the gap between them. Previous research findings have noted that there exists a positive and significant relation between education level and commitment of employees (Mukanzi *et al.,* 2014; Orgun, Ozkutuk, & Bayık, 2007). Accordingly, Mukanzi *et al.*

(2014), opined that an improvement in the education status of an employee increases his or her occupational commitment. Equally, education status has been cited as a critical factor in helping the organization to survive, manage through difficult times as well as improve the organizational bottom line (Sabana, 2014).

4.4.4 Job Category

The study also surveyed a mixture of employees in terms of their job category and established that those from the lower cadre were the majority, followed by those in the supervisory level. The results as shown in figure 4.3 revealed that most respondents were employees from the lower cadre at 61 per cent (secretarial, clerical and support staff), while the lowest number was for the top managers at 15 per cent. The supervisors' percentage representation stood at 24 per cent. These findings can be shown in figure 4.3;
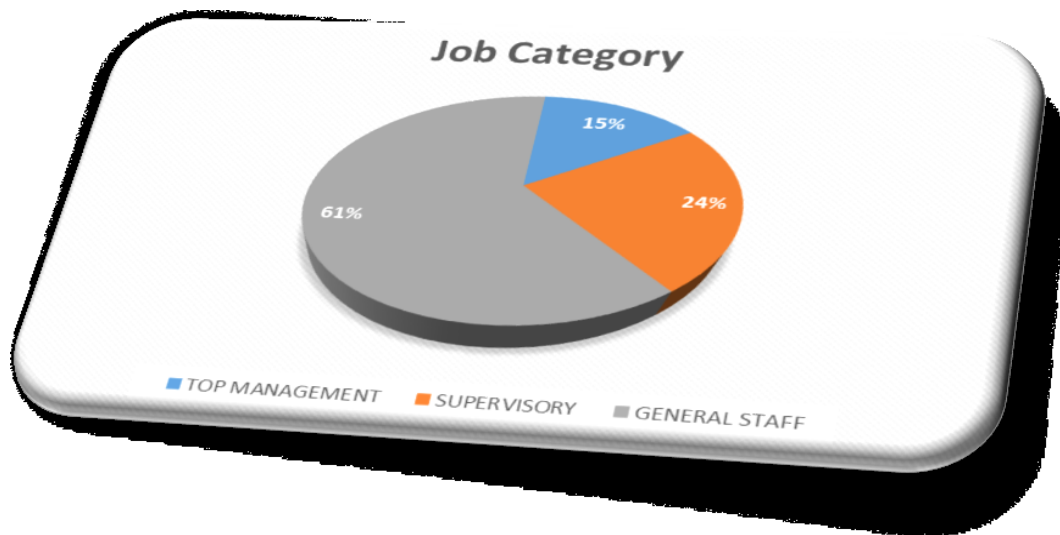
Figure 4.3: Job Category Distribution

The result is a typical managerial structure in many organizations whose top managers are always fewer than the rest of the staff (Kyambi, 2015; Mukanzi *et al.,* 2014).

4.4.5 Employees' Tenure

The study also summarized the employees' length of service. The results obtained indicated that a majority of participants (32.3 per cent) had been with the bank for more than a year but less than 4 years. Furthermore, 22.0 per cent of the same respondents had an experience of between 7-9 years in the same organization, while 21.3 per cent had worked for more than three years but less than seven years. Similarly, 13.0 per cent were said to have less than 1 year's experience in service. At the same time, commercial banks have more experienced workers with more than 10 years in service (at 11.4 per cent). Nonetheless, many of these group of employees were in positions of management. The results were as shown in figure 4.4.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

| <1 YEARS | 1- 3 YEARS | 4-6 YEARS | 7-9 YEARS | >10 YEARS |
| 13 | 32.3 | 21.3 | 22 | 11.4 |
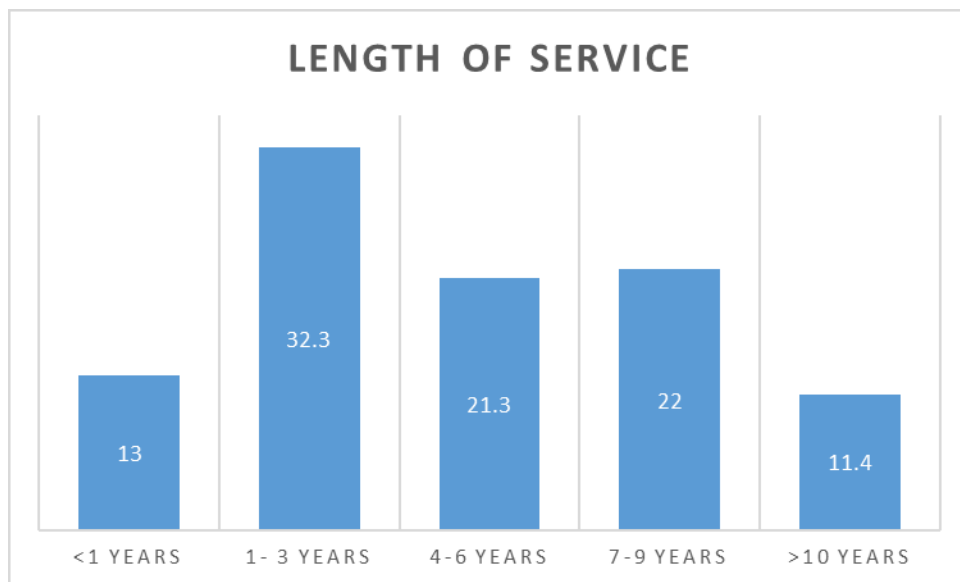
Figure 4.4: Length of Service

Therefore, based on figure 4.4, the banking sector seem to have HR diversity in its work experience. Consistent with this finding is the assertion that, injustices of HR diversity can be overcome by combining the fresh and the most experienced members of the workforce (Kyambi, 2015; Munjuri & Maina. 2013). The experienced employees tend to act as mentors to the new ones in those organizations that focus on narrowing the

experience in HR diversity at the workplace by creating an all-inclusive culture (Kyambi, 2015). Therefore, HR diversity in experience can be utilized to further organizational goals in many of the commercial banks under study.

4.5 Descriptive Analysis of variables

The study did seek to interrogate whether diversity management practices influences the commitment of employees in commercial banks in Kenya. This part provides a descriptive analysis of the predictor variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness, and diversity networking), moderating variable (organization support) as well as commitment (the predicted variable). The findings were presented by use of tables and pie charts.

4.5.1 Diversity Training

The study did seek to investigate the influence of diversity training on employee commitment in commercial banks. Diversity training was operationalized by ten (10) questionnaire items which were adapted from Nguyen (2014); D'Netto and Sohal (1999). First, the frequency of carrying out diversity training programs in the sector of commercial banks was sought. With a five-point likert scale, based on the time frame that commercial banks provide the programs to their diverse workforce, the measurement ranges from 1= Monthly, 2= Quarterly, 3= Semi-annually, 4= Annually and 5= Never. Results of figure 4.5 indicate that majority-101 (40.0%) of respondents were of the view that diversity training programs were offered monthly, with another 85 (34.0%) suggesting that they are offered quarterly. Similarly, 16.0% (41) of participants in the study said that they are employed by organizations that get provide diversity training opportunities twice each year. Nonetheless, 16 (6.0%) of respondents said that their banks provide them with opportunities for training on issues of diversity on an annual basis, and another 11 (4.0%) indicating that no training on diversity issues was provided to them at all. The findings are shown in figure 4.5.

FREQUENCY OF DIVERSITY TRAINING

- NEVER 4%
- ANNUALLY 6%
- SEMI ANNUALLY 16%
- MONTHLY 40%
- QUARTERLY 34%
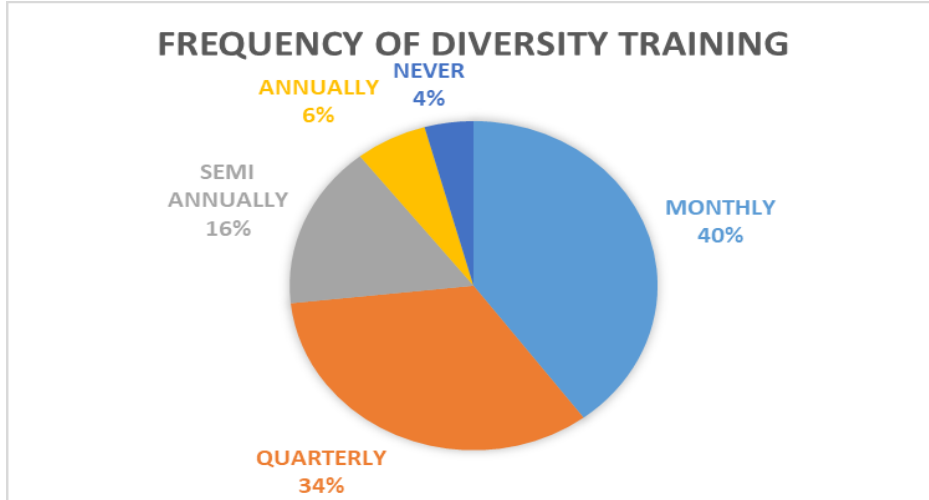
Figure 4.5: Frequency of Diversity Training

The findings in figure 4.5 revealed that commercial banks provide trainings on diversity although at levels and frequency that differs from each other. The findings are corroborated by Waight and Madera (2011) who noted that training for diversity is one tool that is used by many companies to manage HR diversity more successfully. Therefore, 67.5% of firms in USA are said to have training initiatives based on diversity which is carried out monthly (Madera, 2013). Therfore, it is the conclusion of this study diversity training should be institutionalized in order to increase commitment among employees.

Further, a follow up to investigate whether employees in commercial banks, are being exposed to numerous diversity training practices. In tandem with this, participants were probed to indicate the level of agreement or disagreement about the practice of diversity training on some declarative statements given. All measures to diversity training used a five point likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. The findings as in table 4.4 indicated that a majority (84.2%) of respondents believe that their banks have training programs on diversity issues. This was against 10.7% who either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement. Similarly, 88.9% of respondents agreed that their campanies have induction programs with the content touching on diversity issues.

However, 6.0 per cent either strongly disagreed or simply disagreed with the statement. At the same time, the study did seek to establish whether commercial banks provide workshops touching on diversity issues quite frequently. 77.9 % of those surveyed responded in favour of the statement while 8.3 per cent either strongly disagreed or disagreed.

In addition, the same findings indicated that 84.7 % of respondents agreed that their banks allow for people participate freely from all walks of life, while 4.7 per cent were not in favour of this fact. This response was supported by 83.0% of respondents who either strongly agreed or simply agreed with the idea that opportunites for training on diversity issues are provided to all. Cumulatively, 6.7 per cent did not agree with the statement. The responses for the majority corroborated similar findings about commercial banks providing diversity training for stereotype reduction, having been favoured by 80.4 % the respondents while 3.9 per cent either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement.

Equally, majority of participants (81.9 %) strongly agreed or simply agreed that before the program is carried out, management of banks tend to carry out a frequent assessment of needs (see table 4.4). This was against 8.7 per cent who cumulatively disagreed. Similarly, 87.4 % of respondents cumulatively agreed that the needs assessment is carried out for everybody within the organization. This was against 4.4 per cent who cumulatively disagreed with the statement. Table 4.4 also revealed that a majority (87.7%) cumulatively agreed that the selection for diversity training is carried out fairly and without and form of discrimination, while 4.7 per cent cumulatively disagreed with this fact. Results in table 4.4 also revealed that training for diversity and managerial skills, it was being provided for various commercial banks. 85.5 % of respondents cumulatively agreed with the statement against 4.7 per cent who could not favour the statement at all. Additionally, there was consistency to the likert statements about diversity training as shown in all the responses. These results are summarized as shown in table 4.4:

Table 4.4: Diversity Training Practices

Diversity training practices	SD	D	N	A	SA
	%	%	%	%	%
Diversity training programs availability	2.8	7.9	5.1	33.8	50.4
Induction on HR diversity issues	0.5	5.5	5.1	29.5	59.4
Participation of diverse groups	0.4	4.3	10.6	40.2	44.5
Frequent diversity workshops	0.4	7.9	13.8	37.8	40.1
Training opportunities to all	3.5	3.2	10.3	32.6	50.4
Training on stereotype reduction	0.8	3.1	15.7	35.8	44.6
Frequent training needs assessment	2.0	6.7	15.7	39.8	35.8
Needs assessment carried out to all	1.2	3.5	13.4	43.5	38.4
No discrimination in selection for diversity training participants	0.8	3.9	7.9	28.3	59.1
Diversity training for managerial skills	3.1	1.6	9.8	24.0	61.5

Key; SD= Strongly agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree nor disagree, A= Agree; SA= Strongly agree

From the findings (in table 4.4), the study concludes that a majority of commercial banks have programs which expose employees to diversity training, hence a source of employee commitment. The findings are collaborated with those of Roberson *et al*. (2013) who posited that 67.0% of organizations in USA have diversity training while Madera (2013) placed this figure at 67.5%. These responses were also supported by D'Netto and Sohal (1999) who suggested that the best practices in the area of diversity training include exposing learners to training programs and conducting a diversity training needs assessments or analysis.

4.5.2 Diversity Reward

This study did seek to determine the level to which diversity rewards are provided to a diverse workforce in commercial banks. The construct was measured by the extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions on a 5-point likert scale from 5= strongly agree to 1= strongly

disagree. This was meant to ascertain whether all employees get to benefit from diversity rewards as provided by commercial banks to boost their own commitment to the organization.

Table 4.5 show the results for the descriptive measure of diversity rewards. The table results revealed that 44.1% (majority) of respondents did strongly agree that their company provides them with autonomy in the performance of their jobs. A further 35.0 % simply agreed with the statement. This response was against 3.1 per cent of participants in the research who strongly disagreed with a further 7.9 per cent simply disagreeing with the same statement. Similarly, 41.4 % of the same research respondents strongly agreed that the firm they work for tend to recognize diversity champions within and another 29.9 per cent also agreeing with the statement. On the contrary, only 11.0 per cent disagreed with this statement while 3.9 per cent of them strongly disagreed. Thus, a clear majority (73.1 per cent) agreed with the fact that commercial banks give recognition to those who champion diversity issues.

Equally, table 4.5 results revealed that cumulatively, 68.5% of respondents indicated that their firms provide job security to them (Strongly agreed=37.8%, Agreed= 30.5%). 15.0% cumulatively disagreed with the statement (strongly disagree= 6.3 per cent, disagree= 8.7 per cent). Furthermore, employees in commercial banks are also recognized for their exemplary performance of tasks given. In this regard, 56.7 % of the research participants strongly agreed with the statement with another 25.5 % simply agreeing with it. It was against an insignificant figure of 1.6 per cent who strongly disagreed and another 6.3 per cent who only disagreed. Similarly, 48.0% (a majority) of the research respondents strongly agreed that the said commercial banks tend to provide proper working conditions for them. Another 36.6% simply agreed with the statement, whci implies that cumulatively, 84.6 % of the research respondents were in total agreement with the declarative statement. On the contrary, 1.2 per cent (strongly disagree) and 6.3 per cent (disagree) were in disagreement with the statement.

Table 4.5 also put forward the idea that a majority (40.9%) of those surveyed strongly agreed that the commercial banks they work for pays them fair salaries. A further 33.9 % also agreed with the declaration. In comparison, only 2.0 per cent of particpants in this research study, strongly disagreed with the statement as put forth, with a further 10.6% merely disagreeing with it. Similarly, a majority of participants in research (strongly agreed=29.5%, agreed =44.9 %) pointed out that their employer provide opportunities for them to be promoted at work. Cumulatively, 12.2 % of respondents disagreed with it. Thus, in total 74.4% of those surveyed agreed that opportunities for promotion are provided to all without discrimination. A paltry 12.2 per cent of those surveyed disagreed.

Consistently, table 4.5 indicated a majority (74.4%) with the view that commercial banks provide adequate bonuses to employees on the basis of their performance. 18.9 % of respondents were in contradiction with this view. Furthermore, 87.2 % of those surveyed did either agree or strongly in agreement that their employer at the workplaces strive to provide opportunities for professional advancements, with a paltry 6.0 per cent either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the statement. Therefore, majority were in favour of this advancement as a significant component of enhanced performance. Results of table 4.5 also revealed that 46.5% of respondents agreed cumulatively (18.5 % for strongly agree and 28.0 % for agree) that commercial banks have got compensation structures based on the differences between individuals. For instance, performance based reward is one such structure. Substantially, 22.4 per cent (3.1 Strongly agree and 19.3 for agree) of those surveyed were of the contrary opinion about the same statement. The results were presented in summary as shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Diversity Reward Practices

Diversity Reward Practices	SD	D	N	A	SA
	%	%	%	%	%
Work autonomy provision to all	3.1	7.9	9.8	35.0	44.1
Recognition of diversity champions	3.9	11.0	13.8	29.9	41.1
Assurance for job security to all	6.3	8.7	16.5	30.7	37.8
Recognition for exemplary performance	1.6	6.3	9.9	25.5	56.7
Better working conditions to all	1.2	6.3	7.9	36.6	48.0
Fair salary awarded to all	2.0	10.6	12.6	40.9	33.9
Opportunities for promotion to all	3.9	8.3	13.4	44.9	29.5
Adequate bonuses for performance	4.7	14.2	6.7	50.4	24.0
Opportunities for advancement to all	2.0	4.0	6.8	46.0	41.2
Compensation structure based on individual differences	3.1	19.3	31.1	28.0	18.5

Key; SD= Strongly agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree nor disagree, A= Agree; SA= Strongly agree

In all the responses, there was consistency in how respondents replied to the likert statements about diversity reward. They indicated a general agreement to all the declarative statements on diversity reward. This gave a clear indication that commercial banks provide rewards to all employees based on a clear principle of fairness and equity as espoused by the social exchange theory. Nujjo and Meyer (2012) provided backing that diversity reward practices to form the critical strategies which firms could use to create a committed workforce. According to Nazir *et al.* (2016) both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are significantly related to the affective and normative constructs of commitments.

4.5.3 Building Cultural Awareness

The study also went forth to determine how far commercial banks build cultural awareness among their diverse workforce. The predictor variable of building cultural awareness was operationalized using the indicators of minimising miscommunications

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and building relationships with diverse others (Patrick & Kumar, 2012). All the measures of building cultural awareness under the nine questionnaire items and used a 5-point likert scale as from 5=strongly agree to 1= strongly disagree. Findings in table 4.6 indicated that 65.3% (majority) of respondents, cumulatively agreed that their firms provide them with education programs on an individual difference. However, 14.2% of respondents either strongly disagreed or simply disagreed with the statement. As a result of the education, 77.2% of participants also agreed cumulatively, that these organizations discourage employees from using terms that spotlight on some groups in a manner that is likely to show bias or stereotyping. Nonetheless, 7.5 per cent of them indicated that this discouragement does not happen in their organizations.

Equally, 76.8 % of respondents either strongly agreed or simply agreed that their banks encourage all employees from within to be aware of their own personal attitudes and opinions in trying to build cultural awareness. This was against an insignificant 3.9 per cent of respondents. Results in table 4.6 also indicated that commercial banks encourage their employees to avoid valuing messages based on dress, mannerism, accent or eye contact among other stereotypical practices, with 78.4 % responding in the affirmative to this view while 21.6 % of the participants in this study either strongly disagreed or simply disagreed with the view. In addition, the findings also revealed that management in commercial banks encourage their employees to form positive relationships with their colleagues irrespective of their backgrounds. The statement was corroborated by 87.8 % of the participants in this study against 4.3 per cent who disagreed and 2.4 per cent who strongly disagreed with the statement. Conclusively, a majority (89.5%) of participants cumulatively agreed that employees within commercial banks are encouraged to treat others with fairness and equally against 4.4 per cent who said that nothing of this kind gets to happen at their places of work.

Results from table 4.6 also show that 79.5 % of respondents cumulatively agreed that their firms get to commemorate days of diversity among the population such as the Mother's Day, Women International Day among others. Nevertheless, 10.6% of

participants either strongly disagreed or simply disagreed with the statement. Consistently, 73.5% of respondents also cumulatively agreed that employees within commercial banks are always reminded to accept and respect other people's customs and beliefs. However, a cumulative 9.8 per cent of respondents disagreed (5.9 per cent) and strongly disagreed (3.9 per cent) with this view. The obtained results were presented in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Building Cultural Diversity Awareness Practices

Building Cultural Awareness practices	SD	D	N	A	SA
	%	%	%	%	%
Education on individual differences	2.4	11.8	20.5	32.7	32.6
Spotlighting on some groups	0.8	6.7	15.4	50.0	27.2
Awareness on personal attitudes and opinions	0.4	3.5	19.3	40.6	36.2
Value messages on manners, dress	3.5	18.1	0.0	51.2	27.2
Formation of positive relations	2.4	4.3	5.5	36.2	51.6
Employees to treat others equally	1.6	3.1	5.9	37.0	52.4
Commemoration of diversity days	3.5	7.1	9.8	35.4	44.1
Acceptance and respect of customs and beliefs	3.9	5.9	16.5	39.4	34.3

Key; SD=strongly agree, A= Agree, N= neither agree nor disagree, A= Agree; SA= strongly agree

The findings in table 4.6 tend to indicate that a majority of commercial banks got ways in which they build cultural diversity awareness to their own employees. The study findings are consistents with the findings as obtained by Madera (2013) who established that twelve out of the fourteen organizations cited by Diversity Inc. had cultural awareness programs or training, which help employees gain cultural competence and enhanced commitment. In addition, they also help spearhead the company's outreach outside USA and make people aware of their sensitivity to cultural differences. By

celebrating some of the religious holidays such as Ramadhan and the Lunar, the hospitality industry in the USA is seen to embraces cultural awareness.

Nonetheless, in view of the responses given, a statement was posed seeking to establish the level of cultural awareness among employees in commercial banks. The measure to this question was in terms of percentage range. The findings from figure 4.6 presented that 151 or 59.4 % of respondents (majority) had their level of awareness at between 51-75% ratings. On the contrary, 7 (3.0 per cent) respondents suggested that their awareness about issues of cultural diversity stood between 0-25%. In addition, 66 (26.0%) of the respondents suggested that their level of awareness is way above 75 % (between 76-100%). Therefore, it may be concluded that 85.4% of respondents within the commercial banks had their level of cultural awareness at their workplace standing beyond 50%. The results obtained were summarized in a pie chart and presented in the figure 4.6:
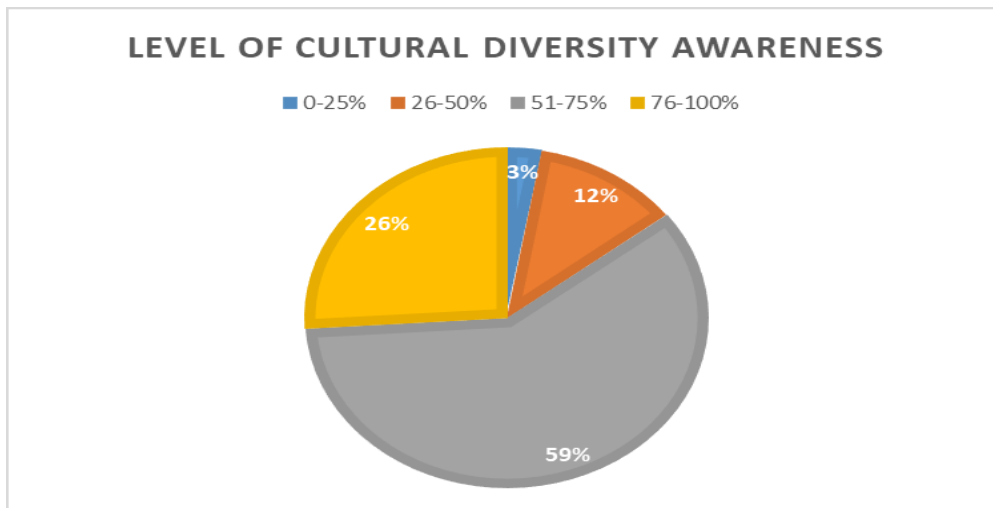
Figure 4.6: Level of Cultural Awareness

The findings in figure 4.6 can reveal that a majority of the commercial banks, provide cultural diversity awareness as a priority, basing on very high ratings. In all responses, there was consistency to show that commercial banks engage into building cultural

awareness practices among their workforce which happens to come from different backgrounds. This then makes it easier for the understanding of personal and cultural differences which then boosts employee commitment.

4.5.4 Diversity Networking

This study did seek to find out how far the commercial banks encourage employees to networking among their own diverse workforce and how it influences their own commitment to the firm. Diversity networking within commercial banks in Kenya was operationalized with regard to organizational activities carried by the individual banks and by the availability of support groups or networks (Madera, 2013). All the measures of diversity networking were used on a 5-point likert scale ranging from 5= strongly agree to 1= strongly disagree. The results in table 4.7 did show that commercial banks promote the establishing of support groups amongst the employees. 57.4 % of the resopondents were in favour of this statement against the 22.8 % who cumulatively disagreed with it. In addition, 19.7 % neither agreed nor disagreed with the same statement. Due to this response, 48.0% (majority) of respondents cumulatively agreed that employees get encouraged to join support groups in the firms. 27.2 % did disagreed totally with this statement. Similarly, table 4.7 did reveal that 79.1% (majority) of respondents either strongly agreed or simply agreed with the fact commercial banks facilitate an atmosphere of information sharing among the diverse workforce. Only 12.6% disagreed completely with this statement. Similarly, table 4.7 revealed that most respondents (76.8 %) agreed that mutual support among colleagues is encouraged in their firms against 11.0 % who opined that such a phenomenon does not happen.

Results of table 4.7 tend to indicate that commercial bank employees' do remember to write and keep minutes for the group meetings held. This was corroborated by 65.8% of respondents who strongly agreed (32.7 %) and simply agreed (33.1%) with the statement. On the other hand, 18.9 per cent cumulatively said that this does not happen. In addition, a majority (47.3 per cent) also agreed cumulatively that group meetings are

held regularly to confront stereotypes and personal biases. Nonetheless, 27.9% did disagree with the declared statement. Another statement did seek to establish if the support groups facilitate the cultivation of trust and good relations among employees. 61.4 % responded in the affirmative while 18.8 % disagreed in equal measure. In all responses, there was consistency to indicate that commercial banks in Kenya have diversity networking practices in terms of support networks and uses them for effective management of the diverse workforce. Social events were also said to be encouraged by commercial banks in Kenya with 74.5 per cent responding to the affirmative against 18.8 per cent who suggested that their organizations did not encourage social events. A summary of the findings was presented in table 4.7:

Table 4.7: Diversity Networking Practices

Networking practices	SD	D	N	A	SA
	%	%	%	%	%
Establish support groups	3.9	18.9	19.7	34.6	22.8
Join support groups	6.3	20.9	24.8	30.3	17.7
Information sharing among diversity	3.5	9.1	7.9	48.8	30.3
Mutual support between colleagues	5.1	5.9	12.2	39.0	37.8
Keep minutes of meetings	6.7	12.2	15.4	33.1	32.7
Regular meetings	11.4	16.5	24.8	26.4	20.9
Social events	6.7	10.6	8.3	46.5	28.0
Cultivation of trust and good relations	9.4	9.4	19.7	26.8	34.6

Key; SD=strongly agree, A= Agree, N= neither agree nor disagree, A= Agree; SA= strongly agree

From table 4.7, it can be infered that majority of commercial banks, encourage their members of staff to establish and join support groups as they share information for

mutual support and through holding of social events. These findings have been supported by Yin-Mei (2016); Ortlien and Sieben (2013); Owens and Acevedo (2012) who suggested that employees' diversity networks are considered as vital instruments for diversity and inclusion in the effective management of a diverse set of employees. Furthermore, O' Toole and Meier, (2004) argued that network stability in organizations tend to be positively and significantly association with employee commitment.

4.5.5 Organizational Support

This study also did seek to find the extent to which commercial banks engage in organizational support to help their own diverse workforce and the influence of such support on employee commitment. Organizational support practices were operationalized in terms of person focused support and task focused support as posited by Eisenberger *et al.* (2013) and espoused by Asya (2011). The measures of organization support used 10 questionnaire items on a five point likert scale from 1= Never (N) to 5= Always (A). The results obtained in table 4.8 showed that 35.0% (majority) of respondents agreed that the banks they work for care about their own wellbeing more frequently, while 29.9% suggested that it is always done. 18.1% were of the view the care is occasionally shown with another 14.6% suggested that their organizations seldom care about their wellbeing. However, 2.4 per cent said this is never carried out.

Nonetheless, the findings in table 4.8 also revealed that 22.8% of respondents had the opinion that their firms always consider their goals and values, while 36.2% suggested that this consideration is very frequent. 15.7 % and 2.4 per cent of respondents respectively agreed that this consideration is occasional and seldom. Similarly, results in table 4.8 also indicated that 33.2% of respondents felt commercial banks frequently get help experiencing personal problems, while 21.3% suggested that this help happens always. A total of 28.0 % said that the help from these firms is seldom with a further 2.8 per cent suggesting that it never happens. On personal issues, 26.4% did suggest that their organizations seldom care about their personal opinions, while 26.0% suggested

that their organizations occasionally care about these opinions. Similarly, 24.0% of participants in the study posited that their banks frequently care about their opinions on personal matters. This was against 17.3% who suggested that organizations always do care and 6.3 per cent who suggested that they do not care at all.

Findings from table 4.8 also showed that commercial banks frequently (39.0%) or always (34.7%) do assist employees perform their job to the best of their abilities. In addition, 19.7% and 4.3 per cent of participants to this research respectively suggest that assistance by the employer tend to only happen occasionally and seldom. Further, 2.4 per cent claimed never to have received any assistance from their employers in order to increase the perform of their jobs. Consistently, 45.7% and 24.0% of respondents suggested that their organizations appreciate any extra effort either frequently or always respectively. This was against 15.7% and 12.2% who suggested that commercial banks do occasionally or seldom appreciate the extra effort put in. Nonetheless, 2.4 per cent were against the view and pointed out that commercial banks (employer) are never appreciative of any extra effort. On the contrary, 42.1% of participants in the study, indicated that banks frequently show concern about one's work success while 33.5 % of them said that this is done always. However, 1.6 per cent said that banks do not show any concern at all against 6.3 per cent and 16.5% who posited that it is seldom and occasionally done.

Concern with succces in work performance, 26.8% of participants said that commercial banks (their employer) in Kenya always compensate them for the extra effort, while 42.9% agreed but suggested that the compensation was more frequent. On the other hand, 4.3 per cent said that they are never compensated for extra effort against 8.7 per cent for seldom and 17.3% for occasional compensation. Results from table 4.8 also showed that Individual goals and values are frequently (48.4 per cent), always (19.3 %), occasionally (13.0 %) and seldom (17.1%) considered against 1.6 per cent who suggested that such goals are never considered strongly by commercial banks. In addition, the results in table 4.8 also indicated that there is frequent (45.3%), always

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(23.2%), occasional (20.1%), seldom (7.5 per cent) and no (3.9 per cent) provision of practical assistance on problems experienced at work place. A summary of the results is presented in table 4.8:

Table 4.8: Organizational Practices

Oorganizational Support practices	N	S	O	F	A
	%	%	%	%	%
My organization cares about my well being	2.4	14.6	18.1	35.0	29.9
My organization strongly considers my goals and values	2.4	15.7	22.8	36.2	22.8
My organization helps me when I have a personal problem	2.8	25.2	17.3	33.5	21.3
My organization cares about my opinion on personal matters	6.3	26.4	26.0	24.0	17.3
My organization is willing to to help me perform my job to the best of my ability	2.4	4.3	19.7	39.0	34.7
My organization appreciates any extra effort from me	2.4	12.2	15.7	45.7	24.0
My organization shows concern about my work success	1.6	6.3	16.5	42.1	33.5
My organization fairly compensates me in exchange for effort put	4.3	8.7	17.3	42.9	26.8
My organization strongly considers my goals and values in work related matters	1.6	17.7	13.0	48.4	19.3
My organization provides practical assistance when I have a problem in doing my work	3.9	7.5	20.1	45.3	23.2

Where, N=Never, S= Seldom, O = Occasionally, F=Frequently, A= Always

Findings in table 4.8, can reveal that commercial banks in Kenya frequently provide organizational support to their members of staff. Generally, these findings are supported by the fact that organizational support tend to initiate a social exchange process in which employees tend to feel obligated to assist the organization to achieve its goals and objectives, but expect that the increased efforts on the firm's behalf may lead to greater

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rewards (Cropanzone *et al.,* 2017; Kundu, 2016; Madera *et al.,* 2016; Kurtessis *et al.,* 2015; Mitchell *et al.,* 2012). Therefore, organizational support can be said to fulfil the social-emotional needs which results in greater identification and more commitment to one's organization (Kundu, 2016). It leads to an increased desire to assist the organization succeed and in the process, creating a greater psychological wellbeing for the employee (Kurtessis *et al.,* 2015; Eisenberger *et al.*, 2013; Marique *et al.*, 2012; Asya, 2011).

4.5.6 Employee Commitment

The study went further to determine how far do employees within commercial banks are committed to their organizations and how such commitment could be influenced by diversity management practices. Employee commitment was operationalized using the affective, continuance and normative commitments (Mukanzi *et al.,* 2014; Asya 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1991). All measures of the predicted variable used a 5-point likert scale from 5= strongly agree (SA) to 1= strongly disagree (SD). The findings are presented as indicated:

    a) **Affective Commitment**

The findings in table 4.9 reveal that 38.9% (majority) of those who participated in the study simply agreed that they were happy to spend the rest of their careers at their present organizations while 24.4% of them strongly agreed with the statement. Nevertheless, 3.5 per cent strongly disagreed with the statement and another 9.5 per cent simply disagreeing. A further 23.6% neither disagreed nor agreed with the statement. Consistently, 39.0% of study's participants agreed that they felt emotionally attached to their organization while 31.1% of them strongly felt emotionally attached to their present organizations, against 10.2% who disagreed with a further 1.2 per cent of those who participated who strongly felt that they absolutely no feeling of emotional attachment to their places of work. In addition, 36.6% were in agreement that they were holding on the feeling that their banks had a lot of meaning to them. Also, 29.5% did

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strongly agree with the statement while 3.1 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 11.0% (disagreed) literaly felt that their banks did not personally mean a lot to them.

Furthermore, 41.7 per cent (agreed) and 31.9 per cent (strongly agreed) of respondents all felt like part of the family membership in their respective banks. Nonetheless, 4.3 per cent (Strongly disagreed) and 14.6 per cent (disagreed) of respondents did not feel the same way. Similarly, results from table 4.9 also reveal that 29.5% (strongly agreed) and 39.0 % (agreed) of the study participants had felt a strong sense of belonging to their respective banks, unlike 4.7 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 12.2% (disagreed) who didn't feel the same way. Equally, 32.7% (strongly agreed) and 30.3% (agreed) of respondents were feeling as if their bank's problems are like their own problems, against 12.6% (disagreed) and 7.5 per cent (strongly disagreed) and who did not feel as if such problems were like theirs.

b) **Continuance Commitment**

Table 4.9 presents the findings which show that a majority of respondents at 32.7% (agreed) and 10.2% (strongly agreed) of respondents had the belief that it would be very hard for them to leave their current commercial banks even if they had wanted to. It was against 16.1% (strongly disagreed) and 21.7% (disagreed) who did feel like it could be easier for them to leave their employer. Also, 33.9% (strongly agreed) and 31.9% (agreed) of those who participated in the study pronounced that they continue to work in their current banks because of the overall benefits available to them. This was against 9.1 per cent (strongly disagree) and 7.1 per cent (disagree) who did not feel the same way. Similarly, table 4.9 indicated that 16.1 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 26.4 per cent (disagreed) did not feel like leaving their organizations would disrupt too much of their lives. However, 19.7 per cent (agreed) and 15.8% (strongly agreed) of participants in the study felt like leaving their current banks would be quite disruptive to their own lives. This implied that a majority of those surveyed (42.5 %) would still leave the

organization to work elsewhere without a major problem (possibly the young) as compared to 35.5% who seemed uncomfortable with the movements.

The findings in table 4.9 also revealed that 31.1% (agreed) and 17.3% (strongly agreed) were of the idea that they would stay with their organizations as a matter of necessity rather than a desire. This was against 8.7 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 22.0% (disagreed) who did not feel in the same way. Consistently, 11.0% (strongly disagreed) and 34.3 % (disagreed) felt like they still have got many options to consider leaving their current organizations, unlike 18.9% (agree) and 15.4% (strongly agree) who felt like there are no options to consider as an alternative to their organizations. These findings could also mean that these employees were probably satisfied with their places of work and therefore did not feel like taking up other jobs elsewhere. From table 4.9, the findings reveal that there is continuance commitment among employees in commercial banks in Kenya, although this commitment type does not seem to be as strong as the affective commitment.

c) Normative Commitment

On the normative commitment, results in table 4.9 revealed that most respondents, 30.3% (agreed) and 19.7% (strongly agreed) felt a sense of moral obligation to remain with their current organizations. It was against 9.4 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 19.7% (disagreed) who felt that this was not the case for their continued stay in their current organizations. Thus, most of the respondents, at 50.0 per cent were obliged to stay. Consistently, 48.4 per cent (agreed) and 22.8 per cent (strongly agreed) of respondents felt like their banks deserved more of their loyalty, against 7.5 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 6.3 per cent (disagreed) who did not feel the same way. On the contrary, the findings from table 4.9 revealed that a majority (24.8 per cent for strongly disagree and 20.5 per cent for disagree) of respondents would not feel guilty leaving the organization, against 8.3 per cent (SD) and 25.6 per cent (agreed) who did not feel the same way.

Consequently, 20.9 per cent (strongly disagreed) and 21.3 per cent (disagreed) were negative to the statement that they would consider working elsewhere had they not put much of their effort in their current organizations. However, 29.9 per cent (agreed) and 9.1 per cent (strongly agreed) responded in the affirmative. Nonetheless, a majority 52.0 per cent (agreed) and 24.0 per cent (strongly agreed) felt that their respective organizations were nice workplaces. In contradiction, 7.9 per cent (SD) and 3.9 per cent (disagreed) felt the opposite.

Inconsistently, 20.5% (agreed) and 12.2% (strongly disagreed) of those who participated in this study, did suggest that they would not feel it right to leave their current organizations for a better offer elsewhere. On the contrary, 22.0% (disagreed) and 29.1% (strongly disagreed) did suggest that they would still feel it right to leave for a better offer. This finding was consistent with those of the continuance commitment where most respondents did not feel like it would be disruptive on their lives if they left their organizations for other opportunities elsewhere, making a case for young employees. These results indicated that commercial banks also experience normative type of commitment from their own employees, although like continuance, normative commitment was not as strong as the affective type of commitment. A summary of the results is shown in table 4.9;

Table 4.9: Employee Commitment

Employee commitment	SD	D	N	A	SA
	%	%	%	%	%
Affective Commitment					
Happy to spend rest of my career here	3.5	9.5	23.6	38.6	24.4
I feel emotionally attached	1.2	10.2	18.5	39.0	31.1
Organization has a great meaning for me	3.1	11.0	19.7	36.6	29.5
I feel like part of family here	4.3	14.6	7.5	41.7	31.9
I feel strong sense of belonging	4.7	12.2	14.6	39.0	29.5
My organizations problems are mine	7.5	12.6	16.9	30.3	32.7
Continuance Commitment					
It is hard to leave even if I wanted to	16.1	21.7	19.3	32.7	10.2
I continue to work for overall benefits	9.1	7.1	18.1	31.9	33.9
My life would be disrupted if I leave	16.1	26.4	22.0	19.7	15.8
I stay with my firm as a necessity	8.7	22.0	20.9	31.1	17.3
I few options to leave	11.0	34.3	20.5	18.9	15.4
Normative Commitment					
I feel sense of moral obligation energy)	9.4	19.7	20.9	30.3	19.7
My organization needs my loyalty	7.5	6.3	15.0	48.4	22.8
Will feel guilty if I were to leave	24.8	20.5	20.9	25.6	8.3
If I had not put so much I would leave	20.9	21.3	18.9	29.9	9.1
My organization is a nice place to work	7.9	3.9	12.2	52.0	24.0
I would not leave even for a better job	29.1	22.0	16.1	20.5	12.2

Key; SD=Strongly agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree nor disagree, A= Agree; SA= Strongly agree

Therefore, from these results, the study can the conclusion that most employees in the commercial banks in Kenya are committed in the affective to their respective organizations. This finding was consistent with those of Ashikali and Groeneveld (2013) who asserted that diversity management practices are significantly related to the affective commitment of employees in the Australian manufacturing firms. Similarly, employees within these commercial banks can also be seen to experience some form of continuance commitment, though it does'nt seem to be as strong the the affective

commitment. The same can also be said for the normative type of employee commitment.

4.6 Test of Assumptions

The classical linear regression model and analysis is underpinned by five assumptions that are required to indicate that the estimation techniques have several desirable properties and that the hypotheses tests regarding the coefficient estimates can validly be conducted (Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, 2015). Therefore, this study tested for five assumptions of normality, linearity, Collinearity, homogeneity and independence of variables before the regression analysis was conducted.

4.6.1 Test for Normality

Many of the statistical tests and procedures are usually based on specific distribution assumptions. For instance, the assumption for normality is very important and common in the classical statistical tests. This assumption presumes that the residuals are normally distributed and thus, intend to determine the data distribution in the variables used in research. Rozali and Wah (2011) posited that a good data used in research is that which can be said to be normally distributed. To test for normality, the study utilized the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test which was developed by Andrey Kolmogorov and Nikolai Smirnov in 1933 (Arnold & Emerson, 2011; Emerson & Arnold, 2011). This test has the power to detect the departure of data from the normality because of either skewness or kurtosis or both and it is best suited for a sample that is greater than 50 (Sabana, 2014; Saleemi, 2012). As the rule of the thumb, a variable is reasonably close to normal if its skewness and kurtosis have values between -1.0 and $+1.0$ or rather, the sum of all the positive and negatives deviations from the mean, mode and median is equal to zero (Saleemi, 2012). However, the decision-making process presumes that if the obtained Asymptotic Significance is more than 0.05, then the data is distributed normally. On the contrary, if the Asymptotic Significance is less than 0.05, then the assumption of normality shall have been violated and the data would not be good for

research. For each independent variable, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were presented in table 4.10:

Table 4.10: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

<table>
<tr><th colspan="7">One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</th></tr>
<tr><th></th><th></th><th>Diversity Training</th><th>Diversity Reward</th><th>Building Cultural Awareness</th><th>Diversity Networking</th></tr>
<tr><td>N</td><td></td><td>254</td><td>254</td><td>254</td><td>254</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Normal Parameters[a,b]</td><td>Mean</td><td>4.2484</td><td>3.4016</td><td>3.9624</td><td>3.6781</td></tr>
<tr><td>Std. Deviation</td><td>.63106</td><td>.81226</td><td>.58574</td><td>.86181</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Most Extreme Differences</td><td>Absolute</td><td>.079</td><td>.076</td><td>.086</td><td>.089</td></tr>
<tr><td>Positive</td><td>.117</td><td>.071</td><td>.081</td><td>.069</td></tr>
<tr><td>Negative</td><td>-.079</td><td>-.076</td><td>-.086</td><td>-.089</td></tr>
<tr><td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td><td></td><td>2.175</td><td>1.217</td><td>2.330</td><td>1.756</td></tr>
<tr><td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td><td></td><td>.110</td><td>.103</td><td>.070</td><td>.064</td></tr>
</table>

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Basing on the one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test as shown in table 4.10, the values of the variable Asymptotic Significance of diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking were 0.110, 0.103, 0.070 and 0.064 respectively. In accordance with the basic decision making of normality test (Rozali & Wah, 2011; Arnold & Emerson, 2011; Emerson & Arnold, 2011), the values Asymptotic Significance for all the independent variables in the study were greater than 0.05, and it can therefore be concluded that the data for the HR diversity practices (i.e. diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) was normally distributed. To further test for the normality of the data distribution, the p-p plots were generated and presented as shown.

Probability Plots for Normality

To further test for normality of the data obtained, the P-P plot graphs were generated for all the predictor variables against the dependent one. Together with the Q-Q plots, the P-P plots are used to check or test for normality of the data collected by utilizing the graphical method to compare two probability distributions by plotting their percentiles against each other. It is a graphical device to check the validity of a distributional assumption for a data set. The produced graphical line is a parametric curve with the parameter being the number of the interval for the percentile. For the data collected to be normally distributed, then the observed values must be seen to spread along the straight diagonal line. The plots obtained are as shown in figures 4.7, 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10.

P-P Plot for Diversity training on Employee Commitment.

The P-P plot or graph generated when diversity training was measured against employee commitment was as shown in figure 4.7;
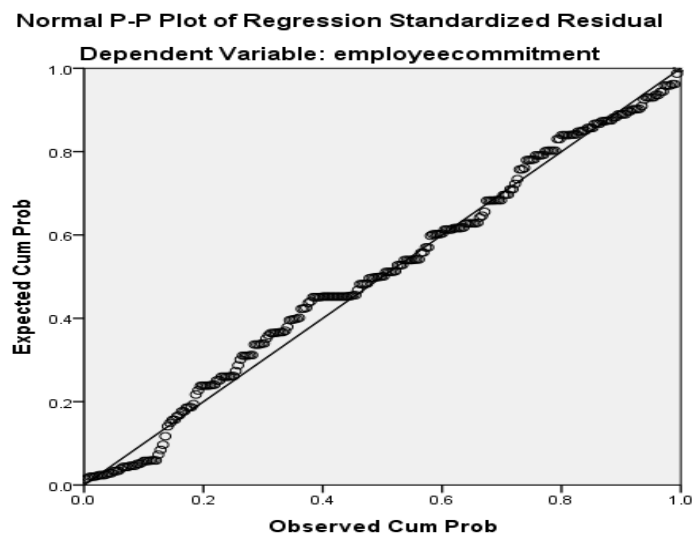
Figure 4.7: P-P Plot for Diversity Training

Figure 4.7 indicate that the data collected on diversity training for this study was normally distributed, since most of the observed values are spread very close to the straight diagonal line and some of them even falling within the line.

P-P Plot for Diversity Reward on Commitment of Employees.

Furthermore, the P-P plot or graph generated when diversity reward was measured against employee commitment was as shown in figure 4.8;

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: employeecommitment
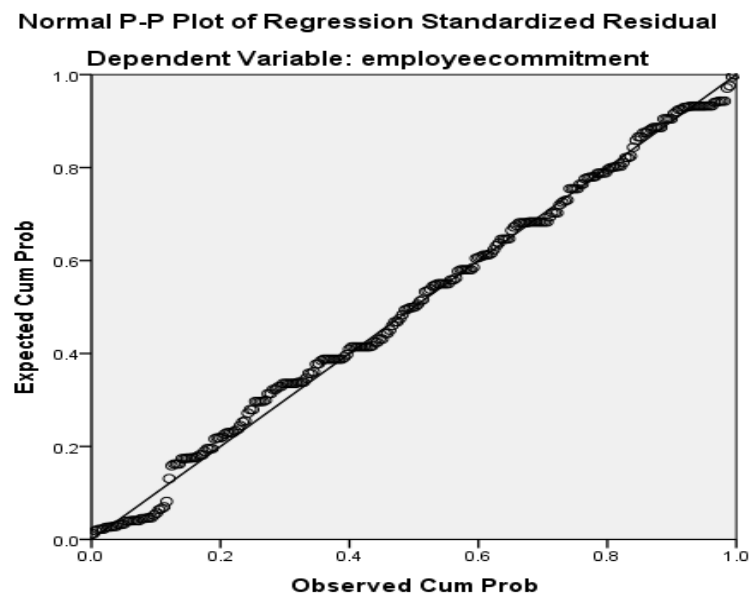
Figure 4.8: P-P Plot for Diversity Reward

Basing on the output in figure 4.8 it can be revealed that the data collected as related to diversity reward was normally distributed since most of the observed values are spread very close to the straight diagonal line and some of them even falling within the very line.

P-P Plot for Building Cultural Awareness on Employee Commitment.

The P-P plot or graph generated when building cultural diversity awareness was measured against employee commitment was as shown in figure 4.9;

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: employeecommitment
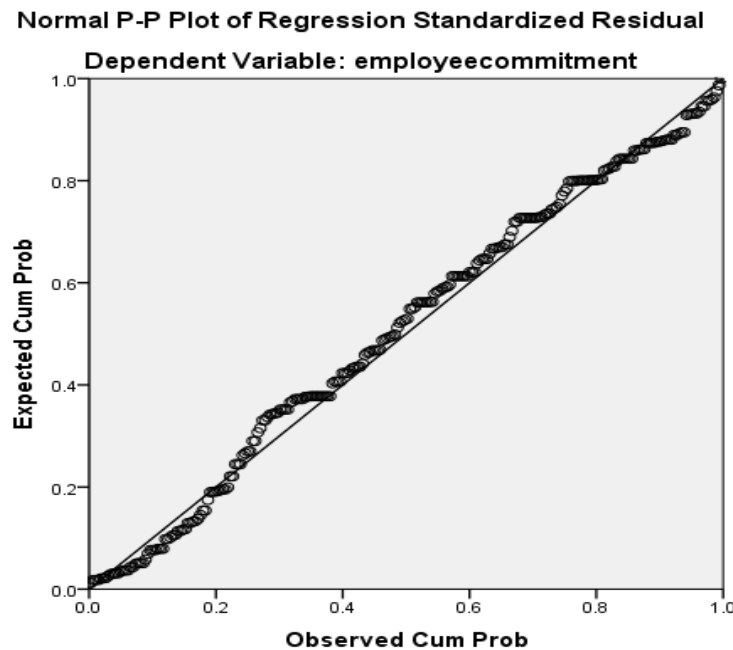
Figure 4.9: P-P Plot for Building Cultural Awareness

Based on the p-p graph output shown in figure 4.9, it is clear that the data collected for the independent variable 'building cultural awareness' was normally distributed, because most of the observed values are spread very close to the straight line and some falling within the line.

P-P Plot for Diversity Networking on Employee Commitment.

The P-P plot or graph generated when the variable 'diversity networking' was measured against commitment (predicted variable) was as shown in figure 4.10;
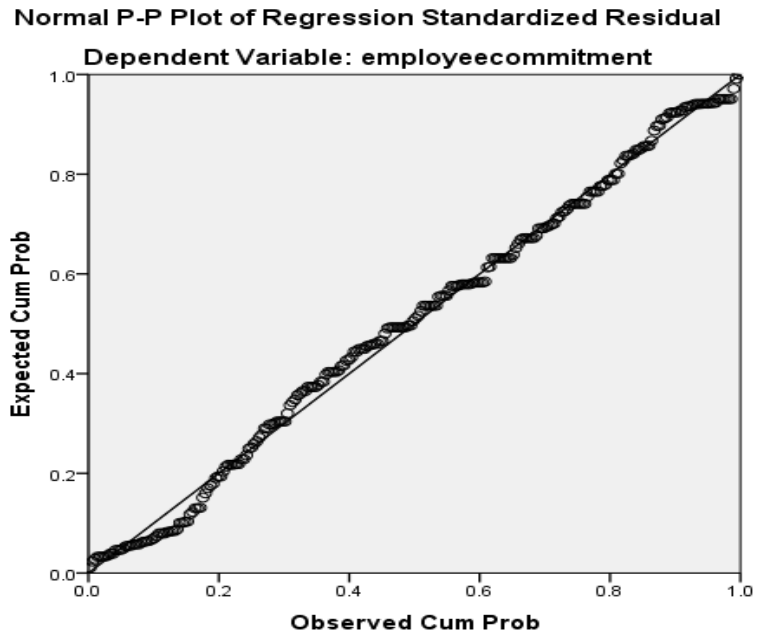
Figure 4.10: P-P Plot for Diversity Networking

Similarly, the p-p plot output shown in figure 4.10, clearly indicate that the data collected for the independent variable 'Diversity Networking' was also normally distributed, because most of the observed values are spread very close to the straight line and some of them falling within the line.

4.6.2 Test for Linearity

A good research in a regression model should indicate a linear relationship between the predictor and dependent variables (Zientek, Kim & Bryn, 2016). Therefore, the test for linearity is a requirement in a correlation and regression analysis (Zhang, Maloney, Juslin, Winman & Olsson, 2011). This study used the significance deviation from linearity test to determine whether the relationship between employee commitment and diversity management practices was linear or not. The decision-making process in linearity test assumed that if the obtained value Significance Deviation from linearity is greater than 0.05, then the relationship between each diversity management practice and employee commitment would be linearly dependent. The converse would suggest that

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the relationship would not be linear. Thus, for each predictor variable, the linearity test gave the results as shown in table 4.11:

Table 4.11: Test for Linearity

	Diversity Training* Employee Commitment	Diversity reward* Employee Commitment	Building cultural Awareness* Employee Commitment	Diversity networking* Employee Commitment
Sig. Deviation from Linearity value	0.125	0.394	0.421	0.386

The outputs of the linearity test shown in tables 4.11 indicated that the value Significance Deviations from linearity of 0.125 for diversity training, 0.394 for diversity rewards, 0.421 for building cultural awareness and 0.386 for diversity networking were all greater than 0.05. As such, it was concluded that the variables of diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness, diversity networking and employee commitment (predicted variable) were linearly dependent on each other. Hence, the assumption was then confirmed to be in existence making the regression analysis to be valid and robust to use.

4.6.3 Test for Collinearity

Collinearity implies that two variables are near perfect linear combination of one another (Zientek *et al.,* 2016). However, Multi-collinearity arises when more than two predictor variables are involved in a research study (Gastwirth *et al.,* 2009). This is a situation where such predictor variables in a multiple regression analysis are in themselves highly correlated that it makes it difficult for one to determine the actual contribution of the respective predictor variables to the variance in the predicted variable (Zikmund *et al*., 2013; Hair *et al*., 2010). According to Zikmund *et al*. (2013) multi-collinearity tends to

reduce the ability to assess the importance of each independent variable, with a high multi collinearity level increasing the probability that a good predictor may be found to be insignificant in a model and therefore, rejected thereof. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) method and its reciprocal, the tolerance values method were used to test for the multi-collinearity. Tolerance indicaues the percentage of variation in the independent variable which cannot be accounted for by other predictors. As a rule of the thumb, a variable whose VIF value is either greater than 10 or less than 1 would merit further investigation since such values may indicate the multi-collinearity presence (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Tolerance values would indicate multi-collinearity if such values were to be greater than 1 (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Therefore, the multi-collinearity test output obtained was presented in the table 4.12:

Table 4.12: Test for Multi-collinearity

Coefficients[a]							
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-.475	.276		-1.721	.087		
diversity training	.185	.067	.142	2.775	.006	.659	1.519
1 diversity reward building	.197	.047	.193	4.209	.000	.819	1.220
cultural awareness	.713	.081	.491	8.821	.000	.556	1.799
diversity networking	.145	.048	.146	3.046	.003	.746	1.340

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

The output coefficients for the collinearity statistic show the variance inflation factor (VIF) values of 1.519 for diversity training, 1.220 for diversity reward, 1.799 for building cultural awareness and 1.340 for diversity networking. The tolerance values obtained from the statistic include 0.659, 0.819, 0.556 and 0.746 respectively for all the independent variables. Therefore, both the VIF and the tolerance values indicated that

there was lack of multi-collinearity in the variables since the VIF values were all less than 10 and not less than 1, while the tolerance values were greater than 0.1 but also less than 1.0. Similarly, the p- values were all less than 0.05 and therefore, statistically significant.

4.6.4 Test for Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity assumption means that the variance of errors around the regression line is identical for all values of the predictor variables (X) (Zientek *et al.*, 2016; Jiang *et al.,* 2015). It means that the variances are homogeneous and that errors of the model are identically distributed and if not, then they can be said to be heteroscedastic. Heteroscedasticity is the opposite of homoscedasticity (Zientek *et al.*, 2016). However, a slight heteroscedasticity has little effect on the significant tests. Even though, if heteroscedasticity is marked, then it could lead to serious distortion of findings which may seriously weaken the analysis and hence, increase the possibility of type I error (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). To confirm the existence of homoscedasticity, this study tested for heteroscedasticity by use of the Glejser test as developed by Herbert Glejser in 1969 (Glejser, 2012; Hickman & Long, 2007). Accordingly, the test can be quite satisfactory when using a large sample size, n> 30 (Glejser, 2012). The test was conducted by regressing absolud residual value of employee commitment variable with the regression equation;

$$Y = \alpha + X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + X_3\beta_3 + X_4\beta_4 + \mu$$

Where Y is Employee commitment;

X_1 is diversity training

X_2 is diversity Reward

X_3 is Building cultural awareness

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X_4 is diversity Networking

$\beta_1 - \beta_4$ are the coefficients of predictor variables

μ is the error term

α is a constant or the y- intercept

To test for heteroscedasticity, the following null hypothesis was formulated;

H_0: the residuals are heteroscedastic,

This hypothesis was then tested and the results obtained presented in table 4.13:

Table 4.13: Glejser Test for Heteroscedasticity

	Coefficients[a]				
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.462	.145		0.0829	.074
Diversity Training	-.105	.036	-.206	-2.927	.212
Diversity Reward	-.035	.025	-.089	-1.416	.158
Building Cultural Awareness	-.095	.042	-.172	-1.244	.076
Diversity Networking	-.044	.025	-.116	-1.773	.077

a. Dependent Variable: Ubsut

The coefficients obtained from table 4.13 output showed the value of Significance diversity training variable (0.074), diversity reward variable (0.212), building cultural awareness (0.158) and Significance diversity networking (0.077) respectively, as being greater than 0.05. These values implied that the model is free from heteroscedasticity problem and that the Glejser test does not show a violation of homoscedasticity assumption since all the significance values are greater than 0.05. Therefore, the study

rejected the null hypothesis which presumed that the variance of residuals was constant, but inferred that heteroscedasticity was not actually present among the variables used.

4.6.5 Test for Independence/Auto correlation

Independent of error term, which implies that the observations are independent of each other (Marno, 2012) was tested using the Durbin-Watson test. This test was developed by Durbin Watson in 1971 to check whether there exists the first order serial correlation among residuals of the linear regression (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Marno, 2012; Hateka, 2010), and it has a range of between 0 to 4 with the midpoint of 2 showing that the residuals are unequal(uncorrelated). Accordingly, the regression analysis carried out gave the Durbin-Watson output values from the respective model summaries as presented in table 4.14:

Table 4.14: Durbin-Watson Test

	Coefficients[a]	
Model	Durbin-Watson	Sig.
Diversity Training	1.965	.000
Diversity Reward	1.810	.000
Building Cultural Awareness	1.973	.000
Diversity Networking	1.950	.000

a. Predictors: diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness, diversity networking
a. Dependent Variable: Employee commitment

The regression analysis output in table 4.14 indicated that the obtained values of the Durbin-Watson test are diversity training variable (1.965), Diversity reward variable (1.810), Building cultural awareness (1.973) and Diversity networking (1.950). Since all values were beyond 1.5 but close to 2.0, it can therefore be infered that auto

correlation/serial correlation was missing in the variables as applied in the study. Hence, the study rejected the null hypothesis stating that the errors associated with one variable were not correlated with the errors of any other observation of the study.

4.7 Inferential Analysis

Inferential statistics and analysis make use of the probability theory to draw conclusions about the given population's characteristics from which the given sample's properties are drawn (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Therefore, inferential analysis is more concerned with precision and reliability of deductions made from a given study. This part of the study involves the use of correlation and regression analyses to get more meaning from the data with an aim of getting findings that would enable concrete conclusions to be drawn. The correlation and regression analyses were both conducted to investigate whether there is a relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment. Further, the regression analysis was conducted to establish the amount of variance that would occur in the predicted variable due to the influence caused by the change in the predictor variable. The results were presented as per the specific objectives.

4.7.1 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the presence, dierection and strength of a linear relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment. According to Kothari and Garg (2014), the correlation coefficient (r) can range between negative one (-1) to positive one (+1). A positive one (+1) indicates a positive perfect linear correlation between the predictor and the predicted variables. Further, a negative one (-1) coefficient of correlation indicates that the predictor variables are perfectly and negatively related to the dependent variable. Nonetheless, a correlation coefficient of zero (0) indicates that the two variables (predictor and dependent variables) are linearly independent and the predictor variables cannot explain the variation in the dependent variable (Cooper & Schilder, 2011).

In addition, a stronger perfect correlation is obtained when the correlation coefficient (r) is found to be closer to either positive one (+1) or negative one (-1). Therefore, the correlation analysis was carried out using Pearson correlation coefficient technique. The study did seek to investigate the influence of diversity management practices on employee commitments in commercial banks. Further, the correlation between each diversity practices and the constructs of employee commitment susc as normative, affective and continuance was also conducted. The results are presented in table 4.15 and discussed thereof as per every specific objective:

Table 4.15: Correlation Matrix

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Diversity Training	1								
2	Diversity Reward	.233**	1							
3	Building Cultural Awareness	.585**	.368**	1						
4	Diversity Networking	.302**	.352**	.454**	1					
5	Organization Support	.309**	.470**	.510**	.577**	1				
6	Affective Commitment	.297**	.762**	.437**	.434**	.561**	1			
7	Continuance Commitment	.206**	.830**	.308**	.157* (.012)	.275**	.411**	1		
8	Normative Commitment	.077 (.223)	.867**	.165** (.008)	.254**	.304**	.436**	.681**	1	
9	Employee Commitment	.515**	.456**	.715**	.476**	.599**	.488**	.401**	.242**	1

a) Diversity Training and Employee Commitment

Findings from table 4.15 (correlation matrix) showed a positive and significant influence between diversity training and affective commitment (r=0.297**, p<0.01). Further, the influence of diversity training on continuance commitment was also positive and significant (r=0.206**, p = 0.001). However, although diversity training's influence on normative commitment was positive, it was rather not significant (r=0.077, p=0.223) since the p > 0.05. Nonetheless, the predictor diversity training was found to have a positive and significant (r=0.515**, p < 0.01) influence on the computed variable of employee commitment (measured by normative, affective and continuance commitments). These findings were supported by Nguyen (2014); Madera (2013); D'Netto and Sohal (1999) who suggested that diversity training through its best practices of exposing employees to its programs and the training needs assessment, is positively and significantly related to the commitment of employees. Furthermore, they recommended the best practices in diversity training as being, exposure to diversity training programs, assessing and conducting specific training needs which should be linked to the organization's goals and objectives.

Accordingly, the assessment of individual worker's training needs enables employees from a diverse background to participate fully in the organizational training programs (Groeneveld, 2011). Employee participation in the diversity training programs was found to enhance their own commitment to the organization (Nguyen, 2014; McGuire & Bagher, 2010). Therefore, the training programs offered to a diverse workforce in commercial banks can be of great significance. Consistently, other studies also found that offereing diversity training to employees significantly effect the levels of commitment among employees (Jalal, Zaheer & Sultan, 2017; Aladwan *et al.,* 2015; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013; Meena & Vanka, 2013; Waight & Madera 2011; Yap *et al.*, 2010).

Accordingly, diversity training is used to overcome the problems of the organization including employee turnover, lack of commitment and many other departmental

problems. Further, diversity training programs are used to cope with group differences and associated problems, as it helps to increase the respect for individual differences in terms of values systems, attitudes and behavior (D'Netto & Sohal, 1999). Thus, diversity training through the practices of training needs assessment and exposure to training programs is significantly associated with commitment of employees. Similarly, a study to establish how diversity training needs assessment affects performance (Wamwayi, *et al.,* 2016) it was found that training participants who are exposed to diversity training programs felt a sense of commitment to their firms.

In another study to establish the effect of training on employee attitudes and work proficiency (Truitt, 2011), it was also established that training of employees with diverse backgrounds positively affects their attitudes and commitment to the companies that theyw work for. Ashikhube *et al*. (2013) equally found that exposing employee to training programs significantly affects their performance and hence employee commitment. On the other hand, some studies have posited that the effectiveness of diversity training is still uncertain (Homan *et al.* 2015). Accordingly, the associated cost of this type of diversity training combined with its own ineffectiveness tend to raise doubts on whether the training is worth the investment (Reynolds *et al.*, 2014; Roberson *et al.,* 2013).

Reynolds *et al.* (2014) consistently established that the association between diversity training and commitment among managers of ethnic minority is not significant. He noted that training for diversity can leave many employees inadvertently isolated from being the organization's productive part due to the likelihood lowered commitment among the employees (D'Netto *et al*., 2014). However, except for normative commitment, the findings of the study suggested that diversity training has a positive and significant influence on both affective and continuance commitments. Consistently, findings in table 4.15 revealed that diversity training has a positive influence on commitment of employees working in commercial banks Kenya.

b) Diversity Reward and Employee Commitment

Findings in table 4.15 indicated that the association between diversity reward and the various types of commitment is positive and significant. For instance, the correlation with affective commitment had, r=0.762** at p < 0.01, with continuance commitment, r=0.830**, at p-value < 0.01, with normative commitment, the r=0.867**, at p < 0.01 and finally, with employee commitment itself the r=0.528**, at p < 0.01 respectively. Thus, the results obtained in table 4.15 suggested that an increase in diversity rewards will lead to the automatic increase in the various types of employee commitment. Therefore, this study can draw the conclusion that diversity reward has a positive and significant influence on employee commitment. These results corroborate earlier findings of Nazir *et al*. (2016) who noted that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards significantly correlate to both normative and affective commitments. Even though, other studies have noted that extrinsic rewards have a higher influence on the commitment of employees than the intrinsic ones. Conversely, Nujjo and Meyer (2012) did find that intrinsic rewards are superior predictors of the affective commitment. In addition, they established that a positive and significant correlation exists between both reward types and employee commitment. Aladwan *et al*. (2015) also noted that favourable perceptions about the reward system is positively related to the employees' affective commitment.

Additionally, Meena and Vanka (2013) pointed out that diversity reward ensures equity in pay and increases the commitment of employees in the organization. Accordingly, a good reward system boosts commitment among employees in the organization (Danso, 2015; Miao *et al.*, 2013; Meena & Vanka, 2013; Newman *et al.*, 2011). According to Ghosh, Rai, Chauhan, Baranwal and Srivastava (2016), organization rewards given to a diverse workforce have a positive and significant influence on normative commitment. Furthermore, the satisfaction with external benefits, promotions, autonomy, job security and the participation to make decision have a large impact on employees' normative and affective commitment. In a survey to establish if the selected number of firms do practice HR diversity management in Islamic approach, Hashim (2010) did find that Islamic approach in HRM like diversity reward is positively and significantly correlated to organizational commitment.

Further, Jalal *et al.* (2017) established that an attractive and equitable compensation that is offered to all employees within the organization is positively and significantly associated with employee commitment. In addition, basing on past studies as conducted by Dockel (2001) and John (2005), it was argued that attractive earnings and continuance type of commitment are positively related with each other. In contrast, other studies found that diversity rewards are not significantly related to the commitment of employees (D'Netto *et al.,* 2014; Robyn & Preez, 2013). Rather, Fenwick *et al.* (2011) noted that rewards that are based on the performance of employees can help to reduce the wage disparities and increase the commitment of employees. Therefore, based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that if proper incentives and rewards are offered equitably to a diverse set of employees, it would enhance their belief in the organization and hence, increase employee commitment towards the organization.

c) Building Cultural Awareness

Table 4.15 revealed that building cultural awareness has a positive and significant influence on affective commitment ($r=0.437^{**}$, $p< 0.01$), on continuance commitment ($r=0.308^{**}$, $p< 0.01$), normative commitment ($r=0.165^{**}$, $p< 0.01$) and employee commitment ($r=0.715$, $p< 0.01$) respectively. These results were in support of the findings from previous researches. For instance, Guerrero *et al.* (2013) suggested that building cultural diversity awareness is significantly linked to affective commitment. Accordingly, many organizations are devoting great effort and resources to manage cultural diversity which will then demonstrate that employees are not victims of unfavourable treatment within the organization. As such, this practice has been significantly linked to employee commitment (Thatcher & Patel, 2011). Accordingly, diversity awareness building can enhance diverse group integration among minority and mainstream employees. This can then help one to understand the value of diversity, social cohesion and contribute towards improving individual and organizational commitment. However, Leveson, Joiner and Bakalis (2009) found out that there is an

indirect positive association between building cultural awareness among employees and all types of commitment and hence, the need for organizational support.

According to Patrick and Kumar (2012), the IT industry employees in India reported discrimination as the most frequently encountered barrier to effective management of workforce diversity. To reduce this discrimination, prejudices and stereotypical thinking, the IT industry within the country emphasised on building and increasing cultural awareness. As a result, the various strategies put in place to ensure the recognition of the existence of diversity differences have seen the enhancement of organizational commitment by the various employees in the sector. Consistently, in his study to determine the challenges faced in the management of HR diversity and the IT service inclusion in the Indian multinationals (Donnelly, 2015), it was established that building and increasing awareness about HR diversity differences helps the organization to increase employee commitment. In addition, Kim *et al.*'s article (2015) on how HR diversity can have an effect on the highly male dominated culture did observe that, stereotypical perceptions about the cultural assumptions in the workplace about certain category of employees can negatively affect their commitment towards the organization. However, the study further established that HR diversity management through such practices as building of cultural awareness is positively and significantly related with employee commitment.

d) Diversity Networking

The results from table 4.15 also indicated that diversity networking has a positive influence on affective commitment (r=0.434**, p < 0.01), on continuance commitment (r=0.157*, p < 0.05), on normative commitment (r=0.254**, p < 0.01) and on employee commitment (r=0.476**, p < 0.01). The findings were supported by Lee and Kim (2011) who noted that the relationship between social networks and employee commitment is positive and significant. Consistently, Mossholder, Settoon and Henagan, (2005) also noted that there is a positive impact of social networks on organizational behaviours and attitudes hence, their commitment towards their own organizations. On the contrary,

Labianca and Brass (2006) pointed out that some studies have suggested the existence of insignificant influences of employee networks on commitment. Furthermore, Claro and De Oliveira Claro (2011) observed that despite past findings, evidence related to the influence of diversity networking on the commitment of employees has not been covered exhaustively. Nonetheless, Hunt *et al*. (2015) posited that organizations that promote HR diversity management practices such as employee networking, can perform better since such practices enhance employee commitment. In addition, more organizations are continually called upon to make use of their networks consciously to support the business (Palacios-Marques, Popa & Alguacil-Mari, 2016) and promote inclusiveness (Steward, 2016).

e) Organization Support and Employee Commitment

Findings from table 4.15 also showed that organizational support has a linear, positive and significant correlation with affective commitment (r=0.561**, p < 0.01), on normative commitment (r=0.304**, p < 0.01), on continuance commitment (r=0.275**, p < 0.01), and on employee commitment (r=0.599**, p < 0.01) respectively. This suggests that organizational support can also be a direct predictor of employee commitment. These results are consistent with the previous findings about perceived organization support and commitment among employees. For example, Ahmed *et al*. (2015) found out that perceived organization support has a strong and positive impact on employee commitment. This is because employees tend to reciprocate to the extent of perceived commitment of organization support received (Eisenberger *et al*., 2013).

Furthermore, when employees develop a general belief that concerns the extent to which the organization tends to value their contributions as well as cares for their well-being (perceived organizational Support), then they will decide on the level of commitment to reciprocate to such an organization (Cropanzone *et al.,* 2017; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). In addition, some studies have also indicated the existence of a linear, positive and significant correlation between organizational citizenship and employee commitment (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Mishra, 2011). The social exchange

theory posits that basing on the reciprocity norm, the firm's employees will receive favorable treatment from their firm in order for the agents to respond with high commitment and effort (Eisenberger *et al.,* 2013).

According to Levenson *et al.* (2009), when perceived organizational support is controlled, then there will be no direct relationship between building cultural diversity awareness and affective commitment. This implies that when it is not controlled, then perceived organizational support could moderate the relationship between building cultural awareness and affective commitment. Empirical evidence suggests that organization support moderates the relationship between diversity management practices and some HR outcomes such as Organizational citizenship and commitment (Ajay, Sabir & Cary, 2013). On the contrary, Chew (2008) asserted that not all employees that are exposed to the HR diversity management practices (diversity training and rewards) can have their affective commitment increased with or without organizational support. Nonetheless, Jalal *et al.* (2017) argued that rewards and training that is offered to a diverse set of employees in an equitable manner, have a positive and significant influence on employee commitment.

4.7.2 Regression Analysis

This study further carried out a regression analysis by fitting the linear regression models for the data. Regression analysis was conducted for each of the predictor variables on normative, affective, continuance and employee commitments. This was done purposely to interrogate the level of influence that each diversity management practice had on employee commitment. It established the nature relationship between diversity management practices variable and employee commitment variable. The results obtained were presented and discussed as per the specific variable.

a) Regression of Diversity Training on Employee Commitment

To test the quantity of variance of the predictor variable (diversity training) on employee commitment and its constructs (normative, affective and continuance), the study carried out a regression analysis. In relation to results from table 4.15 that established diversity training as having a positive and significant influence on affective, continuance and the overall employee commitment (r=0.297**, p<0.01; r=0.206**, p = 0.01; r=0.515**, p<0.01) respectively. In spite of the relationship between diversity training and normative commitment being positive, it was rather insignificant (r=0.077, p=0.223). Nonetheless, for the specific nature of influence to be established, the predictor variable of diversity training was regressed with all constructs of commitment and the results presented in tables 4.16, 4.17, 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20 respectively, and interpreted thereof:

Table 4.16: Diversity Training on Affective Commitment

<table>
<tr><th colspan="7">Model Summary</th></tr>
<tr><th rowspan="2">R</th><th rowspan="2">R Square</th><th rowspan="2">Adjusted R Square</th><th rowspan="2">Std. Error of the Estimate</th><th colspan="3">Change Statistics</th></tr>
<tr><th>R Square Change</th><th>F Change</th><th>Sig. F Change</th></tr>
<tr><td>.297[a]</td><td>.088</td><td>.085</td><td>.93496</td><td>.088</td><td>24.357</td><td>.000</td></tr>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity training
b. Independent variable, affective commitment

Findings in table 4.16 show the amount of variation on affective commitment as explained by diversity training (the predictor variable). The regression analysis yielded a coefficient R value of 0.088 and R^2 =0.088. This implies that 8.8 per cent of the corresponding change in the predicted variable (affective commitment) can be predicted by diversity training. The rest could possibly be explained by other variables not in this model. In addition, the results in table 4.16 gave the F test value of 24.357, p< 0.001

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which was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in affective commitment. This confirms the usefulness of diversity training as a predictor variable on affective commitment.

Findings in table 4.16 also revealed that diversity training has a positive and significant influence on affective commitment (r=0.297**, p<0.001). It further implies that workers who express satisfaction with diversity training programs as provided by commercial banks will also exhibit high levels of affective commitment. These findings are supported by Anvari, Amin and Seliman (2010) as cited from Meyer and Allen (1991) who opined that when employees are provided with training opportunities, they will exhibit high levels of employees' affective commitment. Further, the constructs of training such as conducting the needs assessment, help to increase affective commitment among employees. Findings are further corroborated by Ashikali and Groeneveld's (2013) article which established that a positive and significant relationship between diversity training programs and affective commitment. Consistently, Celik *et al.*'s (2011) research study on the binding effects of HR diversity management on employees in the public sector in Dutch, had also established that diversity training programs are positively related to affective commitment. Thus, affective commitment is an outcome of diversity management through diversity training practice which focuses on the attraction, selection, and retention of a diverse set of employees by recognizing and valuing their individual differences (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013).

A further regression analysis was carried out diversity training and continuance commitment to establish the nature of influence between the two variables. The results are presented in table 4.17:

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Table 4.17: Diversity Training on Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.206[a]	.042	.039	.96221	.042	11.149	.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity training

The results in table 4.17 show the quantity of variation continuance commitment as explained diversity training (predictor variable). The regression model in table 4.17 revealed a coefficient R value of 0.206 and R squared of 0.042. This indicated that only 4.2 per cent of corresponding change in continuance commitment could be explained by diversity training and the rest explained by other different variables not in the model. Similarly, the F change statistic was 11.149, $p < 0.01$ which was sufficient to support the goodness of fit of the model in the explanation of variance in continuance commitment as the predicted variable. Consequently, this confirms the usefulness of diversity training as the predictor of employees' continuance commitment (dependent variable). Hence, the results revealed that diversity training is positively and significantly related to continuance commitment (r=0.206**, p<0.001). Several studies have also established that any form of training could enhance employees' continuance commitment (Muchibi *et al.*, 2015; Cheng & Waldenberger, 2013; Ahmad & Bakar, 2003). Accordingly, employees will seek to stay within their own organizations because of the perceptions that leaving would deprive them of the privileges obtained from the training opportunities provided in these organizations (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003). Therefore, employees with high continuance commitment continue to stay within the organization because of their own self-interest.

Finally, a regression analysis was carried out on diversity training and normative commitment which established the nature of influence of diversity training on normative commitment. The results were presented in table 4.18:

Table 4.18: Diversity Training on Normative Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.077[a]	.006	.002	1.01181	.006	1.490	.223

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity training

Results in table 4.18 show the quantity of change on normative commitment (predicted) as explained by diversity training (predictor). The regression analysis yielded a coefficient R value of 0.077 and R^2 of only 0.006. This implies that only 0.6 per cent of variance in normative commitment could be explained by diversity training. This shows a very low variance of the predicted variable which is almost insignificant. Thus, the F statistic gave a value of 1.490, with a p-value > 0.05, which was not sufficient to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (normative commitment). Therefore, diversity training is not a useful predictor of normative commitment because the regression analysis revealed that no significant relationship exists (p > 0.05) between diversity training and normative commitment. This implies that employees who expect higher levels of diversity training provision will still have very low levels of normative commitment.

Significantly, commitment is made up of investments, social identity (Tajfel, 2010), and reciprocity (Cropanzone *et al.*, 2017). Accordingly, an employee's "investment" in the firm and the anticipated future "pay off" tend to tie the employee and his or her employer closer to each other. However, according to Barrett and O'Connell (2001) employees view certain HR practices like diversity training as a 'gift', and as a result, these employees tend to exert more effort to become more productive. They tend to reciprocate by being more productive for the gift that they receive in form of diversity training programs. Finally, the regression analysis was carried out between diversity

training and employee commitment to establish the amount of influence on employee commitment because of diversity training the results were presented in table 4.19:

Table 4.19: Diversity Training on Employee Commitment

				Model Summary		
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.515[a]	.266	.263	.64068	.266	91.187	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity training

The results in table 4.19 indicate the measure of change of employee commitment (composite variable) as explained by diversity training (predictor variable). The regression analysis output in table 4.19 yielded a coefficient R value of 0.515 and R^2 of 0.266 implying that 26.6% of the variation in employee commitment could be explained by diversity training. The rest (73.4 %) could be explained by other variables not the model. Nonetheless, the F test statistic gave a value of F= 91.187, P< 0.001, which was large enough as to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variance employee commitment by diversity training. This finding corroborates the fact that diversity training is a useful predictor of employee commitment in commercial banks. Further, the results in table 4.19 revealed a significant and positive relationship (p<0.01) between diversity training and employee commitment. This implies that employees that experience higher levels of diversity training tend to also have higher levels of employee commitment.

These findings also corroborate the findings of other scholars (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013; Madera, 2013; McGuire & Bagher's, 2010). According to McGuire and Bagher (2010), diversity training affects the levels of employee commitment positively and significantly, together with job satisfaction levels. However, Ashikali and Groeneveld

(2013) found out that job satisfaction levels tend to directly and significantly affect levels of employee commitment. Furthermore, diversity training reduces prejudices and discrimination, as it enhances the knowledge and skills to interact with diverse others within the same organization (Kyambi, 2015).

Similarly, further research suggested that there is a positive and direct relationship between the employee's positive training experiences and his or her own attitudes towards the organization. D'Netto & Sohal (1999) pronounced that diversity training programs could be used to cope with individual differences and problems, which could help enhance the respect for such differences in values, behaviour and attitudes. However, enhancing group integration between minority employees and the mainstream ones tend to create cohesion which enhances a sense of social identity hence, contributing to both performance and commitment (D'Netto *et al.*, 2014). The coefficients of the fitted model using the "unstandardized coefficients" was given in table 4.20;

Table 4.20: Diversity Training's Coefficients

<table>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">Coefficients^a</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Unstandardized Coefficients</td><td>Standardized Coefficients</td><td>T</td><td>Sig.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>B</td><td>Std. Error</td><td>Beta</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>(Constant)</td><td>1.374</td><td>.274</td><td></td><td>5.012</td><td>.000</td></tr>
<tr><td>Diversity training</td><td>.610</td><td>.064</td><td>.515</td><td>9.549</td><td>.000</td></tr>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Employee commitment

Similarly, the unstandardized coefficients β value of the computed scores of diversity training was 0.515 with a t-test of 9.549 and at a significance level of $p < 0.01$. Since the t-value is greater than +1.96, the regression model obtained in table 4.19 is confirmed to be significant and feasible. Further, with a $p < 0.01$, it implies that for every 1 per cent increase in diversity training, there was a predicted zero percentage increase in employee

commitment. Having achieved the objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that; H_{01}: *Diversity training has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

b) Regression analysis of Diversity Rewards on Employee Commitments

To test the amount of variation of the independent variable (diversity reward) on the dependent variable (employee commitment) and its constructs (affective, continuance and normative commitments), a regression analysis was carried out. In relation to the results of a correlation matrix in table 4.15, it was found that diversity reward has a positive and significant influence on affective ($r=0.762^{**}$, $p<0.001$), continuance ($r=0.830^{**}$, $p<0.001$), normative ($r=0.867^{**}$, $p<0.001$) and the overall employee commitments ($r=0.456^{**}$, $p<0.001$) respectively. Nonetheless, to establish the specific nature of the influence, diversity reward (predictor variable 2) was regressed with all types of commitment and the results obtained presented in tables 4.21, 4.22, 4.23 and 4.24 respectively and interpreted thereof:

Table 4.21: Diversity Reward on Affective Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.762[a]	.581	.579	.63374	.581	349.504	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity reward

Table 4.21 presents the results of the regression coefficients of the predictor variable (diversity reward) against the predicted variable (affective commitment). The regression analysis results obtained revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between diversity reward and affective commitment ($\beta= 0.762$, $p < 0.01$). Diversity reward as the independent variable reported $R^2 = 0.581$, implying that the predictor variable can explain 58.1 per cent of variation in the predicted variable (affective

commitment). The rest of the variation could be explained by other variables. However, the adjusted R square also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population. Similarly, the F test produced the value for F change (349.504, p < 0.001). This value was large enough as to support the goodness of fit of the regression model in its explanation of the variation in the predicted variable (affective commitment). This also implies that diversity reward is a useful predictor of affective commitment.

Nonetheless, the findings in this study supported other studies conducted previously (Chelangat & Gachuga, 2016; Martin-Perez & Martin-Cruz, 2015; Aladwan *et al.*, 2015; Khan *et al.*, 2013; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Baylor, 2010; Chew, 2008). According to Nujjo and Meyer (2012), intrinsic rewards have been found to be positively and significantly related to affective commitment. Consistently, Martin-Perez & Martin-Cruz (2015) concurred but added that although reward systems have a direct influence on affective commitment, they also act indirectly through affective commitment to influence knowledge transfer. Furthermore, a regression analysis was conducted between diversity reward and continuance commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable on continuance commitment. The results were presented in table 4.22:

Table 4.22: Diversity Reward on Continuance Commitment

Model Summary						
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.830[a]	.688	.687	.54908	.688	556.120	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity reward

Table 4.22 shows the results of the regression analysis between the independent variable (diversity reward) against the dependent variable (continuance commitment). The regression coefficients obtained revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between diversity reward and continuance commitment (β= 0.830, p < 0.01). Accordingly, diversity reward (independent variable) reported R^2 = 0.688, implying that the independent variable (diversity reward) can explain 68.8 per cent of variation in the predicted variable (continuance commitment). The rest of the variation could be explained by other variables. However, the adjusted R square (.687) also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 68.7 per cent. Similarly, the F change statistic produced the value for F (556.120, p < 0.01). Accordingly, the value obtained was very sufficient in its support for the goodness of fit of the regression model in accounting for the variation in the predicted variable (continuance commitment). This also means that diversity reward is a very useful predictor of continuance commitment.

Further, this finding corroborated similar findings on the relationship between diversity rewards and continuance commitment (Chelangat & Gachuga, 2016; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; Ogba, 2008; Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Ogba (2008), rewards tend to represent a tool for continued expression of some commitment to the organization. This implies that the more employees are rewarded for commitment, the more they will be willing to dedicate themselves to the organization. It also means that if employees are rewarded highly irrespective of their background, then they will have their continuance commitment increased. In addition, the regression analysis was also conducted between diversity reward and normative commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable on normative commitment. The results obtained are presented in table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Diversity Reward on Normative Commitment

				Model Summary		
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.867[a]	.752	.751	.50556	.752	763.351	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity reward

Table 4.23 indicates the amount of variation on the predicted variable (normative commitment) as explained by independent variable (diversity reward). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.867 and the R^2 of 0.752, which meant that 75.2 per cent of the corresponding variation in normative commitment can be explained by diversity reward. In addition, the adjusted R square (.751) also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 75.1 per cent. Further, the rest (24.9 per cent) could be explained by other variables not included in the model.

Furthermore, the F change statistic gave a value (763.351, $p < 0.001$) which was quite large and sufficient in its support of the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (normative commitment). Therefore, this validates the view that diversity reward is a very useful predictor of normative commitment. Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between diversity reward and normative commitment ($\beta= 0.867$, $p < 0.01$). It further implies that employees, who experience high levels of diversity rewards, will tend to exhibit high levels of normative commitment.

However, the relationship between organizational rewards and the obligation dimension of employee commitment as offered to a diverse set of employees has not received a lot of attention by many researchers (Ghosh *et al.*, 2016), although many studies concur that

the use of various rewards to motivate employees cannot be a new concept in HR practice. Therefore, the findings of this study have also been supported by other studies (Ghosh *et al*., 2016; Korir & Kipkebut 2016; Van den berg, 2011; Saks, 2006). According to Saks (2006), employees receive appreciation for work through the concept of reciprocity norm. Accordingly, such employees tend to reciprocate with an obligation (normative commitment) sense in mind and as dictated by the social exchange theory (Cropanzone *et al*., 2017; Bergman, 2006; Saks, 2006). Thus, normatively committed employees can be motivated to sacrifice their own interests for the sake of their employers (Ghosh *et al*., 2016). Similarly, because of the institutionalization of HR diversity management practices, goals and values, employees can become committed towards their organizations (Van den berg, 2011; Allen & Meyer, 1991). Furthermore, Korir and Kipkebut (2016) found a positive and significant relationship between diversity rewards and normative commitment.

On the other hand, the second hypothesis predicted that diversity reward has a significant positive influence on employee commitment. To test for the hypothesis, a regression analysis was also conducted between diversity reward and employee commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable on employee commitment. The composite index of diversity reward dimensions and employee commitment were first computed before the regression analysis was performed. The results obtained are presented in table 4.24 and interpreted thereof.

Table 4.24: Diversity Reward on Employee Commitment

Model Summary						
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.528[a]	.279	.278	.66546	.279	68.110	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity reward

The results obtained in table 4.24 indicate the amount of variation on the composite predicted variable (Employee commitment) as explained by independent variable (diversity reward). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.528 and the R^2 of 0.279, which meant that 27.9 per cent of the corresponding variation in employee commitment can be explained by diversity reward. In addition, the adjusted R square (.278) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 27.8 per cent. Further, the rest could be explained by other variables not included in the model.

Furthermore, the F change statistic gave a value (68.110, $p < 0.001$) which was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (employee commitment). Therefore, this validates the view that diversity reward is a very useful predictor of employee commitment. Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between diversity reward and employee commitment ($\beta= 0.528$, $p < 0.001$). It further implies that employees who experience high levels of diversity rewards, can also exhibit high levels of employee commitment.

Previous research findings have also supported these research results (Korir & Kipkebut, 2016; D'Netto et al., 2014; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; D'Netto & Sohal, 1999). For instance, in a study to establish the effect of HR diversity practice on commitment in the Australian manufacturing industry, D'Nett and Sohal (1999) observed that rewarding a diverse set of workforce improves both performance and commitment of the employee. Further, the reward system will ensure that a direct relationship exists between employee effort and the reward itself. Similarly, Haider, Aamir, Hamid and Hashim (2016) noted that the impact of both financial and non-financial rewards can be very instrumental in enhancing employee morale, job satisfaction and employee commitment.

In addition, a survey research by Korir and Kipkebut (2016) to examine the effect of reward management practices on employee commitment in public universities in Nakuru County, found out that financial rewards are significantly related to employee

commitment. Nujjo and Meyer (2012) observed that diversity reward practices are critical strategies that an organization can use to create a committed workforce. Equally, they established that there is a positive and significant relationship between all types of rewards and employee commitment. In line with the same, Aladwan *et al*. (2015) noted that favourable reward perceptions are positively linked to employee's affective commitment and the overall employee commitment in general. The coefficients of the fitted model using the "unstandardized coefficients" was given in the table 4.25;

Table 4.25: Regression Coefficients for Diversity Reward

	Coefficients[a]				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.539	.280		15.096	.000
Diversity reward	.519	.062	.528	9.131	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

Equally, the unstandardized regression coefficients β value of the computed (composite index) scores of diversity reward was 0.528 with a t-test of 9.131 and at a significance level of $p < 0.001$. This implied that for every 1 per cent increase in diversity reward there was a predicted increase in the percentage of employee commitment of zero. Having achieved the objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that; H_{01}: *Diversity reward has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

c) Building Cultural Awareness on Employee Commitment

The third hypothesis predicted that building cultural awareness has a significant influence on employee commitment. Therefore, the amount of variation of the independent variable (building cultural awareness) on the dependent variable (employee

commitment) was found by regressing the two variables. In comparison, the results from the correlation matrix (see table 4.15) showed that building cultural awareness had a positive and significant influence on affective, continuance, normative and the overall employee commitments (r=0.437**, p<0.001; r=0.308**, p<0.01; r=0.165**, p<0.01 and r=0.715**, p<0.01) respectively. Nonetheless, to establish the specific nature of the influence, building cultural awareness (predictor variable 3) was regressed with all types of commitments and the results obtained presented in tables 4.26, 4.27, and 4.28 respectively, which were interpreted thereof. At the end, the composite index of employee commitment dimensions was regressed with the predictor variable (building cultural awareness) and the results presented in table 4.29.

Table 4.26: Building Cultural Awareness on Affective Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.437[a]	.191	.188	.88080	.191	59.390	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness

Table 4.26 indicates the amount of variation on the predicted variable (affective commitment) as explained by independent variable (building cultural awareness). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.437 and the R^2 of 0.191, which meant that 19.1 per cent of the corresponding variation in affective commitment can be explained by building cultural awareness. In addition, the adjusted R square (.188) also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 18.8 per cent. Further, the rest of the variation could be explained by other variables not included in the model. Furthermore, the F change statistic gave the F

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value (59.390, p < 0.01), which was sufficient in its support of the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (affective commitment).

Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between building cultural awareness and affective commitment (β= 0.437, p < 0.01). In addition, it implies that employees who experience high levels of cultural awareness on diversity issues, may also exhibit high levels of affective commitment. Besides, when the regression analysis was conducted between building cultural awareness and continuance commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable 3 on continuance commitment, the results obtained were presented in table 4.27:

Table 4.27: Building Cultural Awareness on Continuance Commitment

			Model Summary			
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.308ᵃ	.095	.092	.93531	.095	26.505	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness

The results in table 4.27 show the quantity of change on the predicted variable (continuance commitment) as explained by the independent variable (building cultural awareness). The regression analysis performed yielded the coefficient R value of 0.308 and the R^2 of 0.095, which meant that only 9.5 per cent of the corresponding variation in continuance commitment can be explained by building cultural awareness. In addition, the adjusted R square (.092) also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 9.2 per cent. Furthermore, the F change gave a value (26.505, p < 0.001) which was sufficient in its support of the goodness of

fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). Therefore, this validates the view that building cultural awareness is a useful predictor of continuance commitment. Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between building cultural awareness and continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.095$, $p < 0.001$).   Also, the regression analysis was conducted between building cultural awareness and normative commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable (building cultural awareness) on normative commitment. The results obtained were presented in table 4.28:

Table 4.28: Building Cultural Awareness on Normative Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.165[a]	.027	.023	1.00091	.027	7.042	.008

a. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness

The results obtained in table 4.28 indicate the amount of variation on the predicted variable (normative commitment) as explained by the independent variable (building cultural awareness). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.165 and the R^2 of 0.027, which meant that only 2.7 per cent of the corresponding variation in normative commitment can be explained by the building of cultural awareness on diversity issues. In addition, the adjusted R square (.023) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 2.3 per cent. Further, the rest could be explained by other variables not included in the model. Furthermore, the F change statistic gave a value (7.042, $p = 0.008$) which was very low to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent

variable (normative commitment). However, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between building cultural awareness and normative commitment ($\beta= 0.165$, $p < 0.01$).

In addition, to test for the third hypothesis, a regression analysis was conducted between building cultural awareness and employee commitment to establish the nature of influence of this predictor variable on employee commitment. The composite index of building cultural awareness dimensions and that of employee commitment were first computed before the regression analysis was performed. The results obtained from the regression were presented in table 4.29 and interpreted thereof.

Table 4.29: Building Cultural Awareness on Employee Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.715[a]	.511	.509	.52281	.511	263.390	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness

The results in table 4.29 present the findings on the amount of variation obtained on the composite predicted variable (employee commitment) as explained by predictor variable (building cultural awareness). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.715 and the R^2 of 0.511, which meant that 51.1 per cent of the corresponding variation in employee commitment can be explained by the building of cultural awareness. In addition, the adjusted R square (.509) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 50.9 per cent. Further, the rest (48.9 per cent) could be explained by other variables included in the multiple regression models.

Furthermore, the F change statistic gave a value (263.390, p **<** 0.001) which was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the predicted variable (employee commitment). It also showed that with a p value of less than 0.001, there is less than 1 in 1000 chances that the influence of building cultural awareness on employee commitment could be described by a flat line. Therefore, this validates the view that building cultural awareness is a very useful predictor variable of employee commitment. Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between building cultural awareness and employee commitment (β= 0.715, p < 0.001). It further implies that employees who experience high levels of cultural awareness on diversity issues, will also exhibit high levels of commitment.

These findings support previous research work on the effect of imparting knowledge about cultural awareness to a diverse set of employees (Kim *et al*., 2015; Ashikali & Groeneveld 2015; Nguyen, 2014; Madera, 2013; Fullerton, 2013; Munjuri & Maina, 2013; Leveson *et al*., 2009). According to Nguyen (2014) on a study that was conducted to examine the implementation of diversity training in organizations in 2006 by Hite and McDonald, it was observed that organizations fail to offer training that goes beyond the awareness level. Further, the findings about the embodied prejudices on diversity and practices (De Figueiredo, 2015) found that these prejudices tend to affect the access to knowledge about cultural awareness and end up perpetuating the historical cultural dominance hence, affecting employee commitment negatively. Nonetheless, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) further revealed that the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment could be mediated by inclusiveness in the culture of the organization. The coefficients of the fitted model using the "unstandardized coefficients" was given in the table 4.30;

Table 4.30: Regression Coefficients of Building Cultural Awareness

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7" align="center">Coefficients^a</td></tr>
<tr><td>Model</td><td colspan="2">Unstandardized Coefficients</td><td>Standardized Coefficients</td><td>t</td><td>Sig.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>B</td><td>Std. Error</td><td>Beta</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>(Constant)</td><td>.355</td><td>.225</td><td></td><td>1.579</td><td>.116</td></tr>
<tr><td>1   Building cultural awareness</td><td>.911</td><td>.056</td><td>.715</td><td>16.229</td><td>.000</td></tr>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Employee commitment

Equally, the results obtained in table 4.30 revealed that the unstandardized regression coefficients β value of the computed (composite index) scores of building cultural awareness was found to be 0.715, with a t-value of 16.229 at a significance level of $p < 0.001$. This implied that for every 1 per cent increase in building cultural awareness, there was a predicted increase in the percentage of employee commitment of zero. Having achieved the objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that: H_{03}: *Building Cultural Awareness has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

d) Regression of Diversity Networking on Employee Commitment

The fourth hypothesis predicted that diversity networking has a significance influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Accordingly, the quantity of variation of the independent variable (diversity networking) on the dependent variable (employee commitment) was found by regressing the two variables. In comparison, the results from a correlation matrix table 4.15 revealed that diversity networking had a positive and significant influence on affective, continuance, normative (r=0.434**, p<0.01; r=0.157*, p<0.05; r=0.254**, p<0.01 and the overall employee commitment r=0.476**, p<0.01) respectively. Nonetheless, to establish the specific nature of the

influence, diversity networking (predictor variable 4) was regressed with all types of commitments and the results obtained presented in tables 4.31, 4.32, and 4.33 respectively, which were interpreted thereof. In the end, the composite index of employee commitment dimensions was regressed with the predictor variable 4 and the results presented in table 4.34

Table 4.31: Diversity Networking on Affective Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.434[a]	.188	.185	.88209	.188	58.477	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity networking

Table 4.31 indicates the quantity of variation on the predicted variable (affective commitment) as explained by independent variable (diversity networking). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.434 and the R^2 of 0.188, which meant that 18.8 per cent of the corresponding variation in affective commitment can be explained by the variable diversity networking. In addition, the adjusted R square (.185) also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 18.5 per cent. Further, the rest of the variation could be explained by other variables in the multiple regression model.

Furthermore, the F change statistic gave the F value (58.477, p < 0.001) which was sufficient in its support of the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (affective commitment). Therefore, these corroborate the view that diversity networking is a useful predictor of affective commitment. Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant

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relationship between diversity networking and affective commitment (β= 0.434, p < 0.01). It in addition implies that an employee who experiences a high level of diversity networking will tend to exhibit a high level of affective commitment. Further, when a regression analysis was conducted between diversity networking and continuance commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable 4 on continuance commitment, the results obtained were presented in table 4.32:

Table 4.32: Diversity Networking on Continuance Commitment

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7" align="center">Model Summary</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">R</td><td rowspan="2">R Square</td><td rowspan="2">Adjusted R Square</td><td rowspan="2">Std. Error of the Estimate</td><td colspan="3" align="center">Change Statistics</td></tr>
<tr><td>R Square Change</td><td>F Change</td><td>Sig. F Change</td></tr>
<tr><td>.157^a</td><td>.025</td><td>.021</td><td>.97110</td><td>.025</td><td>6.355</td><td>.012</td></tr>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity networking

The results in table 4.32 show the measure of change on the predicted variable (continuance commitment) as explained by the independent variable (diversity networking). The regression analysis performed yielded the coefficient R value of 0.157 and the R^2 of 0.025, which meant that only 2.5 per cent of the corresponding variation in continuance commitment can be explained by diversity networking. In addition, the adjusted R square (.021) also attempts to generate a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 2.1 per cent.

In addition, the F change value (6.355, p < 0.01) given was sufficient to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). Therefore, this validates the view that diversity networking can be a useful predictor of continuance commitment. Similarly, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between

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diversity networking and continuance (β= 0.157, p < 0.05). On the other hand, a regression analysis was also conducted between diversity networking and normative commitment to establish the nature of influence of the predictor variable (diversity networking) on normative commitment. The results obtained were presented in table 4.33.

Table 4.33: Diversity Networking on Normative Commitment

<table>
<tr><th colspan="7">Model Summary</th></tr>
<tr><th rowspan="2">R</th><th rowspan="2">R Square</th><th rowspan="2">Adjusted R Square</th><th rowspan="2">Std. Error of the Estimate</th><th colspan="3">Change Statistics</th></tr>
<tr><th>R Square Change</th><th>F Change</th><th>Sig. F Change</th></tr>
<tr><td>.254[a]</td><td>.065</td><td>.061</td><td>.98140</td><td>.065</td><td>17.444</td><td>.000</td></tr>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity networking

The results obtained in table 4.33 indicate the amount of variation on the dependent variable (normative commitment) as explained by the independent variable (diversity networking). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R value of 0.254 and the R^2 of 0.065, which meant that only 6.5 per cent of the corresponding variation in normative commitment can be explained by diversity networking. In addition, the adjusted R square (.061) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 6.1 per cent. On the contrary, the rest of the percentage could be explained by other variables not included in this model but rather in the multiple regression model.

Furthermore, the F change statistic obtained gave the F value (17.444, p = 0.000) which was sufficient to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (normative commitment). However, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between

diversity networking and normative commitment ($\beta= 0.254$, $p < 0.01$). Nonetheless, the fourth hypothesis predicted that diversity networking has a significant positive influence on employee commitment. To test for the hypothesis, a regression analysis was also conducted between diversity networking and employee commitment to establish the nature of influence of this predictor variable on employee commitment. The composite index of diversity networking dimensions and that of employee commitment were first computed before the regression analysis was performed. The results obtained from the regression were presented in table 4.34 and interpreted thereof.

Table 4.34: Diversity Networking on Employee Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.476[a]	.227	.224	.65750	.227	73.856	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), diversity networking

Table 4.34 presents the findings on the quantity of variation obtained on the composite predicted variable (employee commitment) as explained by the independent variable (diversity networking). The regression analysis carried out yielded the coefficient R value of 0.476 and the R^2 of 0.227, which meant that 22.7 per cent of the corresponding variation in employee commitment can be explained by diversity networking. Furthermore, the adjusted R square (.224) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 22.4 per cent. In addition, the rest of variance could be explained by other variables included in the multiple regression model.

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Similarly, the F change value of (73.856, p < 0.001) obtained was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the predicted variable (employee commitment). It also showed that with a p value of less than 0.001, there is less than 1 in 1000 chances that the influence of diversity networking on employee commitment could be described by a flat line. Therefore, this corroborate the view that diversity networking can be useful predictor variable of employee commitment. In addition, the regression analysis results revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between diversity networking and employee commitment (β= 0.476, p < 0.01). It thus implies that employees who experience high levels of diversity networking, could also exhibit relatively high levels of employee commitment.

These findings are in line with previous study findings on the relationship between employee networking and employee commitment (Stewart, 2016; Palacios-Marques *et al.*, 2016; Madera, 2013; Lee & Kim, 2011; Mossholder *et al.*, 2005). According to Steward (2016), having a diverse set of employees allows for dialogue that is rich with the best business decisions taken. Further, this can best be addressed by the development of professionals through employee networking. In consistent with the same, Lee and Kim (2011) established that the relationship between employees' social networks and employee commitment is positive and significant. On the contrary, Claro and De Oliveira Claro (2011) asserted that despite previous findings, studies about the influence of employee networking on employee commitment have not been exhaustively carried out.

In support for this view, Bennett, Owers, Pitt, and Tucker (2010) argued that the benefits of employee networking are not fully appreciated nor given the required value. Nonetheless, Hunt *et al*. (2015) and Madera (2013) posited that organizations that promote HR diversity management practices such as employee networking, can perform better because such practices enhance employee commitment. Consistent with this view, Yin-Mei (2011) opined that employee networks are very critical instruments for effective management of a diverse set of employees. Furthermore, networking behaviour

among employees was found to have a positive influence on career related outcomes such as promotions and compensation (Yin-Mei, 2016; Ortlien & Sieben, 2013; Wolff & Moser, 2010; O'Toole & Meier, 2004). The coefficients of the fitted model using the "unstandardized coefficients" was given in the table 4.35;

Table 4.35: Regr ession Coefficients on Diversity Networking

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.447	.181		13.507	.000
Diversity networking	.412	.048	.476	8.594	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee commitment

Equally, the results obtained in table 4.35 revealed that the unstandardized regression coefficients β value of the computed (composite index) scores of diversity networking was found to be 0.476 with a t-value of 8.594, at a significance level of $p < 0.01$. This implied that for every 1 per cent increase in diversity networking, there was a predicted increase in the percentage of employee commitment of zero. Having achieved the objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that: H_{04}: *Diversity Networking has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

e) Human Resource Diversity Management on Employee Commitment

The general objective for this study was to investigate the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. To establish the specific nature of the influence, HR diversity management practices (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) were jointly regressed as predictor variables with all types of commitments and the results obtained presented in tables 4.36, 4.37, and 4.38 respectively, and

interpreted thereof. In the end, the composite index of employee commitment dimensions was regressed with the all practices of HR diversity practices after the computation, and the results presented in table 4.39;

Table 4.36: HR Diversity Practices on Affective Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.791[a]	.625	.619	.60282	.625	103.947	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity networking, Diversity training, Diversity reward, Building cultural awareness

Table 4.36 presents the quantity of variation obtained on the predicted variable (affective commitment) as explained by the composite independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking). The regression analysis carried out yielded the coefficient R value of 0.791 and the R^2 of 0.625, which means that 62.5 per cent of the corresponding variation in affective commitment can be explained by HR diversity management practices. Furthermore, the adjusted R square (.619) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 61.9 per cent. The rest of the variance could be explained by other variables not included in this regression model. Similarly, the F change value of (103.947, $p < 0.001$), which was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the predicted variable (affective commitment) by HR diversity management practices. It also shows that with a p value of less than 0.001, there is less than 1 in 1000 chances that the influence of HR diversity management practices on affective commitment may be described by a flat line.

Therefore, this corroborates the view that HR diversity management practices are useful predictors of affective commitment. In addition, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between HR diversity management practices and affective commitment (β= 0.625, p < 0.001). It also implies that employees who experience high levels of HR diversity management practices will also exhibit high levels of affective commitment. Further, when the regression analysis was conducted between HR diversity management practices as the predictor variables and continuance commitment to establish the nature of influence of the independent variables on continuance commitment, the results obtained were presented in table 4.37:

Table 4.37: HR Diversity Practices on Continuance Commitment

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7" align="center">Model Summary</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">R</td><td rowspan="2">R Square</td><td rowspan="2">Adjusted R Square</td><td rowspan="2">Std. Error of the Estimate</td><td colspan="3" align="center">Change Statistics</td></tr>
<tr><td>R Square Change</td><td>F Change</td><td>Sig. F Change</td></tr>
<tr><td>.845^a</td><td>.713</td><td>.709</td><td>.52966</td><td>.713</td><td>154.860</td><td>.000</td></tr>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity networking, Diversity training, Diversity reward, Building cultural awareness

The results in table 4.37 present the quantity of variation obtained on the predicted variable (continuance commitment) as explained by the composite independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking). The regression analysis carried out yielded the coefficient R value of 0.845 and the R^2 of 0.713, which meant that 71.3 per cent of the corresponding variation in continuance commitment can be explained by HR diversity management practices. Furthermore, the adjusted R square (.709) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 70.9 per cent. The rest of the variance could be explained by other variables not included in this multiple regression

model. Similarly, the F change value of (154.860, p < 0.001) obtained was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the predicted variable (continuance commitment) by HR diversity management practices. It also indicates that with a p value of less than 0.001, there is less than 1 in 1000 chances that the influence of HR diversity management practices on continuance commitment may be described by a flat line.

Thus, this indicates that HR diversity management practices are useful predictor variables of continuance commitment. In addition, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between HR diversity management practices and continuance commitment ($\beta= 0.713$, p < 0.01). In addition, it implies that employees who experience high levels of HR diversity management practices can also exhibit high levels of continuance commitment. Furthermore, when the regression analysis was conducted between HR diversity management practices as the predictor variables and normative commitment to establish the nature of influence of the independent variables on normative commitment, the results obtained were presented in table 4.38:

Table 4.38: HR Diversity Practices on Normative Commitment

Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
.884[a]	.781	.778	.47742	.781	222.388	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity networking, Diversity training, Diversity reward, Building cultural awareness

The results in table 4.38 present the amount of variation obtained on the predicted variable (normative commitment) as explained by the composite independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity

networking). The regression analysis carried out yielded the coefficient R value of 0.884 and the R^2 of 0.781, which meant that 78.1 per cent of the corresponding variation in normative commitment can be explained by HR diversity management practices. Furthermore, the adjusted R square (.778) also attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 77.8 per cent. The rest of the variance could be explained by other variables not included in this multiple regression model. Similarly, the F change statistic gave a value of (222.388, $p < 0.001$) which was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the predicted variable (normative commitment) by the HR diversity management practices.

It also demonstrates that with a p value of less than 0.001, there is less than 1 in 1000 chances that the influence of HR diversity management practices on normative commitment could be described by a flat line. Therefore, this also shows that HR diversity management practices are useful predictor variables of normative commitment. In addition, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between HR diversity management practices and normative commitment ($\beta= 0.781$, $p < 0.001$). It also implies that employees who experience high levels of HR diversity management practices can also exhibit high levels of normative commitment. In addition, when a regression analysis was conducted between HR diversity management practices and the composite dependent variable of employee commitment, to establish the nature of influence of the independent variables on employee commitment, the results obtained were presented in table 4.39 and interpreted thereof:

Table 4.39: HR Diversity Practices on Employee Commitment

				Model Summary			
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
				R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change	
.763[a]	.582	.575	.48618	.582	86.745	.000	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity networking, Diversity training, Diversity reward, Building cultural awareness

Table 4.39 presents the amount of variation obtained on the composite predicted variable (employee commitment) as explained by the composite independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking). The regression analysis carried out yielded the coefficient R value of 0.763 and the R^2 of 0.582, which meant that 58.2 per cent of the corresponding variation in employee commitment can be explained by HR diversity management practices. Furthermore, the adjusted R square (.575) attempts to give a more honest value that tends to estimate the R square for the entire population at 57.5 per cent.

Similarly, the F change statistic gave a value of (86.745, $p < 0.001$) which was large enough to support the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the composite predicted variable (employee commitment) by HR diversity management practices. It also shows that with a p value of less than 0.001, there is less than 1 in 1000 chances that the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment could be described by a flat line. Thus, this corroborates the view that HR diversity management practices are useful predictor variables of employee commitment. Equally, the regression analysis results further revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment ($\beta = 0.582$, $p < 0.001$). It in addition implies that employees who experience

high levels of HR diversity management practices, can also exhibit increased levels of employee commitment. Therefore, this model was found to be significant and fit, expressed further in the regression coefficients as shown in table 4.40:

Table 4.40: Regression Coefficients for HR Diversity Practices

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7" align="center">Coefficients[a]</td></tr>
<tr><td>Model</td><td colspan="2">Unstandardized Coefficients</td><td>Standardized Coefficients</td><td>t</td><td>Sig.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>B</td><td>Std. Error</td><td>Beta</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>(Constant)</td><td>-.291</td><td>.241</td><td></td><td>-1.207</td><td>.228</td></tr>
<tr><td>Diversity training</td><td>.159</td><td>.060</td><td>.135</td><td>2.659</td><td>.008</td></tr>
<tr><td>Diversity reward</td><td>.175</td><td>.042</td><td>.190</td><td>4.213</td><td>.000</td></tr>
<tr><td>Building cultural awareness</td><td>.640</td><td>.070</td><td>.502</td><td>9.084</td><td>.000</td></tr>
<tr><td>Diversity networking</td><td>.122</td><td>.041</td><td>.141</td><td>2.977</td><td>.003</td></tr>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

The results obtained in table 4.40 show the unstandardized regression coefficients β values of the computed (composite index) scores of HR diversity management practices as 0.159 (Diversity training), 0.175 (Diversity reward), 0.640 (Building cultural awareness) and 0.122 (Diversity networking). These coefficients showed the fitted model with the inclusion of the constant (beta zero). Hence, the raw regression equation model given was as shown:

$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$ and thus, the estimated model was given by:

Employee Commitment (predicted) = -0.291+ 0.159×diversity training + 0.175× diversity reward + 0.640×building cultural awareness + 0.122×diversity networking

In the establishment of how useful the predictor variables could be, Cohen and Cohen (1983) recommended that the *t*- values should be less than -1.96 or greater than +1.96.

Accordingly, a large t-value on either side and a smaller p-value, tend to suggest that the independent variable contributes sufficiently to the predicted variable in order to support the regression model as fit and applicable. Therefore, the results obtained in table 4.40 presented the *t*-values of diversity training (t= 2.659), diversity reward (t= 4.213), building cultural awareness (t= 9.084) and diversity networking (2.977). This showed that all the *t*-values were within the range and hence, the variables were found to be significant predictors of employee commitment since all of them had p values of less than 0.01. Equally, this shows that when a given set of employees' experiences are increased in terms of the provision of HR diversity management practices, then there would be a subsequent increase in employee commitment by the given *t*- values respectively. Thus, having achieved the set objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that: H_0: *HR diversity Management practices have no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

According to the findings of this study, HR diversity management practices have a positive influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. This is consistent with Guerrero *et al.*'s (2013) observation that many studies have looked at the effect of pro diversity practices and found a significant link with employee commitment. According to Patrick and Kumar (2012), successfully managed HR diversity practices are significantly related to employee commitment. Kundu, (2016) also concurred that HR diversity management is significantly related to employee commitment in the Indian IT organizations. Waight and Madera (2011) suggested that when workplace diversity is successfully managed, positive effects such as enhanced employee commitment will be obtained. Other researches have also demonstrated that if HR diversity management practices are effectively implemented, then they will trigger employee commitment (Kundu & Mor, 2017; Magosh & Chung, 2009).

For instance, building cultural awareness of oneself and creating a cultural environment in which employees tend to bring their whole self to work with no distractions of wanting to become something else other than who they are (Peretz *et al.,* 2015;

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Fullerton, 2013). This sense of feeling shows high degree of commitment from employees to the organization. Similarly, diversity training has been found to have a significant influence on employee commitment through improved training transfer (Chauhan *et al.,* 2017; D'Netto *et al.*, 2014; Yap *et al.,* 2010). In consistent with the same view, Yap *et al*. (2010) further suggested that when diversity training is perceived to be effective, it significantly influences employee commitment in many organizations. According to Steward (2016), employee networking tends to promote inclusivity since it embraces diversity by providing for the minority groups in the organization. In addition, employee networking provides developmental opportunities to all groups of employees, and consequently increases their commitment to the organization.

Control Variables in the Moderating Influence of Organizational Support

Similar to previous researches, this study also included job category, age, education level, and length of service as control variables (Mukanzi *et al*., 2014; Magosh & Chung, 2009). This was so because the variables are closely linked to the dimensions of HR diversity (Kinyanjui, 2013; Munjuri & Maina, 2013) and hence, the commitment of a diverse workforce. To measure age, the study used a continuous scale and categorized it into 4: (1) for below 34, (2) for the age between 35-44, (3) for the age ranging 45-54 and (4) for 55 years and above. In addition, job category was measured by the dichotomous variables where (1) was designated for the top management, (2) for the supervisory and (3) for lower cadre employees. Similarly, education level was measured in the same manner whereby (1) was designated for the holders of a certificate, (2) for those with diplomas, (3) for university degree holders and (4) for those with master's degrees. Finally, the length of service was measured in a continuous variable wherein (1) was designated for less than 1 years' experience, (2) for the experience between 1-3 years in the same organization, (3) for 4-6 years, (4) for 7-9 years and (5) for those with 10 years and above as employees in the same bank.

4.8 Moderation Relationship

This study also sought to investigate the moderating influence of organizational support on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. To test for this moderation, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In doing so, the dependent variable (employee commitment) was kept in raw form while the independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) and the moderator (organization support) were mean centered and standardized. Mean centering of the predictors and the moderator reduces the risk of multi-collinearity (Chauhan *et al.,* 2017).

Further, the mean centered predictor variables and the moderator were multiplied to create the interaction terms. In addition, a series of multiple regression analysis was carried out by use of the mean centered predictor and moderator values against the dependent variable (hierarchical regression). The hierarchical regression analysis first sought to determine the influence of control variables (job category, age, education level and length of service) on the dependent variable (employee commitment) as shown in table 4.41 and then followed by a series of other steps. After the hierarchical regression was done, the interaction plots were generated to confirm whether there was interaction between the variables at different levels of moderation. Finally, the step wise regression analysis was also conducted to determine the incremental contribution of each predictor variable on the variance in the predicted variable.

4.8.1 Hierarchical Regression Analysis

In the first step, four standardized individual demographic variables of age, length of service, education level and job category were determined as control variables (Model 1). It was important to control for these variables since they had earlier on been found to influence the level of employee commitment (Magosh & Chang, 2009). For instance, Wambua and Karanja (2016) assert that when employees grow older, they tend to stay in their current firms much longer, get promoted to higher positions and end up being

rewarded better as they become more committed. Similarly, Magosh and Chang (2009) posited that education level may influence employee commitment. That is, highly educated employees may show higher commitment since jobs with more autonomy are given to the highly educated.

In the second step, all independent variables were added (model 2). However, to reduce the potential of multi-collinearity problem from the moderation analysis, all variables were entered after being mean centered. This also ensured that the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) scores were all below 10.0 (Chauhan *et al.,* 2017; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013; Newman & Sheikh, 2012; Aiken & West, 1991). In the third step, the moderating variable (mean centered scores of organizational support) was added to obtain model 3 as shown in table 4.41. In the fourth step, all interaction terms (products of mean centered predictors and moderating variables), were added to obtain model 4 as indicated in table 4.41. The hierarchical regression model summary obtained was presented in table 4.41 shown:

Table 4.41: Hierarchical Regression Model

<div align="center">Model Summary</div>

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.142[a]	.020	.005	.74449	.020	1.288	4	249	.275
2	.776[b]	.602	.589	.47838	.582	89.517	4	245	.000
3	.798[c]	.637	.623	.45797	.035	23.328	1	244	.000
4	.829[d]	.686	.669	.42900	.050	9.519	4	240	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job category, Education level, Age, Length of service
b. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness, Diversity reward, Diversity networking, Diversity training
c. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational support
d. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity reward × Organizational support, Diversity networking × Organizational support, Diversity training × Organizational support, Building cultural awareness × Organizational support

The findings in Model 1 from table 4.41 showed that cumulatively, all the demographic variables (taken as control variables) were found to be positive but insignificantly associated with employee commitment (r =142, p>0.05). This indicated that the control variables (job category, education level, age and length of service) were weakly but positively correlated to employee commitment (r = .142). Nonetheless, the model was found to be insignificant (p>0.05) and could only explain 2% of variance in the dependent variable (employee commitment). Therefore, this model was neither fit nor applicable.

In addition, when the standardized z scores (mean centred) of four predictor variables were added to model 1, model 2 was obtained as shown in table 4.41. Similarly, all the four independent variables were jointly found to be positive and significantly related to employee commitment (r=0.776, p<0.01). That is, the R^2 value increased by .582 to .602, implying that the new model could explain 60.2 per cent of variance in employee commitment at p < .01. These findings supported the hypothesis that HR diversity management practices had a positive and significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. The results also indicated that HR diversity management practices were strongly and positively related to employee commitment (r = .776, p<.001). Therefore, this model was also found to be statistically significant and applicable.

The findings from table 4.41 also showed that when organizational support was added as a moderator, the results (model 3) obtained indicated that both independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) and the moderator variable (organization support) were significantly and jointly related to employee commitment (r =0.798, p<0.01). That is, when all the demographic variables were controlled, the relationship between HR diversity management practices (on addition of organizational support) and employee commitment was found to be positive and statistically significant. This was seen by the

change in R^2 of .035, from .602 to .637. This implied that model 3 could now explain 63.7 per cent from 60.2 per cent of variance in employee commitment.

Finally, to investigate how organization support moderates the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya, the interaction terms of the mean centered independent variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) and the mean centered moderator (organization support) were entered in the regression model to obtain model 4. This entry caused an increase in the R^2 from .637 to .686. The findings indicated that organizational support has a positive and significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment ($r = 0.829$, $R^2 = 0.686$, $p<0.01$). This implies that, when moderated by organizational support, the influence of HR diversity management practices could now explain 68.6 per cent of variance in employee commitment, with the model being seen to be significant and applicable ($p<.01$). Thus, the hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that with the addition of interaction terms, the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment was enhanced by organizational support as a moderator. Furthermore, this influence was found to be strong and positive ($r= .829$, $p<.01$). Therefore, the study results concluded that organizational support moderates the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment.

The results were supported by findings of Patrick and Kumar (2012) who asserted that the relationship between diversity practices and employee commitment can be sought in moderation. In addition, when HRM practices are supported, they can help provide the stimulus for desired behavioural change and enhanced commitment (Aladwan *et al.*, 2015). According to Mukanzi *et al.* (2014), perceived managerial support defines the extent to which the firm's management is sensitive to employees' work responsibilities. Further, it moderates the relationship between experienced burnout and stress arising from poor HR diversity, and employee commitment. In addition, employees' sufficient

support from their firms or management could enable them to continue working in the various banks.

Accordingly, Levenson *et al*. (2009) underscored the importance of organization support by indicating that if organizational support is controlled, then the direct relationship between cultural diversity and affective commitment shall not be significant; rather, an indirect relationship between the two when moderated by organization support was found to be significant. Nonetheless, hierarchical regression analysis can enable one to see if a variable of interest (organizational support) can explain a statistical significant amount of variance in the dependent variable, after accounting for all other variables (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). This can be observed in the unstandardized coefficient table 4.42:

Table 4.42: Unstandardized Coefficients for Hierarchical Model

<div align="center">Coefficients^a</div>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients
		B	Std. Error	Beta
	Step 1; Control variables			
1	(Constant)	4.562	.465	
	Job category	-.125	.084	-.124
	Age	.036	.082	.035
	Education level	-.115	.091	-.090
	Length of service	.005	.049	.008
	R=0.142, R^2 = 0.020, ΔR^2 =0.020, FΔ (4, 249) =1.2888, P = 0.275			
	Step 2; Independent variables			
2	(Constant)	4.751	.323	
	Diversity Training	.107	.039	.144
	Diversity Reward	.134	.036	.179
	Cultural Awareness	.402	.044	.539
	Diversity Networks	.073	.038	.098
	R=0.776, R^2 = 0.602, ΔR^2 =0.582, FΔ (4, 245) =89.517, P = 0.000			
	Step 3; Moderating Variable			
3	(Constant)	4.701	.310	
	Organization Support	.196	.041	.263
	R=0.798, R^2 = 0.637, ΔR^2 =0.035, FΔ (1, 244) =23.328, P = 0.000			
	Step 4; Interaction variables			
4	(Constant)	5.034	.300	
	Diversity training × Organization support	-.040	.037	-.055
	Diversity reward × Organization support	-.133	.037	-.209
	Cultural awareness × Organization support	.051	.039	.085
	Diversity networks × Organization support	-.036	.046	-.054
	R=0.829, R^2 = 0.686, ΔR^2 =0.050, FΔ (4, 240) =9.519, P = 0.000			

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

The findings from table 4.42 showed the results output of the unstandardized coefficients of a hierarchical regression analysis. Model 1 in table 4.42 indicated that the relationship between all the control variables and employee commitment was not

significant (age, job category, education level and length of service). However, a change among the control variables' influence on employee commitment occurred when the predictor variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) were added to obtain model 2. The non-significant results between all the control variables and employee commitment were altered once the HR diversity management practices (predictor variables) were added and controlled, highlighting the importance of diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking on employee commitment. At this point, the relationship between the control variables (job category and length of service) and employee commitment was found to be significant at a significance level of 0.05.

Nonetheless, the relationships between age and education level as control variables and employee commitment were found to be still insignificant at the said significance level. In other words, older workers and academic qualifications were found to be non-predictors of employee commitment within commercial banks in Kenya, while the managerial level and work experience were found to be positive and significant predictors of employee commitment, when HR diversity management practices were added in the hierarchical regression analysis model. Nevertheless, the standardized coefficients of length of service (-0.099) and job category (-0.139) were found to be the lowest of all the control variables in this model, which then undermined their own statistical significance.

The addition of mean centred or standardized z scores of organization support in model 3 brought a change in the significance of the various control variables. That is, education level and job category's influence on employee commitment were found to be significant at significance level of 0.05 (Job category=0.020; Education level= 0.033). The length of service became insignificant in this model as undermined by the low coefficients in model 2. Age remained insignificant as well. Also, building cultural awareness and organizational support showed a significance relationship with employee commitment at a significance level of 0.001, while diversity training showed a

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significance relationship with employee commitment at p< 0.01 and diversity reward at p<0.05. Diversity networking remained statistically insignificant in model 3.

Similarly, model 4 in table 4.42 showed that when controlled, the coefficient values of the computed (composite index) standardized scores of HR diversity management practices (predictor variables) were all significant except for diversity networking (p>0.05). That is, diversity training had a p < 0.01, diversity reward at p < 0.05, and building cultural awareness was at p < 0.01. On the other hand, the interaction terms showed a non-significance value (p > 0.05) except for diversity reward × organization support with employee commitment. Nonetheless, the coefficients are interpretable since some of the predictor variables were significant. Therefore, from the results obtained in table 4.42, a hierarchical multiple regression model can be stated as shown:

$$Y = 5.034 + 0.144\ X_1 + 0.070\ X_2 + 0.318X_3 + 0.006X_4 + 0.199X_5 - 0.040\ X_1\ {}^*X_5 - 0.133X_2\ {}^*\ X_5 + 0.051X_3\ {}^*X_5 - 0.036X_4\ {}^*X_5\ \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ \text{II a}$$

or

Employee commitment = 5.034 + 0.144diversity training + 0.070 diversity reward + 0.318 building cultural awareness + 0.006diversity networking + 0.199 organizational support - 0.040 diversity training × organizational support – 0.133diversity reward × organizational support + 0.051building cultural awareness × organizational support- 0.036 diversity networking × organizational support...II a

However, to interpret how Organizational Support moderates the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment, regression equations were calculated for each level relationship at high and low levels of organizational support. The regressions were run on centred terms by use of the process model 1 method as advanced by Andrew F. Hayes (Dawson, 2014). The resulting values obtained which showed the interaction effects between the predictor variables (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) and the

moderating variable (organization support) were plotted on an interaction plot excel file to help interpret the interaction. As a rule of the thumb, non-parallel lines indicated an interaction, such that the more non-parallel the lines are, the greater the interaction. The results of these equations were plotted graphically and presented in figures 4.7, 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10 respectively.

The results shown in table 4.42 indicated that the interaction effect of organizational support on the relationship between diversity training and employee commitment was significant at (β = -0.055, p < 0.01). However, the association between diversity training (predictor variable) and employee commitment (predicted variable) was dependent on the level of organizational support as provided by the various commercial banks under study. Therefore, the nature of the moderation influence on the relationship between diversity training and employee commitment in the banking sector was presented in figure 4.11.
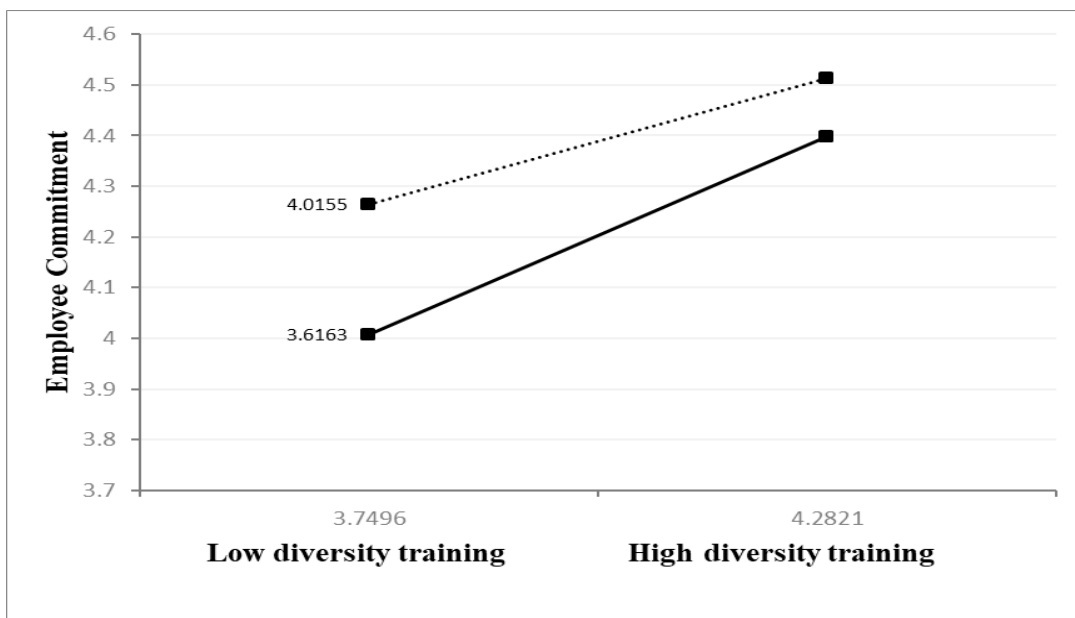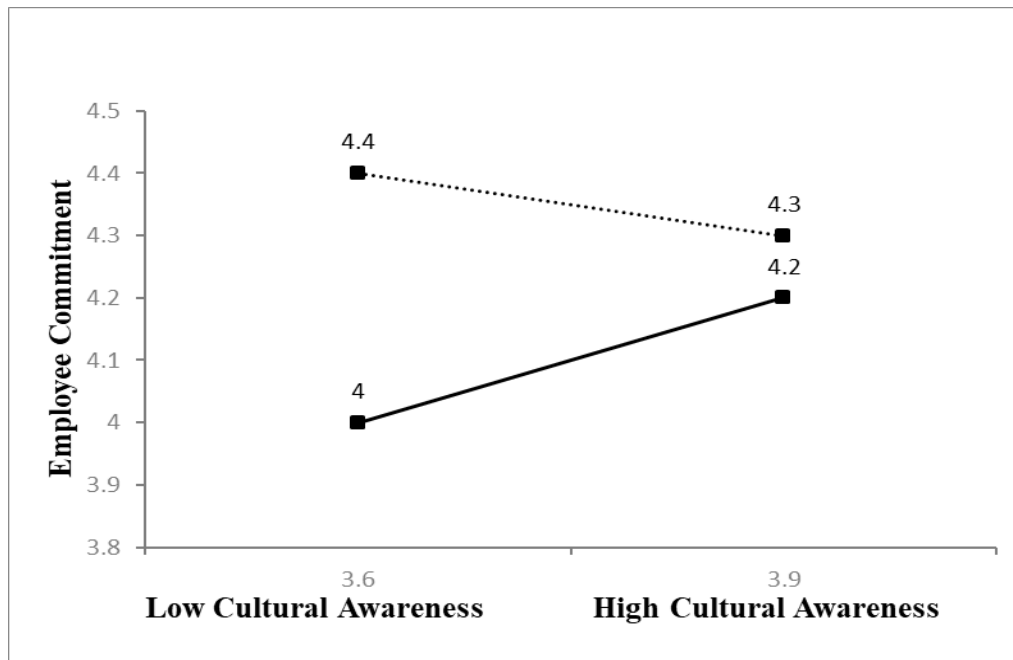

Figure 4.11: Diversity Training and Organization Support Interaction

The results presented in figure 4.11 showed that when organizational support was high, then the relationship between diversity training and employee commitment was relatively high. In contrast, when organization support was low, diversity training was found to have a positive influence on employee commitment. Therefore, organization support was found to have a moderating influence on the relationship between diversity training and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

Similarly, table 4.42 showed the interaction effect of organization support between diversity reward and employee commitment (β = -0209, p< 0.01). This also indicated that the association between diversity reward and employee commitment was contingent on the level of organization support given. The nature of the moderation influence was presented in figure 4.8:
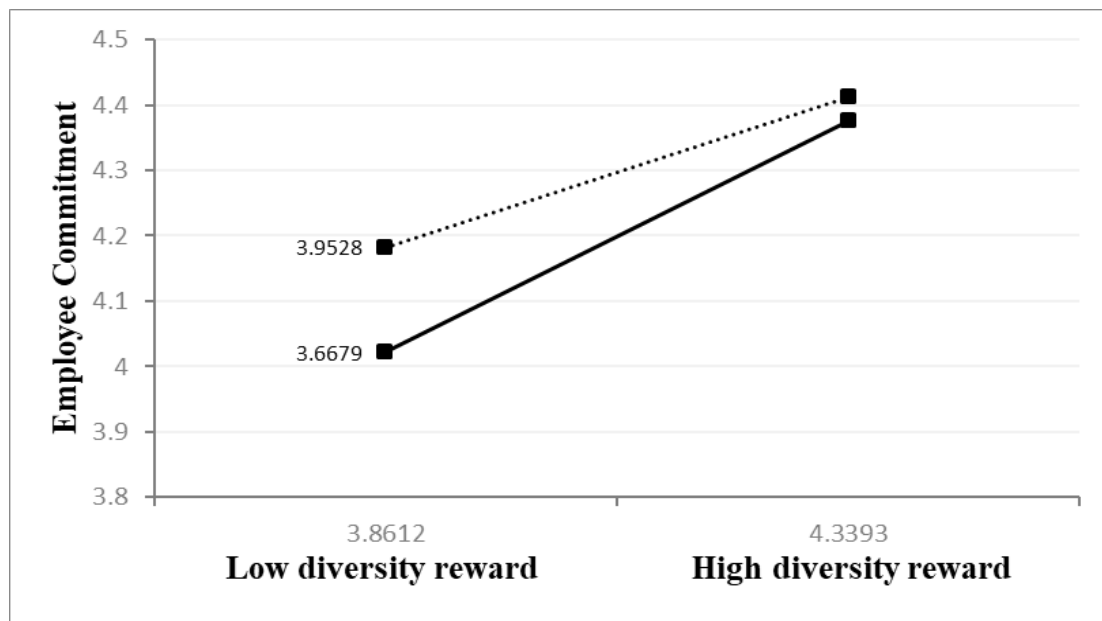
Figure 4.12: Diversity Reward and Organization Support Interaction

The results as presented in figure 4.12 disclosed that when organizational support is high, the relationship between diversity reward and employee commitment was also high. However, when organizational support was low, then diversity reward was found to have a positive influence on employee commitment. Therefore, organizational support

has a moderating influence on the relationship between diversity reward and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Consistently, perceived organization support tends to increase employees' effort outcome expectancy, making them to believe that their efforts can be rewarded (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2013; Marique *et al.*, 2012). The findings are also consistent with Tuzun and Kalemci's (2012) findings, which suggested that employees can maintain their membership with the organization because of enhanced perceived organizational support.

Furthermore, table 4.42 showed the interaction effect of organization support between building cultural awareness and employee commitment (β = 0.085, p< 0.01). In addition, it indicated that the association between building cultural awareness and employee commitment is contingent on the level of organization support. The nature of the moderation influence was presented in figure 4.13:

Figure 4.13: Building Cultural Awareness and OS Interaction

The results presented in figure 4.13 revealed that when organization support is high, then the relationship between building cultural awareness and employee commitment is relatively high. However, when organization support is low, then building cultural awareness was also found to have a positive influence on employee commitment. Therefore, organization support has a moderating influence on the relationship between building cultural awareness and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. The findings are consistent with Leveson *et al.* (2009) who also found out that the relationship between building cultural diversity perceptions and affective commitment is indirect and therefore, could be moderated by organizational support.

In addition, table 4.42 showed the interaction influence of organizational support between diversity networking and employee commitment ($\beta = -0.054$, $p < 0.001$). This also indicated that the association between diversity networking and employee commitment was contingent on the level of organizational support. In effect, the nature of this moderation influence was further presented in figure 4.14.
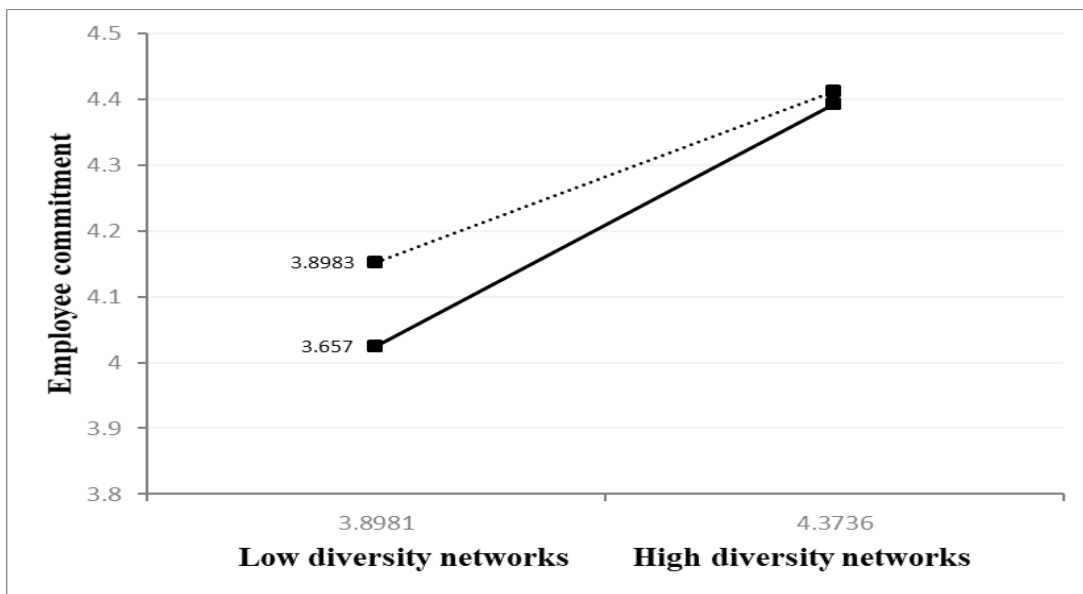
Figure 4.14: Diversity Networking and Organization Support Interaction

The results presented in figure 4.14 indicated that when organizational support is high, then the relationship between diversity networking and employee commitment is relatively high. However, when organizational support is low, then diversity networking was found to have a slight influence on employee commitment. Therefore, organizational support was found to have a moderating influence on the relationship between diversity networking and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Hence, the hypothesis that organizational support has a moderating influence on the relationship between diversity networking and employee commitment, was supported.

4.8.2 Step-wise Regression Analysis

In the second multiple regression model, organizational support was further treated as a moderator and step-wise regression performed to find out its incremental contribution on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. Further, the analysis was done to establish which of the predictor variables (between diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) may have had the weakest contribution on variance in employee commitment. The results were presented in table 4.43:

Table 4.43: Step-Wise Regression Model

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.715[a]	.511	.509	.52281	.511	263.390	1	252	.000
2	.765[b]	.585	.582	.48249	.074	44.875	1	251	.000
3	.774[c]	.599	.595	.47509	.014	8.874	1	250	.003
4	.792[d]	.628	.622	.45891	.028	18.938	1	249	.000
5	.803[e]	.645	.638	.44880	.018	12.352	1	248	.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness

b. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness, organizational support

c. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness, organizational support, diversity reward

d. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness, organizational support, diversity reward, diversity reward × organizational support

e. Predictors: (Constant), Building cultural awareness, organizational support, diversity reward, diversity reward × organizational support, diversity training

The standard elements of a step-wise regression output are shown in table 4.43 with five models. In model 1, building cultural awareness was entered first after the control variables, since it was found to have had the highest contribution to the variance in employee commitment (see table 4.15). The control variables were removed from the model at this stage because of the insignificant contribution to the predicted variable. Therefore, the first model consists of the constant and the variable, building cultural awareness. Statistics in table 4.43 indicated that the R^2 for model 1 was 0.511, suggesting that at this point, building cultural awareness could explain 51.1 per cent of variance in employee commitment. With a p-value < 0.01, this model was found to be significant at 99 per cent confidence level. In addition, the F change statistic of 263.390 also indicated that the model was significant at 0.01. Therefore, this model was found to be fit and applicable.

Further, model 2 added organizational support variable to model 1. This increased the influence on employee commitment to 58.5 per cent, an increase of 7.4 per cent in variance to the predicted variable. The p value was also established at 0.000 which was less than 0.01. Thus, model 2 was found to be significant and applicable since the F change statistic obtained was also significant ($\Delta F=44.875$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, model 3 was obtained by adding diversity reward (DR) on model 2 variables. This addition increased the R^2 value from 0.585 to 0.599. Accordingly, this suggested that putting together building cultural awareness, organizational support, and diversity reward could explain 59.9 per cent of variance in employee commitment. The model obtained was also significant with a p value = 0.003 still at 99 per cent confidence level. Based on the F change ($\Delta F=8.874$, $p < 0.01$) statistic obtained in table 4.43, the third model was found to be fit and applicable.

Similarly, model 4 was generated by adding the product between the predictor variable diversity reward and moderator organizational support (interaction term diversity reward × organization support) on to model 3 variables (with the rest of the interaction terms removed from the model). This operation increased the R^2 value with 0.029 units (2.9 per cent) to 0.628. This implied that jointly, the four variables could predict 62.8 per cent of variance in the dependent variable (employee commitment). Likewise, this model was significant at p value= 0.000 < 0.01 while the F change statistic indicated that the model was fit and applicable. Finally, diversity training variable was added on to model 4 to obtain model 5. This also increased the explanation of variance in employee commitment by model 5 to 64.5 per cent at p value of 0.001 which is less than 0.01. Based on the F change values obtained ($\Delta F=12.352$, $p < 0.01$), the model was found to be significant and hence applicable.

Nevertheless, step-wise regression does multiple regressions severally and at each time removing the weakest correlated variable (Saunders *et al.,* 2014). Therefore, from the output in table 4.43, one predictor variable (diversity networking) was removed together with three interaction terms of diversity training × organization support, building

cultural awareness × organization support and diversity networking × organization support. Consequently, the four variables were dropped and the step-wise analysis repeated. Consistently, the results achieved were similar to those that were obtained earlier in table 4.43. This implied that among the predictor variables, diversity networking gave the least influence on the variance in employee commitment and that diversity reward × organization support gave the most significant interaction. All the same, on the overall, organizational support was found to have a significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment in banks in Kenya.

According to the social exchange and organizational support theories there is a believe that organizational support can be catalyst for any positive HR outcomes such as commitment or performance (Ahmed *et al.,* 2015; Neves & Eisenberger, 2014). In an examination of the implications of Perceived Organization Support, social exchange theory and the reciprocity norms, it was established that a supportive environment helps employees to develop feelings of obligation that would enable them to repay the organization by giving attention to their socio-emotional needs (McBey, Karakowsky, Ng, 2017; Eisenberger *et al.,* 2013; Shoss *et al.,* 2013; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). However, the results obtained further produced the unstandardized coefficients which can be summarized as shown in the table 4.44:

Table 4.44: Unstandardized Coefficients of Step-Wise Regression

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Coefficients[a]				
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.355	.225		1.579	.116
	Building cultural awareness	.911	.056	.715	16.229	.000
2	(Constant)	.119	.210		.566	.572
	Building cultural awareness	.705	.060	.553	11.703	.000
	Organization support	.283	.042	.317	6.699	.000
3	(Constant)	-.016	.212		-.075	.940
	Building cultural awareness	.675	.060	.530	11.213	.000
	Organization support	.236	.044	.264	5.316	.000
	Diversity reward	.126	.042	.137	2.979	.003
4	(Constant)	-1.868	.472		-3.955	.000
	Building cultural awareness	.660	.058	.518	11.342	.000
	Organization support	.769	.130	.860	5.929	.000
	Diversity reward	.714	.141	.777	5.057	.000
	Diversity reward × organization support	-.160	.037	-1.067	-4.352	.000
5	(Constant)	-2.367	.483		-4.899	.000
	Building cultural awareness	.538	.067	.422	8.065	.000
	Organization support	.815	.127	.911	6.390	.000
	Diversity reward	.763	.139	.831	5.498	.000
	Diversity reward × organization support	-.174	.036	-1.161	-4.811	.000
	Diversity training	.195	.056	.165	3.515	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

The Unstandardized regression coefficients β values of the computed (composite index) scores of HR diversity management practices and employee commitment, when moderated with organizational support as presented in model 5 were 0.538 (building cultural awareness), 0.815 (organizational support), 0.763(diversity reward), -0.174 (diversity reward × organizational support), and 0.195(diversity training), with a t-test values of 8.065 (building cultural awareness), 6.390 (organizational support), 5.498 (diversity reward), -4.811(diversity reward × organizational support), and 3.515

(diversity training). All the t-values were above +1.96 and below -1.96. The p values for all the variables in table 4.44 were less than 0.01. Nonetheless, all variables in model 5 indicated a significant relationship at 99 per cent confidence level. Therefore, all the HR diversity management practices in this study had a statistically significant influence on employee commitment except for diversity networking. However, table 4.44 showed that organizational support had a significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. Having achieved the objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that: H_0: *Organizational support has no moderating significant positive influence on the relationship between Human Resource Diversity Management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

From the same results in table 4.43, the revised model based on the step-wise regression analysis when organizational support was used as a moderator between HR diversity management practices (predictor variables of diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness) and employee commitment (predicted variable) was obtained. The regression model obtained from the step-wise regression coefficients in table 4.44 can be stated as shown:

$$Y = -2.367 + 0.195X_1 + 0.763X_2 + 0.538X_3 + 0.815X_5 - 0.174X_2*X_5 \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots IIb$$

or

Employee Commitment (predicted) = -2.367 + 0.538Building cultural awareness+ 0.763Diversity reward + 0.195 Diversity training+ 0.815 Organizational support - 0.174Diversity reward × Organizational support…………………………… (II) b

4.9 Hypotheses Testing Results

This study sought to investigate the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. To achieve this, five specific objectives and subsequently, five corresponding null hypotheses were formulated and tested. From the correlation and regression analysis conducted in the testing, the following results were obtained:

H_{01}: *Diversity training has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

The results obtained in table 4.15(correlation matrix), and the subsequent tables 4.19, and 4.20 revealed that diversity training has a positive and significant influence on employee commitment (β = 0.515, p-value = 0.000) which is less than α = 0.0. The multiple regression's unstandardized coefficient table 4.40 also indicate the p-value of 0.008 for diversity training, which shows a significant influence on employee commitment at 99 per cent confidence level. Therefore, the study rejects the null hypothesis and accepts the fact that for each increase in diversity training, there is a 0.515 units increase in employee commitment. This influence was also stated by a t-value of 9.549 which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less than the influence of the parameter. Prior studies have also indicated that diversity training is significantly associated with employee commitment (Nguyen, 2014; Madera, 2013; McGuire & Bagher, 2010; D'Netto & Sohal, 1999).

H_{02}: *Diversity reward has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

From the findings obtained in table 4.15 (correlation matrix) and the linear regression tables 4.24 and 4.25, it was revealed that diversity reward has a positive and significant influence on employee commitment (β = 0.528, p-value = 0.000). The multiple regression's unstandardized coefficient table 4.40 also indicate the p-value of 0.000 for

diversity reward and a t value of 4.213, which shows a significant influence on employee commitment at 99 per cent confidence level. Similarly, this study rejects the null hypothesis and accepts that for each increase in diversity reward, there is a 0.528 units increase in employee commitment. This influence was also stated by a t- value of 9.131 from the linear regression output, implying that the standard error associated with the parameter is less than the influence of the parameter. Furthermore, past research studies have also established that there is a significant association between diversity reward and employee commitment (Jalal, *et al.,* 2017; Ghosh *et al*., 2016; Nazir *et al*., 2016; Danso, 2015; Miao *et al*., 2013; Meena & Vanka, 2013; Nujjo & Meyer, 2012; D'Netto & Sohal, 1999).

H_{03}: *Building cultural awareness has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

Further, from the findings in table 4.15 (correlation matrix) and that in the linear regression tables 4.29 and 4.30, it was noted that building cultural diversity awareness has a positive, strong and significant influence on employee commitment (β = 0.715, p-value = 0.000). The multiple regression's unstandardized coefficient table 4.40 also indicated a p-value of 0.000 for building cultural diversity awareness and a t value of 9.084, which indicates a significant influence on employee commitment at 99 per cent confidence level. Hence, this study rejects the null hypothesis stated and accepts that for each increase in building cultural diversity awareness, there is a 0.715 units increase in employee commitment. This influence was also stated by a t- value of 16.229 from the linear regression output, implying that the standard error associated with the parameter is much less than the influence of the parameter itself. Equally, several research studies have also established a significantly influence of cultural diversity awareness on employee commitment (Kim *et al*., 2015; Ashikali & Groeneveld 2015; De Figueiredo, 2015; Nguyen, 2014; Madera, 2013; Fullerton, 2013; Munjuri & Maina, 2013; Leveson *et al*., 2009).

H$_{04}$: *Diversity networking has no significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

Table 4.15 (correlation matrix) and the linear regression tables 4.34 and 4.35 respectively revealed that there exist a positive and significant influence between diversity networking and employee commitment ($\beta = 0.476$, p-value = 0.000). The multiple regression's unstandardized coefficient table 4.40 also indicated the p-value of 0.003 for diversity networking variable with a t value of 2.997, which shows a significant influence on employee commitment at 0.01 significance level. Therefore, this study rejects the null hypothesis and also accepts that for each increase in diversity networking, there is a 0.476 units increase in employee commitment. This influence was also stated by a t- value of 8.594 from the linear regression output, which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less than the influence of the parameter. Furthermore, previous study findings on the relationship between employee networking and employee commitment (Stewart, 2016; Palacios-Marques *et al.*, 2016; Madera, 2013; Lee & Kim, 2011; Claro & De Oliveira Claro, 2011; Mossholder *et al.*, 2005; O'Toole & Meier, 2004) have also shown a positive and significant association between the two variables.

H$_{05}$: *Organizational support has no significant moderating influence on the relationship between Human Resource diversity management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.*

The findings obtained in table 4.41 (hierarchical regression model) and table 4.42 (unstandardized coefficients) respectively, revealed that organizational support has a positive and significant moderating relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. This was indicated by an increase in R^2 value with a subsequent addition of the independent variables, followed by the moderating variable and finally the interaction terms. The hierarchical regression's table 4.41 also indicated p-values of 0.000 which is less than 0.01 significance level. Therefore, this study rejected the null hypothesis and also accepts that the relationship between HR diversity

management practices and employee commitment can be moderated by organization support. The findings were corroborated with various research studies. For instance, Patrick and Kumar (2012) established that the relationship between diversity management practices and employee commitment can be seen through moderation. Furthermore, Levenson *et al.* (2009) suggested that, the relationship between cultural diversity and affective commitment can only be significant if and when it is moderated by organizational support.

Table 4.45: A Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis		Beta (β)value	P value	Decision
H_{01}: Diversity training has no significant influence on employee commitment.	$H_{0\,1} = \mu$	.515	.000	Rejected
H_{02}: Diversity Reward has no significant influence on employee commitment.	$H_{0\,2} = \mu$	.528	.000	Rejected
H_{03}: Building cultural awareness has no significant influence on employee commitment.	$H_{0\,3} = \mu$	.715	.000	Rejected
H_{04}: Diversity networking has no significant influence on employee commitment.	$H_{0\,4} = \mu$	.476	.000	Rejected
H_{05}: Organizational support has no significant moderating influence on the relationship between Human Resource diversity management practices and employee commitment.	$H_{0\,5} = \mu$	.798	.000	Rejected

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarized the findings of both descriptive and inferential statistics based on the study objectives as outlined in chapter one. The chapter makes conclusions on key findings in view of the observations and decisions outlined in previous studies. Furthermore, recommendations were made in relation to the objectives, tested hypotheses and outcomes of this study. The contributions of the study to theory, methodology, policy and practice of HR diversity management for the improvement of employee commitment, coupled with the enhancement of the predictor- predicted variables relationship was also highlighted in this chapter. In addition, this study linked the important theories on how HR Diversity Management Practices contributes to employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Finally, this chapter ended with suggestions for further areas of study to help expand or make a review of the current research study.

5.2 Summary of the Study Findings

This study highlighted some of the important findings concerning HR Diversity Management Practices and employee commitment. Such findings have a lot of implications to organizations since these organizations are the prime consumers of diverse ideas and performance from diverse work forces. The study used five theories which included the social identity, equity, institutional, open system and social exchange, all of which have attempted to offer plausible explanations about the findings obtained. For instance, institutionalization of HR Diversity Management Practices tends to enhance employee commitment to the organization. Similarly, the social identity, social exchange, open systems and equity theories try to link diversity training, building

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cultural diversity awareness and diversity rewards to the individual effort to achieve organizational goals.

To achieve the set objectives, five hypotheses were formulated and correlation bivariate and multiple, hierarchical and step-wise regression analyses carried out to test for the degree of association between the pairs of variables (the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment). Most of the results obtained supported the alternative hypotheses. However, during a step-wise regression, diversity networking was found to have the least influence on employee commitment and therefore, it was removed from the final model. A summary of results obtained is discussed as shown in the various sections.

5.2.1 Diversity Training on Employee Commitment

The findings of the study predicted that diversity training had a positive and significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Accordingly, employees who are provided with diversity training programs tend to have their own commitment to the organization highly increased. Further, it was also found that many commercial banks expose their employees to diversity training programs and that before they participate, diversity training needs assessment is carried out. Diversity training may also be used as an inclusive tool which may prompt a reciprocal positive act from the entire workforce. Therefore, with the establishment that diversity training has a positive and significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya, the null hypothesis set was rejected.

5.2.2 Diversity Reward and Employee Commitment

The second objective sought to determine whether diversity rewards influence employee commitment in banking in Kenya. Diversity reward was measured by a total of 10 questionnaire items on which the respondents had been asked to give the extent to which they agreed with the declarative statements asked. Of all the predictor variables in this

study, diversity rewards had the highest positive influence on the individual constructs of employee commitment of affective ($R^2 = 0.581$), continuance ($R^2 = 0.688$), and normative ($R^2 = 0.752$). Furthermore, the variation in normative commitment as explained by diversity rewards was found to be the highest at 75.2 per cent. Nonetheless, the correlation and linear regression coefficients obtained indicated that diversity reward had a positive and significant influence on employee commitment. Further, the study findings also showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic diversity rewards were strongly provided for by commercial banks and that generally, diversity reward's influence on employee commitment was positive and significant. Therefore, the corresponding null hypothesis was also rejected.

5.2.3 Building Cultural Awareness on Employee Commitment

In line with the third objective which sought to determine whether building cultural diversity awareness influences employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya, the predictor variable was assessed by nine questionnaire items. The findings from both the correlation and linear regression analysis indicated that at 99 per cent confidence level, the influence of building cultural diversity awareness on employee commitment was positive and significant. The predictive power as calculated by R-squared indicated that building cultural awareness could explain 51.1 per cent of variance in employee commitment. From the descriptive analysis, the results indicated that building cultural awareness was found to have had the highest positive and significant influence on employee commitment. Hence, the null hypothesis in line with this view was also rejected.

5.2.4 Diversity Networking on Employee Commitment

The fourth objective aimed at finding out the influence of diversity networking on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. Diversity networking was measured by 8 questionnaire items on a 5-point likert scale. The descriptive results showed that commercial banks encourage employees to form employee network groups

in which they engage into formal and informal activities. Further, the correlation and linear regression analysis revealed that diversity networking had a positive and significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector. However, from the hierarchical and step-wise regression analysis conducted, diversity networking was found to have had the least contribution or significant influence on employee commitment. Therefore, the null hypothesis stating that diversity networking has no significant positive influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya was partially rejected.

5.2.5 Human Resource Diversity Practices on Employee Commitment

The main objective sought to investigate whether HR Diversity Management Practices influence employee commitment. To achieve this objective, four variables hypothesized that the joint influence of HR Diversity Management Practices was greater than the individual influence of the variables. To test the hypothesis, a multiple regression analysis was applied. From its analysis, it was found that jointly, diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking had a positive and significant influence on employee commitment. The R^2 obtained was higher than for any individual variable's influence on the predicted variable. This implied that jointly, the study variables had a higher prediction of variance in employee commitment. Therefore, HR diversity management practices should always be considered as a key component and outcome of strategic human resource management for enhanced employee commitment and performance. These results have been supported by other findings on the relationship between HR Diversity Management Practices and employee commitment.

5.2.6 Moderating Influence of Organizational Support

On the other hand, the fifth objective sought to investigate whether organizational support has a moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. To test for the moderating influence

of organizational support, both hierarchical and step-wise regression analyses were conducted. Further, from the hierarchical regression analysis and the interaction graphs plotted, it was observed that organizational support had a positive and significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. However, with the application of the step-wise regression analysis, diversity networking and the interaction terms of diversity training × organizational support, building cultural awareness × organizational support, diversity networking × organizational support and employee commitment (dependent variable) were all found to be insignificant and hence, removed from the model. Similarly, the step-wise regression showed that on the overall, organizational support had a moderating influence on the relationship between HR Diversity Management Practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya.

5.3 Conclusions

The general objective for the study was to investigate the influence of HR Diversity Management Practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. To achieve this purpose, five specific objectives were derived from the main one. Similarly, from the five specific objectives, five hypotheses were formulated. These hypotheses were then subjected to correlation and regression analysis to establish the degree of influence. From the findings, various conclusions were logically drawn as indicated in the sections 5.3.1 to 5.3.6.

5.3.1 Diversity Training on Employee Commitment

Objective one sought to establish whether diversity training influences employee commitment. From the findings of the study, it was concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between diversity training and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. This implies that when diversity training is low or not offered to a diverse set of employees within commercial banks, then their commitment to the

organization will decrease. Failure to implement diversity training programs could then cost the company a lot in terms of decreased commitment and hence performance.

5.3.2 Diversity Reward on Employee Commitment

The study also sought to determine whether diversity reward influences employee commitment. From the findings, it was a conclusion was drawn indicating that the influence of diversity reward on employee commitment was positive and statistically significant. This implies that an increase in diversity reward programs would cause a corresponding increase in employee commitment among employees working in commercial banks in Kenya. Therefore, this means that, availability of extrinsic rewards and the creation of an environment that allows for intrinsic rewards to be felt by employees would enhance their own commitment to the organization. Similarly, diversity reward is ensured through such things as the provision of work autonomy to all, recognition of diversity champions, and exemplary performance, besides offering fair salaries, adequate bonuses and opportunites for advancement and promotion to all employees.

5.3.3 Building Cultural Awareness on Employee Commitment

Objective three sought to determine whether building cultural diversity awareness influences employee commitment. The results obtained arrived at the conclusion that building cultural diversity awareness (predictor variable) has a positive and statistically significant influence on the predicted variable (employee commitment) used. Building cultural awareness was ensured through such practices as, accepting and respecting other peoples' cultural practices and beliefs, treating others equally, and creating awareness on individual employees' attitudes and opinions.

5.3.4 Diversity Networking on Employee Commitment

Similarly, in the fourth objective, the study sought to find out whether diversity networking influences employee commitment. From the primary data analysed in both correlation and regression analyses, the objective was achieved and the study concluded that diversity networking had a positive and significant influence on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. By sharing information among individual employees, cultivating a sense of trust and good relations, besides establishing and joining support groups, all help in building employee networks from within and without.

5.3.5 HR Diversity Management Practices on Employee Commitment

On the overal, the main objective of this study sought to investigate whether HR diversity Management Practices (diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking) influences employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. From the correlation and regression analysis of the data collected, it was concluded that jointly, diversity management practices have a positive and significant influence on employee commitment, and that the influence was higher than for each individual predictor variable.

5.3.6 Moderating Influence of Orgainzational Support

On the other hand, in its fifth objective, this study sought to investigate whether organizational support had a significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity Management Practices and Employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. From the hierarchical regression analysis, this study established that organizational support had a positive and significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR Diversity Management Practices and employee commitment. However, when the step-wise regression was performed, diversity networking (predictor variable) was found to contribute least in the variance of employee commitment. This variable was removed from the final model that indicated organizational support as

having a significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment. The model found was also significant and applicable. On the overall, the study also concluded that organizational support had a significant moderating influence on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment.

5.4 Recommendations

It is vital that any organisation that exercises HR diversity management practices does it in a proper manner in order to get the desired outcomes. So, this research intended to provide meaningful insights into how HR diversity management practices can successfully influence employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya. This study makes the following recommendations based on the findings.

5.4.1 Diversity Training and Employee Commitment

The findings of this research study show that diversity training was positively and significantly related to all the constructs of employee commitment, except normative commitment whose influence was insignificant. Further, the influence of diversity training on employee commitment was found to be positive and significant. Therefore, it is the recommendations of this study that bank managers should adopt training policies that enhance diversity training programs that would take into account all employees irrespective of their background. Through the provision of proper training programs and evaluation, the required competencies could increase both the individual performance and commitment. Such competencies can act as a means to achieve employee's commitment through the constructs of continuance and normative, which could also be enhanced

5.4.2 Diversity Reward and Employee Commitment

To boost employee commitment in the banking sector, it is recommended that organizations should provide their employees with appropriate compensation and emphasise on a reward system that articulates the principle of fairness and equity. Rewards given on the basis of individual performance, team performance, branch performance and the position held within the organization, can help create the perception that people are being rewarded fairly and in an equitable manner.

5.4.3 Building Cultural Awareness and Employee Commitment

According to the findings in this study, building cultural awareness has the greatest influence employee commitment when compared to the other predictor variables. It is therefore recommended that organizational management should strive to ensure employees are made aware of and appreciate the HR diversity within in order to help reduce on prejudices and stereotypic thinking, as they mimize mis communications as well as build positive relationship among collegues. Appropriate diversity training practices which are relevant to the different groups in the organization may go a long way in building cultural diversity awareness within the organization.

5.4.4 Diversity Networking and Employee Commitment

Similarly, based on this study's findings, it the recommendation of this study that orgnaizational managers should promote superior working relationships and performance by encouraging such activities as those related to employee networking. Employee networking would help promote team work, employee participation and offering of reasonable ideas and input by subordinates in order to enhance own commitment to the organization.

5.4.5 Moderating Influence of Organizational Support

Based on the hierarchical and step wise regression analyses about the modearating influence of organizational support on the relationship between HR diversity practices and employee commitment, it is the recommendation of this study that the managers within commercial banks should strive to offer task as well as personal support to the employees. A trusting corporate culture; openness and quality of communication as well as offering of organizational support to members of staff can go a long away in increasing their commitment. Therefore, it is also recommended that all employees be allowed to participate in organizational activities without discrimination, and that they should be given greater autonomy in the performance of their work.

5.5 Contribution of Research

This study contributes to the literature in many ways which can be grouped according to the methodological and theoretical contributions. This study is unique in the methodology adopted in terms of the assessment of the interaction of various HR diversity management practices and how they have been linked to the commitment of employees through the moderation of organization support in commercial banks in Kenya. Similarly, the study encompassed a combinations of data collection, analysis and procedures which provides a methodological contribution in the field of contemporary management of Human Resource through an investigation of the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment. Furthermore, the inclusion of both hierarchical and step wise regression analyses to investigate the moderating influence of organizational support on the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment, and use of the process model by Andrew Hayes to generate the interaction plots, especially in commercial banks in Kenya, provided a key contribution and generation of new knowledge for effective management of the diverse workforce in organizations.

Theoretically, the study broadly creates a new insight about the influence of HR diversity management practices on employee commitment in commercial banks in Kenya by analysing the primary data obtained from various commercial banks in Kenya. It provides a simple model and illustration on the interaction between the various HR diversity management practices, and presupposes that building cultural diversity is the single most influencer of employee commitment, while diversity reward has a greater influence on the individual constructs of the dependent variable (employee commitment) than on the composite variable itself. Therefore, the bank management may find such findings very useful since reward is one of the key components used by management to enhance performance as well as sustain employee commitment, loyalty and retention.

Regarding the theory, this study advanced a theoretical argument for the use of open systems (OST), social identity, equity, social exchange and institutional theories in HR diversity management. It advances the use of social identity theory in HR diversity management research by investigating the role of diversity training and building cultural diversity awareness in enhancing employee commitment. Similarly, the study contributes to the social exchange theory with respect to HR diversity management practices (diversity reward, diversity training and building cultural awareness) by linking them to the individual constructs of employee commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitments). Furthermore, diversity skills, awareness and perspective should be improved through diversity training and building cultural diversity awareness as it enhances commitment, social interactions between employees and their own sense of identity. The established diversity management practices should be reinforced through the process of institutionalization and in an open system. Based on the study's findings managers in commercial banks may have to focus more on the perceptions of employees about on how they are treated in comparison to others. Hence, this study provides a better understanding and reference point for managers on how to link HR diversity practices to employee commitment. Therefore, the management of commercial banks may need to invest in HR diversity by developing the necessary means by which employee commitment could be enhanced.

In terms of knowledge, this study contributes to the knowledge in several grounds. First, it validates the structure of HR diversity in the Kenyan context. Secondly, it focuses on HR diversity management practices and employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya, as opposed to the dimensions of HR diversity as mentioned in many other studies. Thirdly, it fills the knowledge gap by using organizational support as a moderator on the relationship between the predictor and the predicted variables used. A key element of successful HR diversity management intervention is through organizational support practice.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

This study may not have exhaustively included all the constructs of HR diversity practices. It only focused on four among the many constructs; diversity training, diversity reward, building cultural awareness and diversity networking. A further review of HR diversity practices may identify additional variables and other possible moderators or intervening variables which may broaden the range of influence between these practices and employee commitment. The study indicates strong relationships between the selected HR diversity practices and the individual constructs of employee commitment. However, these relationships have been tested exhaustively only, in the context of commercial banks in Kenya. Therefore, the replication of this study in other sectors could demonstrate the universality and significance of these constructs and how they relate to commitment in general.

Similarly, future research in this area should adopt different research designs such as a longitudinal one, to provide a better assessment of the variables and how they improve over time. A longitudinal testing of HR diversity management practices is also critical in terms of establishing a causal linkage between the variables instead of a relationship testing as shown in the descriptive survey. Furthermore, to further understand the relationship between HR diversity management practices and employee commitment, the study recommends that future researches should consider using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. This may add greater depth and make findings even more

detailed. However, Qualitative research methods can be very essential in the absence of quantitative instruments or when instruments have to be adapted to specific situations. These research approaches also solicit for rich meanings and provide the context and prospects for expanded dialogue. The combination of qualitative and quantitative research tends to facilitate the elaboration on the meaning of findings. For instance, the inclusion of a short-answer, critical incident, or interview component, along with quantitative methods, would allow researchers to explore issues in greater detail and augment the quantitative findings.

Also, future researches should consider combining multiple internal informants with the views of others such as customers, together with other stakeholders in the banking industry, in order to generate dependable conclusions of the study variables. This research work relied on self-report surveys for data collection. Future studies should also collect data but using multiple methods to avoid the common-method bias. Finally, the sample was drawn from commercial banks in Kenya and thus, the conclusions may not be generalized to other industries. In light of this, future studies may be conducted across industries so as to cover the different cultural settings.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction

NYIKULI STEPHEN ESHITETI,

JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY,

P. O. BOX 1014-50100,

KAKAMEGA.

Dear Respondent,

RE: A REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

I am a PhD student from Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT), specializing in Human Resource Management (HRM). Currently, I am conducting a study on the Influence of HR diversity management practices on Employee Commitment in the Banking Sector in Kenya. Kindly assist me by filling the questionnaire.

Your participation will be a very important part of my research. Hence, to help in this research, you could honestly complete the questionnaire attached. Any information obtained that shall be identified with you will remain confidential. If requested, a summary of the findings will be provided to your organization.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Eshiteti Stephen Nyikuli

Tel: 0722-292-409

Email; seshiteti2011@gmail.com

Appendix II: Questionnaire

GENERAL INFORMATION

PART I

Direction: Please put a tick (√) in the box next to the right response.

1. Your Gender

Male   [ ]

Female   [ ]

2. Job category

Top Managerial level   [ ]

Supervisory level   [ ]

General staff   [ ]

3. Age in years

25 – 34   [ ]

35 – 44   [ ]

45 – 54   [ ]

55 and above   [ ]

4. Highest education level

Certificate   level   [ ]

Diploma   level   [ ]

University degree   level   [ ]

Masters   level   [ ]

Others, (specify)………………………………

5. Length of service in the current bank (organizational tenure)

Less than 1 year   [ ]

1-3 years   [ ]

4-6 years   [ ]

7-9 years   [ ]

10 years and above   [ ]

6. How often do you carry out diversity training?

Monthly   [ ]

Quarterly   [ ]

Semi Annually   [ ]

Annually   [ ]

Never   [ ]

PART II

The statements listed represent possible opinions that you may have about HR diversity management practices and employee commitment at your workplace. Please indicate the degree of your response by filling in a *tick* (√) on your answer sheet that best represents your point of view. Kindly choose from the answers provided:

The scale is as indicated:

1= Strongly Disagree (SD), 2= Disagree (D),

3= Neither Agree nor disagree (N)

4= Agree (A),   5=Strongly Agree(SA)

SECTION A; Diversity Training

How accurately do the statements below describe your bank's Diversity Training?

		SD	D	N	A	SA
1	My Organization has diversity training programs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	My organization provides induction programs that include diversity related issues	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	My organization allows for greater participation of diverse groups in trainings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	My organization facilitates diversity workshops frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	My organization provides training opportunities to both young and most experienced at the workplace	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	My organization's training programs help reduce stereotyping at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	My organization frequently carries out diversity training needs assessment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	My organization assesses employees' needs irrespective of their origin to enable their full participation in the program	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	My organization does not exercise discrimination in the selection of those to be assessed for training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	My organization assesses for the managerial skill that can enable managers to work in a multicultural environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION B: Diversity Rewards

How accurately do the following statements describe your bank's diversity reward?

		SD	D	N	A	SA
11	My organization pays a fair salary to all employees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	My organization provides bonuses that are adequate with the individual's performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	My organization provides assurance for job security to employees of all backgrounds	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	My organization has a compensation structure that considers individual differences (eg ability, knowledge and skills)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	My organization provides better working conditions to all members	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	My organization recognizes champions of diversity issues	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	My organization fairly provides opportunities for promotion to all employees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	My organization allows employees to work autonomously irrespective of the backgrounds (gender, seniority)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	My organization provides opportunities for advancement (eg through training and development) to all employees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	My organization recognizes individuals for exemplary performance irrespective of one's background	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION C: Building of Cultural Awareness

How accurately do the following statements describe your perceptions on how your bank builds Cultural Awareness?

		SD	D	N	A	SD
21	My organization provides training on cultural awareness to its workforce	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	My organization educates employees about individual differences as it broadens their experience base about diverse others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	My organization encourages employees to avoid terms that spotlight certain groups and imply the individual is an exception	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	My organization encourages all people to be aware of their own personal attitudes and opinions on diversity issues	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	My organization encourages employees to avoid valuing messages based on dress, mannerism, accent or eye contact	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	My organization encourages employees to form positive relationships with diverse others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	My organization encourages employees to treat others equally	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28	My organization commemorates diversity celebration days (Mother's Day, women international day, Ramadan)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	My organization encourages us to accept and respect that customs and beliefs about daily life are applied differently from culture to culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

30. Please rate your current level of awareness about cultural diversity issues in your organization

0% - 25%   [ ]

26% - 50%   [ ]

51% -75%   [ ]

76% - 100%   [ ]

SECTION D: Diversity Networking

How accurately do the following statements describe how your bank encourages Diversity Networking?

		SD	D	N	A	SA
31	My organization promotes the establishment of support groups among employees (support networks)					
32	My organization encourages employees to join support groups (networks)					
33	My organization facilitates an atmosphere of sharing information among diverse workforce					
34	My organization encourages mutual support between colleagues					
35	My support group keeps minutes for the meetings held					
36	My support group holds its meetings regularly to confront stereotypes, and personal biases					
37	My support group organizes for social events for all employees					
38	My support group facilitates the cultivation of trust and good relations amongst employees					

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SECTION E: Organizational Support

Indicate how your organization supports you in the following; using the scale as is indicated:

1= Never (N), 2= Seldom (S), 3= Occasionally (O), 4= Frequently (F)

5= Always (A)

		N	S	O	F	A
39	My organization cares about my well-being and supports me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	My organization strongly considers my goals and values	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41	My organization helps me when I have a personal problem	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	My organization cares about my opinion on personal matters	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43	My organization is willing to extend itself to help me perform my job to the best of my ability	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44	My organization appreciates any extra effort from me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45	My organization shows concern about my work success	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46	My organization fairly compensates me in exchange for effort put	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47	My organization strongly considers my goals and values in work related matters	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48	My organization provides practical assistance when I have a problem in doing my work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION F: Employee Commitment

How accurately do the following statements describe your own Commitment to your Bank?

		SD	D	N	A	SA
49	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
50	I do feel emotionally attached to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
51	My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
52	My organization makes me feel like part of the family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
53	My organization makes me feel a strong sense of belonging	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
54	My organization makes me feel as if its problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
55	It would be very hard for me to leave my company, even if I wanted to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
56	My organization makes me continue to work for it because of the overall benefits that I have here	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
57	My organization makes feel like much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
58	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
59	I feel like I have few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
60	I feel a sense of moral obligation to remain with my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
61	My organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
62	I would feel guilty if I were to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
63	I would consider working elsewhere had I not put so much into this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
64	My organization is a nice place to work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
65	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it right to leave my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix III: Licenced Commercial Banks in Kenya

1. ABC Bank (Kenya)
2. Bank of AFRICA
3. Bank of BARODA
4. Bank of India
5. Barclays Bank of Kenya
6. CFC Stanbic Holdings
7. Chase Bank of Kenya
8. Citibank
9. Commercial Bank of Africa
10. Consolidated Bank
11. Cooperative Bank of Kenya
12. Credit Bank
13. Development Bank of Kenya
14. Diamond Trust Bank
15. DUBAI Bank of Kenya
16. Ecobank of Kenya
17. Spire Bank
18. Equity Bank
19. Family Bank
20. Fidelity Commercial Bank Limited
21. First Community Bank
22. Giro Commercial Bank
23. Guaranty Trust Bank of Kenya
24. Guardian Bank
25. Gulf African Bank
26. Habib Bank AG Zurich
27. Housing Finance Company of Kenya
28. I&M Bank
29. Imperial Bank of Kenya
30. Jamii Bora Bank
31. Kenya Commercial Bank
32. Sidian Bank
33. Middle East Bank of Kenya
34. National Bank of Kenya
35. NIC Bank
36. Oriental Commercial Bank
37. Paramount Universal bank
38. Prime Bank (Kenya)
39. Standard Chartered Bank of Kenya
40. Transnational Bank of Kenya
41. United Bank of Africa
42. Victoria Commercial Bank
43. Habib Bank

Source: Bank Supervision Reports, CBK, (2015)

Appendix IV: NACOSTI Certificate

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MR. STEPHEN ESHITETI NYIKULI
of **JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY,
10-50102 MUMIAS,** has been permitted to conduct research in *Kakamega County*

on the topic: *INFLUENCE OF HUMAN RESOURCE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT IN THE BANKING SECTOR IN KENYA*

for the period ending:
22nd December, 2017

....
Applicant's Signature

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/16/18818/13589
Date Of Issue : 22nd December, 2016
Fee Recieved : Ksh 2000

....
**Director General
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation**

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officer will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2) hard copies and one (1) soft copy of your final report.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

RESEACH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No.A 12449

CONDITIONS: see back page

Appendix V: Research Authorization by Kakamega County Commissioner

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

THE PRESIDENCY
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR & CO-ORDINATION OF
NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Office Mobile No: 0707 085260
Email-cckakamega12@yahoo.com

When replying please quote

Ref No: ED/12/1/VOL.II/231

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY
P O BOX 43-50100
KAKAMEGA.

Date: 7th February, 2017

STEPHEN ESHITETI NYIKULI
JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE
AND TECHNOLOGY
P.O BOX 62000-00200
NAIROBI

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your authorization vide letter Ref: NACOSTI/P/16/18818/13589 dated 22nd December, 2016 by NACOSTI to undertake research on " *Influence of human resource diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kakamega County, Kenya.*

I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out the research on the same.

E. RIGHA
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

Appendix VI: Research Authorization by Ministry of Education

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

Telephone: 056 - 30411
FAX   : 056 – 31307
E-mail   : wespropde@yahoo.com
When replying please quote.

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KAKAMEGA COUNTY
P. O. BOX 137 - 50100
KAKAMEGA

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

REF:WP/GA/29/17/VOL.III/189

7th February, 2017

Stephen Eshiteti Nyikuli
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture
And Technology
P. O. Box 62000 – 00200
NAIROBI

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

The above has been granted permission by National Council for Science & Technology vide letter Ref. NACOSTI/P/16/188/18/13589 dated 22nd December, 2016 to carry out research on **"Influence of human resource diversity management practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kenya,** Kakamega **County"** for a period ending, 22nd December, 2017.

Please accord him any necessary assistance he may require.

FREDRICK M. KIIRU
CDE/CEB SECRETARY
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

Appendix VII: Permission to collect Data

JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY
KAKAMEGA CBD CAMPUS
P.O BOX 1014, KAKAMEGA TEL: 056-31784
Email: directorkk@jkuat.ac.ke, info-kakamega@jkuat.ac.ke
Office of the Director, KAKAMEGA CBD

REF: HD412-C009-1563/2014   14THJULY, 2016

To Whom It May Concern

RE: PERMISSION FOR ESHITETI STEPHEN NYIKULI TO COLLECT DATA

This is to confirm that the above named is a bonafide student of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Kakamega CBD Campus, pursuing a PhD course in Human Resource Management.

He is required to collect data on his Thesis entitled: *Influence of Diversity Management practices on employee commitment in the Banking sector in Kenya.*

Any assistance accorded to him will be highly appreciated.

Dr.Dennis Juma
Director, Kakamega CBD Campus

THE DIRECTOR
KAKAMEGA CBD CAMPUS
JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF
AGRICULTURE & TECHNOLOGY

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Setting Trends in Higher Education, Research, Innovation and Entrepreneurship