

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF PART-TIME ACADEMIC STAFF IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN NAIROBI AND MOMBASA CITIES IN KENYA

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ABSTRACT

Past studies provide evidence to show that organizational commitment has been a topic of increasing public and professional concern, both inside and outside Human Resource Management domains. The expansion of university education in Kenya coupled with reduced direct government funding for higher education has left the local public universities with little choices but to resort to use of part-time academics. The objective of the study was to find out whether personal characteristics affect organizational commitment of part-time academic staff in HEIs in Kenya. The quantitative study design by use of survey was used for the study. The sampling frame was developed through capture-recapture method. The sampling technique used was multi-stage consisting of several stages of stratified and simple random sampling and time-location sampling. Data was collected using questionnaires from 227 part-time academic staff from selected HEIs in Nairobi and Mombasa cities in Kenya, with a response rate of 85%; and also using interviews with 12 academic heads of departments representing 63% response rate. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The relationship between variables was analysed using Spearman's Rho correlation analysis while the test of factors predicting independent variable was done through stepwise regression analysis. The results show that age is a negative predictor of affective commitment while sibling status and ages of children are positive predictors of the same, ages of children is a predictor of all the 3 dimensions of commitment. The study recommends that education managers in HEIs should make deliberate attempts to develop and implement explicit policies relating to the management of part-time academic staff. It also recommends that line managers and human resource managers should focus more on age and family responsibilities among many other previously used criteria in the recruitment of part-time academic faculty.

Key Words: *personal characteristics, organizational commitment, part-time academic staff, institutions of higher education, Nairobi, Mombasa, Kenya*

Introduction

The period since 1970s has experienced an enormous change in the teaching workforce in higher education worldwide (Berry, 2002). This has been caused by the increase in international competition and trends in globalization. As a result, higher education

institutions have been forced to adopt managerialization as means to cope. These reforms have created new ways in which work is organized and the way people are managed (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). This has, for example, resulted in the adoption of flexible employment practices culminating in the use of part-time workers to carry out work activities. The anticipated outcomes of organizations that have adopted these flexible working arrangements were expected to be seen by way of improved operating efficiency and enhanced productivity of labour at work (Hartman & Bambacas, 2000).

The trend in human resource practices in Higher Education (HE) worldwide is towards the engagement of part-time faculty. In the United States of America, for example, between 1970 and 2003, the number of part-time faculty increased by 422%, while full-time faculty increased by only 71% (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). In the United Kingdom, the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) employed some 53% of the 134000 academic in 2003 (IRHEPC, 2005). This “casualization” of the academy is echoed in other reports in Europe (Enders, 2000), Australia (Kimber, 2003) and the U. S (Finkelstein, et al., 1998). These statistics testify to the fact that part-time teachers make a large proportion of temporary workers in the developed world. Commentators have struggled to enumerate the real statistics in part-time working in higher education institutions (HEIs) as these have been largely excluded from personnel records, creating an “invisible faculty” (Husbands, 1998). In Kenya’s HEIs, the universities are on record as employing a large number of part-time academic staff (CHE, 2006). Kenya’s HEIs have experienced a serious full-time staff shortage due to implementation of the government policy to improve access to Higher Education as articulated in Kenya’s Vision 2030 (ROK, 2009). The seven public universities in Kenya since shoulder 13 constituent colleges, not to mention the over 20 branches of such universities spread out in all the major towns in Kenya. The private universities in Kenya on the other hand have tended to rely heavily on part-time faculty who are full-time faculty in public universities. Over 80% of the 85 part-time lecturers in United States International University (ISIU) in Kenya in 2006 were, for example, drawn from the public universities (CHE, 2006).

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

2010; Umbach, 2008; Munene & Kagaari, 2007; Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Zafar & Chunghtai, 2006; Teahen & Barchers, 2005).

Based on a review on past studies on commitment, it implies that studies on commitment have been extensively carried out by many previous researchers, both in education and non-education settings both locally and internationally. Such an extensive exploration of the commitment research has also provided clear evidence that commitment has been a topic of increasing public and professional concern, both inside and outside the HRM (Human Resource Management) domains. An in-depth examination of past studies on commitment of teachers reveals diverse foci on the subject. Firstly, most studies have focused on commitment of employees to the working organization (Kipkebut, 2010; Smeenk et al., 2009; Gaylor, 2006; Laka-Mathambula, 2004; Borchers, 2002). However, few studies have investigated commitment of staff towards their profession (Bergmann, et al, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997). In the field of education, commitment to the teaching profession is becoming increasingly more important than organizational commitment or commitment to the employing school, university or division. Secondly, literature review has also indicated a big imbalance in the attention given to studies on commitment of teachers. Most researchers have viewed commitment as a unidimensional construct with a strong emphasis on affective commitment (Mathieu et al., 2002; Eby & Freeman, 1999; Mueller, et al., 1999; Wu Short, 1996). This conceptualization however represents a simplistic thinking which has been challenged, and should be abandoned (Benkhoff, 1997). Hence, in the teaching profession, it would be potentially important to find out the three different types of commitment according to Allen and Meyer's (1990) model on organizational commitment. These types are the affective, normative and continuance commitment. Thirdly, most studies on commitment of teachers (even part-timers in general) have been extensively conducted by researchers in the western countries (e.g. Eagan et al., 2009; Dooreward et al., 2009; Umbach, 2008; Tabuso, 2007;Gaylor, 2006; Borchers, 2002).

In Kenya's education sector, the use of part-time teachers to achieve the Free Primary Education has been explored. The public and private universities in Kenya are also in record as having a large number of casual academic staff (CHE, 2006). The academic staff shortages in universities in Kenya has been worsened by a rapid expansion stimulated by a desire to improved access to higher education as spelt out in Kenya's Vision 2030 (GOK, 2009). The seven public universities in Kenya in 2010 since shoulder 13 constituent colleges not to mention the branches of such universities in every city or region that currently compete with the constituent colleges. This scenario has challenges to managers/supervisors that have to handle an equal or double the number of part-time academic staff as compared to the regular staff. One very general assumption about part-timers in relation to their commitment is that part-timers are less committed (Pfeiffer, 1994). This would in effect imply that part-time staff has "part-time" commitment to the organization. Meyer and Allen's multidimensional model of commitment representing the affective, normative and continuance commitment has been used to understand the antecedents and effects organizational commitment of part-time academics elsewhere (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006).

Personal characteristics such as age, gender, education, marital status and family responsibilities have been studied in the past with regard to their influences on organizational commitment. The findings of such studies have established certain factors as affecting part-time academics commitment in the developed economies. These studies have also given useful findings to this study by shedding light on the previous empirically established relationships between the factors and organizational commitment. In the first instance, there is no correlation between personality traits and commitment (Suliman, 2002). Secondly, men and women (sex) has been found to have the same effect on general commitment, continuance and normative commitment (Lebatmediene & Gustainiene, 2007). Age was found to have a positive correlation with general organizational and continuance commitment. Higher levels of education were found to be associated with lower levels of commitment. Job characteristics and organizational characteristics were positively correlated with continuance commitment.

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

Statement of the Problem

Past studies provide evidence to show that organizational commitment has been a topic of increasing public and professional concern, both inside and outside Human Resource Management domains. The expansion of university education in Kenya (Kipkebut, 2010) for example, coupled with reduced direct government funding for HEIs (CHE, 2006) has left the local public universities with little choices but to resort to use of part-time academics. The overreliance part-time academics have created challenges with regard to management of such staff among Human Resource practitioners and line managers in charge of academic departments. The problem of lack sufficient academic staff in Kenya is dates back to the 1990s (Kipkebut, 2010). Prior to this period, the trends in engagement of academic staff in Kenya since independence (1963) were geared towards “permanent and pensionable” terms of employment. However, with the managerialization of university education, the cost of having all academic staff on permanent basis would be overwhelming and beyond the affordability of most local HEIs.

As a result, the numbers of part-time academics has grown steadily over the years and surpassed the numbers of full-time academics in Higher Education in Kenya (Kipkebut, 2010). This has in turn raised uncertainties and fears among stakeholders as to the quality of delivery of part-time academics owing to an implied notion that “part-time academics have part-time commitment to teaching”. Such a notion and fear has created a new wave of debates in Kenya (CHE, 2010; Muindi, 2010). These are debates were started by concerned parents

and students alleging that students were being given a raw deal by part-timer lecturers. The other part of the debate has it that part-timer academics are not qualified to teach and have no responsibility beyond the lesson facilitation (CHE, 2010). In spite of some attempts by the proponents of managerialism, who argue that part-timers are qualified and committed, to bring the debates to a proper conclusion, the debates have remained unsettled.

The situation in Kenya's HE sector is that HEIs have continued to expand every year without necessarily engaging more full-time faculty (CHE, 2006). This implies a rising trend in the engagement of part-time academics in HEIs in Kenya. The increasing use of part-time academics in without reference to empirical findings (Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey & Relyea, 2006; Murphy, 2009) has been reported. Any decision making on commitment of part-timers without empirical evidence might be both a "blessing" and also a setback in the Government of Kenya's efforts in to expand Higher Education in the country. On the one hand, it could be a big factor in facilitating access to higher education locally. However, it actually leaves the many of the issues raised by stakeholders on commitment of the part-time academics unaddressed.

The prevailing view is that the African cultural context is different from the Western or Eastern cultural contexts. As such, the Western-derived and tested arguments on influences on organizational commitment of part-time academics can only be taken to apply in the developed world contexts (Kipkebut, 2010). Consequently, any attempts to apply the same arguments to explain and understand the problems relating to commitment of part-time academics in HEIs in developing countries, each of which country tends to operate in a uniquely different context, can be appalling (Blunt & Jones, 1992). It is therefore of paramount importance not only to create new knowledge, but also bridge the knowledge gaps in organizational commitment by use of empirical findings from a local context.

The research problem identified, which has created a need to this study, is that most studies on commitment of academics have been conducted by researchers in the context of western and developed economies (e.g. Eagan et al., 2009; Dooreward et al., 2009; Umbach, 2008; Tabuso, 2007; Gaylor, 2006; Borchers, 2002). A small number of studies on commitment of part-time faculty have been carried out in Eastern and the developing country contexts (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). There is a dearth of information on organizational arising from the African context commitment not only touching on academics but also on commitment of employees in general. Indeed, there is no study (as far as the researcher was able to establish from a review of available previous studies) on the organization commitment of part-time academics in Kenya. The lack of information on organizational commitment of part-time academics creates a gap in knowledge among the large number of employers (academic) who rely heavily on part-time staff. The aim of this study is to assess the applicability of the conceptualization of personal characteristics and whether they influence the organizational commitment of part-time faculty in HEIs in Kenya.

General Objective

The general objective of this research is to establish whether selected personal characteristics are determinants of organizational commitment of part-time academics in selected HEIs in Kenya.

Specific Objective

To find out whether personal characteristics affect organizational commitment of part-time academics In Higher Education Institutions in Kenya

Hypothesis

In the light of the above objective, and in view of previous studies in this subject matter, the following research hypotheses have been formulated:

H1₀: Personal characteristics such age, number of children, age of children , and marital status, among part-time academic staff pushes for flexible working schedules and thus all have an affect on normative commitment.

H1_A: Personal characteristics such as age, number of children, age of children , and marital status among part-time academic staff do not push for flexible working schedules and thus not all have an effect on normative commitment.

H2₀: Personal characteristics as age, marital status and sex all have an affect continuance commitment of part-time academic staff .

H2_A: Personal characteristics as age, marital status and sex not all have an effect on continuance commitment of part-time academic staff .

Literature Review

Empirical studies on oragizational commitment in HEIs across the globe

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

especially which tend to attract a lot of criticism as to whether part-time academics are qualified to teach, and whether they can offer quality that can retain the students in college. The above two studies were however focussed on the effects of use of part-time academics in higher education.

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

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

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

Another study on organizational commitment in higher education was carried out with regard to Slovak women and focussed on the effects of personal and work-related factors (Brandt, et. al, 2008). This is a classic example of sex as an isolated factor in organizational commitment

studies in higher education. The findings show that there was little correlation between the personal and work-related factors used in the study and organizational commitment. The discussion on the findings of the study indicates that the results were similar to results of similar studies carried out with regard to women from US, Central and Eastern European countries.

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

Empirical studies on oraginizational commitment in HEIs in African continent and in Kenya

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

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

The one and only study on organizational commitment in HEIs identified with regard to academics in Kenya was carried out by Kipkebut (2010). The study was set out to establish the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in HEIs in Kenya. The study explored a large number of factors that influence commitment: sectoral factors (public, private), occupational group (academic and administrative), job satisfaction, turnover

intensions, demographic characteristics, job and role-related factors, and HRM practices. The findings show that in Kenyan HEIs, age, education, role overload, supervisory support, job security, distributive justice and participation in decision making were the most important predictors of organizational commitment.

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

Theoretical approaches to organisational commitment

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

Social exchange theory

The exchange perspective views the employment relationship as consisting of social or economic exchanges (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002; Cropanzano, Rupp and Bryne, 2003). Economic exchange relationships involve the exchange of economic benefits in return for employees' effort and are often dependent on formal contracts which are legally enforceable. On the other hand, social exchanges are 'voluntary actions' which may be initiated by an organisation's treatment of its employees, with the expectation that the employees will be obligated to reciprocate the good deeds of the organisation (Blau, 1964; Aryee *et al.*, 2002; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005).

The exchange approach view of organisational commitment posits that individuals attach themselves to their organisations in return for certain rewards from the organisations (March and Simon, 1958; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Steers, 1977; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981). According to this view, employees enter organisations with specific skills, desires and goals, and expect to find an environment where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires and achieve their goals. Perceptions of favourable exchange/rewards from the employees' viewpoint are expected to result in increased commitment to the organisation. Similarly, the more abundant the perceived rewards in relation to costs, the greater the organizational commitment. On the other hand, failure by the organisation to provide sufficient rewards in exchange for the employees' efforts is likely to result in decreased organisational commitment. This perspective is consistent with Becker's (1960) idea of calculative commitment where individuals' commitment to the organisation is in part, a function of accumulated investments.

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

Another perspective of the social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity which is based on two assumptions: “(a) people should help those who have helped them, and (b) people should not injure those who have helped them” (Gouldner, 1960, p. 171). Therefore, employees who perceive that the organisation values and treats them fairly will feel obligated to “pay back” or reciprocate these good deeds with positive work attitudes and behaviours (Aryee *et al.*, 2002; Gould-Williams & Davies, 20). Studies have suggested that the norm of reciprocity is taught as a moral obligation and then internalised by both parties (i.e. employees and employers) in an exchange relationship such that whoever receives a benefit feels obligated to repay it (Gouldner, 1960; Liden, Wayne, Kraimer & Sparrowe, 2003; Parzefall, 2008). This suggests that employees, who perform enriched jobs devoid of stress, receive attractive pay, job security and fair treatment from the organisation, are bound to express their gratitude for the support received by increasing their commitment to their organisation. In summary, therefore, the exchange theory posits that commitment develops as a result of an employee's satisfaction with the rewards and inducements the organization offers, rewards that must be sacrificed if the employee leaves the organisation.

Attitudinal commitment approach

This approach perceives commitment as an individual's psychological attachment to the organisation. Consistent with the unitarist values and philosophy of human resource management, attitudinal commitment posits that employees' values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation (Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Armstrong, 2003). This approach, now commonly referred to as affective commitment, has dominated most of organisational commitment research for more than three decades (Kanter, 1968; Buchanan, 1974a; Porter *et al.*, 1974; Mowday *et al.*, 1982). Brown (1996, p.231) refers to it as a “set of strong, positive attitudes towards the organization manifested by dedication to goals and shared sense of values” while Porter *et al.* (1974) defines it as:

“... the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. Such commitment can generally be characterised by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; (c) a definite desire to maintain organisational membership.” (p.604).

Meyer and Allen (1991, p.67) defined it as an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. These definitions view organisational commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between the employees and the organisation. The resulting outcomes are increased work performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced turnover (Scholl, 1981). Attitudinal commitment was measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) designed by Porter *et al.* (1974). Attitudinal commitment evolves as a result of the exchange processes between an individual employee and the employing organization.

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

Another dimension in explaining organizational commitment was proposed by Wiener (1982). Wiener argues that an employee's commitment could be as a result of internalised normative pressures such as personal moral standards, and not rewards or punishments. Employees with strong normative commitment may feel a deep seated obligation "to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421). Marsh and Mannari (1977, p. 59) describe an employee with lifetime commitment as one who "considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him over the years". Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organisation because they feel they *ought* to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to this approach, an employee willingly maintains membership purely for the sake of the organisation without asking for anything in return. Wiener (1982, p.421) states that employees exhibit this positive behaviour because "they believe it is the 'right' and moral thing to do". These feelings of obligation to remain with an organisation result primarily from the internalisation of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into an organisation (familial or cultural socialisation) or following entry into the organisation (organisation socialisation) and not through rewards or inducements (Wiener, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Feelings of indebtedness may also arise from an organisation's providing certain benefits such as tuition reimbursement or training.

This feeling of obligation may continue until the employee feels that he or she has "paid back" the debt (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Wiener's proposal, which stresses identification and loyalty to the organisation, has added a new dimension to the understanding of attitudinal commitment. Whereas in affective/attitudinal commitment an individual is attached to the organisation's goals and values, normative commitment arises from the congruency of the individual's and the organisation's goals and values, which aim to make the individual to be obligated to the organisation (Suliman & Iles, 2000b). Wiener (1982) further states that commitment increases when the internalised beliefs of an employee are consistent with the organisation's missions, goals, policies and style of

operation. Studies that have used Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective and normative commitment scales have revealed that the two approaches have an inherent psychological overlap and that it may not be possible to feel a strong obligation to an organisation without also developing positive emotional feelings for it (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky, 2002; Jaros, 2007).

The behavioural approach

The behavioural approach views commitment as being purely instrumental and not psychological (Becker, 1960; Stevens *et al.*, 1978). The assumption of this approach is that employees retain their membership with an organisation because the perceived cost of doing otherwise is likely to be high. Mowday *et al.* (1982, p. 26) has defined behavioural commitment as the "process by which individuals become locked into an organisation and how they deal with this problem". This approach is now referred to as continuance commitment. This approach developed from Howard Becker's studies in 1960 which described commitment as a disposition to engage in "consistent line of activity" (namely maintaining membership in the organisation) resulting from the accumulation of 'sidebets' which would be lost if the activity was discontinued (Becker, 1960, p. 33).

Kanter (1968, p. 504) referred to it as "profit associated with continued participation and 'cost' associated with leaving" the organisation. In this regard, commitment arises from the accumulation of some investments or "side-bets" tying the individual to a specific organisation, which would otherwise be lost if the activity or membership to the organisation were discontinued. Becker (1960) argues that over a period of time, certain costs accrue which make it more difficult for the person to disengage from a course of activity such as working for a particular organisation or pursuing a certain occupational career. The greater the costs and investments which accrue, the more difficult disengagement becomes. He termed these costs as "side-bets". These "side bets" or investments may relate to one's education, marital status, promotion, and pension fund, organisational specific skills and other factors which may be perceived as rewards or sunk costs in the particular organisation, hence rendering other job opportunities unacceptable. According to this approach, individuals may be unwilling to quit their organisations lest they be perceived as "job hoppers" (Reichers, 1985). Employees therefore make side bets by staking their reputation for stability on the decision to remain in the organisation. Organisations have also been found to make side bets for employees using practices that lock them into continued membership in the organisation through rapid promotion, non-investment pension plans, organisation-specific training among others.

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

rather than continuance commitment since employees who value their association with the organisation will not only remain in the organisation but work towards its success.

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

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

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

Multi-dimensional Approach

Interest in the study of the multidimensionality of organisational commitment has been as a result of two factors. Firstly, previous studies on organisational commitment have been criticised for failing to investigate commitment as a construct that is distinct from other psychological concepts (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This is despite studies showing that one's commitment to an organisation can result from value congruence, financial investments, effective reward and control systems or a simple lack of opportunities (Becker, 1960; Wiener, 1982). Secondly, although attitudinal or behavioural approaches explained different concepts of commitment (i.e. psychological attachment, loyalty and costs attached to leaving the organisation), Mowday *et al.* (1982) found that the two approaches were not mutually exclusive but interrelated. According to Mowday and colleagues, there is an ongoing cyclical relationship between these two types of commitment whereby high levels of attitudinal commitment leads to committing behaviours which in turn reinforce commitment attitudes.

Similarly, Coopey and Hartley (1991) suggest that the two approaches could be integrated into a single approach which recognises that commitment can develop either through affect or

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

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

Although studies on the multidimensionality of organisational commitment began to gain prominence from the early 1990s, its roots date back to work done by Kelman (1958) on attitude change. Kelman argues that an individual can accept influence in three different ways. First, compliance, which occurs when “an individual accepts influence because he hopes to achieve a favourable reaction from another person or group” (p.53). In this case, the individual adopts the behaviour in order to gain specific rewards or approval but not necessarily because he/she shares in the goals or beliefs of the organisation. This is similar to continuance commitment.

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

The first study that explored the multidimensionality of organisational commitment was carried out by Meyer and Allen (1984) who adopted Becker’s (1960) “side-bet” theory by introducing the concept of continuance commitment alongside the concept of affective commitment. Reichers (1985), in a review of 32 commitment studies, did not find a consistent definition of commitment. However, from these studies, Reichers (1985, p.468) classified commitment into three categories. First, “side-bets” which suggest that

organisational commitment is a function of the rewards and costs associated with organisational membership. These typically increase as tenure in the organisation increases. Second, attributions whereby commitment is a binding of the individual to behavioural acts that results when individuals attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviours that are volitional, explicit and irrevocable. Third, individual/organisational goal congruence where commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend effort towards organisational goals and values.

In addition, Reichers (1985) found that organisations comprised various “coalitions and constituencies” (such as top management, work groups, co-workers, supervisors, customers/clients) each with its own goals and values that may or may not be compatible with the goals of the organisation. As a result, organisational commitment can best be understood as a collection of multiple commitments to the goal orientations of multiple work groups that constitute the organisation. Reicher's review provided guidelines for the future direction on the study of multidimensionality of organisational commitment by categorising commitment into three dimensions. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) who adapted Kelman's (1958) work on attitude and behavioural change, argued that although commitment reflected the psychological bond that ties the employee to the organisation, this bond can take three distinct forms, namely, compliance, identification and internalisation. According to O'Reilly and Chatman (p.493) compliance occurs simply to gain specific rewards and not because of shared beliefs; internalisation occurs when the values of the individual and the organisation are the same; and identification arises from being part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments without the individual adopting them as his or her own. The study found that identification and internalisation were negatively related to turnover intentions, while compliance was positively related to employee turnover. Following up on Meyer and Allen's (1984) study, McGee and Ford (1987) found that continuance commitment was bi-dimensional consisting of ‘high personal sacrifice’ and ‘low perceived alternatives’.

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

“the ‘net sum’ of a person's commitment to the organisation ... reflects each of these separable psychological states” since an employee can experience each of these psychological states with varying degrees, for instance, a strong need and obligation to remain in the organisation but no desire to do so” (pp4).

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed measurement scales (OCQ) for organizational commitment which consisted of 24 items measuring the three components of commitment (eight items for each) and had acceptable internal consistency (i.e. Cronbach alpha coefficient) for each dimension as follows: Affective Commitment Scales (ACS) $\alpha = 0.87$; Continuance

Commitment Scales (CCS) $\alpha = 0.75$; and Normative Commitment Scales (NCS) $\alpha = 0.79$. CCS was found to be independent of ACS and NCS while ACS and NCS were significantly correlated. Allen and Meyer also found that the link between commitment and on-the-job behaviour such as turnover varied depending on each form of commitment. They concluded that this distinction would enable organisations to predict which of their employees were likely to remain in the organisation and contribute effectively to its success and those who were likely to remain and contribute little.

Although Allen and Meyer's (1990) 24-item commitment scales have been used extensively, concerns were raised about the high correlations between affective and normative commitment with some researchers questioning the logic of retaining normative commitment as a separate scale (Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997). In an attempt to clarify the distinction between affective and normative commitment, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) revised all the three scales resulting in the reduction of the scale items from eight to six items per dimension. The revision of the normative commitment scale was most extensive as it had originally been designed to capture Wiener's (1982) work on the internalisation of social or cultural pressures about loyalty rather than employees obligation to the organization regardless of the origin of this obligation (Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Jaros, 2007). However, despite this revision, Meyer *et al.* (2002) found that the correlations between affective and normative commitment in the original 8-items ($p = .54$) and the revised six-item scales ($p_{12} = .77$) were still considerably high.

Since the development of the multidimensional commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990), various studies in American and other Western contexts have been carried out using the three-dimensional organisational commitment measures (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein & Delhaise, 2001; Meyer *et al.*, 2002). This approach is also increasingly gaining support in various non-Western cultural contexts (Suliman & Iles, 2000; Ko *et al.*, 1999; Wasti, 2003; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). Some researchers have suggested that this development is likely to bring to an end the disappointing and inconsistent results often reported in organisational commitment research (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Brown, 1996; Suliman & Iles, 2000b).

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

In summary, research studies have shown that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct. For the purpose of this research, organizational commitment

consists of three dimensions, namely; affective commitment which reflects employees' psychological attachment and identification with their universities; normative commitment which reflects loyalty and moral obligation to remain in the university; and continuance commitment which is the recognition of the costs associated with leaving the university. Personal characteristics are demographic characteristics that have been one of the most studied influences of organizational commitment. Personal characteristics include in gender, education level, marital status and family responsibilities.

Personal characteristics and organizational commitment

Personal characteristics used in previous studies were age, marital status, level of education, gender and family responsibilities. These are as discussed hereunder. The age of employees is one of the most widely studied factor in employee commitment researches (Zafar, 2006; Bakalis & Joiner, 2006; Beukhoif et al). Research has shown that age is positively related to organizational commitment (Steers, 1977; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1981). One tries to establish a possible explanation for this relationship. While Mowday et al (1982) asserts that there are few employment options available for older employees; these seem to be a target by universities seeking to engage part-time academic staff. The "side-bets" theory also attempts to offer an explanation to the effect that older employees realize that leaving may cost them more than staying in a full-time job (Parasuraman & Nachman, 1987). The nature of unemployment trends in developing countries also poses another challenge to younger people: that of lack of full-time employment.

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

Gender and organizational commitment has produced somewhat inconsistent results (Bakalis & Joiner, 2006). This is partly due to the changing social and cultural systems world over. There has been a strong wave since 1980s of engendering most spheres of an economy. This has tremendously changed the gender landscape in most organizations. The gender activists have sounded a wake-up call that has revolutionalized the minds of the once-discriminated gender category of employees. Wann's (1998) study of Human Resource executives found that women showed a higher continuance commitment than men, whereas Ngo and Tsang (1998) found no significant relationship between gender and commitment. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) study found that women are more significantly committed to the organization than men.

Studies on marital status as a predictor of commitment have been numerous (Hrebiniak & Alutto 1972; John & Taylor, 1999; Tsui et al 1994). Findings have been consistent that married people were more committed to their organization than unmarried people. This could be explained by the fact that married people tend to have more family responsibilities. It is such family responsibilities that push such people to look for stability of earnings, job security, and commitment to the organization than their unmarried counterparts. A study by

Joiner and Bakalis (2006) however, found that presence of children were not associated with continuance commitment.

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

Furthermore, given the growth and proliferation of university colleges in all regions in Kenya, coupled with opening of campuses and branches of universities in different locations in an attempt to improve access to higher education, the use of part-time academics becomes like the norm in staffing of HEIs. The point to note is that the more educated the person is, the more empowered him/she becomes, and the more freedom there is to seek for better opportunities elsewhere.

A Model of organizational commitment: hypotheses development

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

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

A review of past literature on organisational commitment has identified several determinants of OC (Chungtai & Zafar, 2006; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Smeenk et al, 2009, Martin, 2007,

Caykolyu & Egri, 2009): personal characteristics; job-related characteristics; organisational characteristics; economic factors; trust; and job satisfaction. These factors have been investigated to determine their impact on organizational commitment. On the basis of the results of these studies, several hypotheses for this study have been advanced. The independent variables used in these hypotheses are generic factors like personal characteristics. The dependent variable (OC) will be looked at in its three separate dimensions (affective, normative and continuance commitment).

Determinants of normative commitment

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

H4₀: Personal characteristics such age, number of children, age of children , and marital status, among part-time academic staff pushes for flexible working schedules and thus all have an affect on normative commitment.

H4₁: Personal characteristics such as age, number of children, age of children , and marital status among part-time academic staff do not push for flexible working schedules and thus not all have an effect on normative commitment.

Determinants of continuance commitment

This is a component of commitment which arises from an individual’s feeling of having to be with the organization for as long as it is practicable (Jacobsen, 2000). Personal characteristics like marital status, age and sex have been found to have mixed effects on continuance commitment. Married women, for example, have been found to have little chances of continuance commitment in situations where the spouses provide earnings stability and also where one would relocate to join the spouse in a new location for work or business.

In this regard, the following hypotheses can be advanced:

H6₀: Personal characteristics as age, marital status and sex all have an affect on continuance commitment of part-time academic staff .

H_{6A}: Personal characteristics as age, marital status and sex not all have an affect on continuance commitment of part-time academic staff .

Research Design

In this study, a quantitative research design was used. Quantitative research relies on the principle of verifiability, that is, confirmation, proof, or substantiation, using appropriate measurements of the study variables. The specific quantitative method used in this research was the survey method. A survey is an appropriate method for collecting data for descriptive or exploratory studies (Pettit, 1993) about a well-defined population (Foddy, 1996).

Population

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

Sampling techniques and sample size

Having identified the population of study, multiphase sampling technique was employed to select the subjects of study. First, stratified sampling was used to select the HEIs for the study. This resulted in a sample of the HEIs from those operating in the study area. According to Kothari (2004), stratified sampling is used when a population from which a sample is to be drawn does not constitute a homogeneous group. The sample size for this study was obtained using a combination of a formula developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). The total population of part-time academic staff in the selected HEIs was 864 where a sample of 267 was targeted. A total of 267 questionnaires were delivered to the respondents in the sample. 243 questionnaires were returned but 16 were not in usefuable form leaving a total of 227 in usable form. This represents a response rate of 85% for the part-time academic staff in the sample. Out of the 19 academic heads of departments who were selected, 12 accepted and were interviewed representing 63%. This response rate has been considered to be adequate in survey research (Baruch, 1999; Roth and BeVier, 1998). The data collection instruments in this study included a questionnaire and an interview guide. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (EOQ) was used to measure the variables in this study. This OCQ has been largely used to measure organizational commitment over the last four decades (Benkhoff, 2000). Data was collected through administration of questionnaires and interviews. Personal characteristics have previously been considered in previous studies as determinants of commitment in line with the side-bet theory (Becker, 1960; Mayer and Allen, 1984). Age and the average ages of siblings were measured in years on a grouped

distribution showing several age groups. Gender, marital status and sibling status were measured as dichotomous variables (gender:1=male, 2=female; marital status:1=married,2=not married; sibling status:1= I have children, 2= I have no children). This has been used in a previous similar study (Veled-Hecht and Cohen, 2010). Spearman rho correlation was used to establish the relationship between variables in this study. Multiple regression was done in this study to establish the independent variables that predict the dependent variables. The test statistic used for testing the hypothesis in this study was the F-test.

Research Findings

The gender of respondents was one of the factors assumed to predict organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. The findings indicated that there was a larger percentage of male part-time lecturers (70.5 %) compared to the females (29.5%). This could imply that in the two cities there are likely more male part-time academics than female ones. The age of respondents was one of the factors assumed to predict organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. The data on the age of respondents indicates that the 30-39 age bracket is more actively involved in part-time teaching. This is closely followed by the 40-49 bracket. These two brackets are the periods employees have settled down in active employment and are quite energized to deliver. The marital status of respondents was one of the factors assumed to predict organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. The findings on marital status, assuming that married people have more responsibilities, shows that 83 % of the respondents were married. A small percentage (17%) were unmarried. It was difficult to gauge at this early stage in the analysis the effect this could have had on part-time teaching. It is only sufficient to report that in the two cities, married people were more into part-time teaching than unmarried ones.

The sibling status of respondents was one of the factors assumed to predict organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. The findings show that with regard to sibling status, 83% of the respondents reported that they have children. This may be indicative of the fact that economic conditions and the responsibility to take care of siblings pushed them into part-time teaching. The ages of children of respondents was one of the factors assumed to predict organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. The various ages of the children (siblings) was used as the basis for with a four-fold children age classification. The findings also indicate that most (59%) of part-time lecturers have children below the teen ages. This is in agreement with the average ages since on average most parents under 45 tend to have small children below the age of 12.

The total number of semesters taught was one of the factors assumed to predict organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. The aspect of longevity of service in part-time teaching gave mixed results. On one hand, there were many entrants (32%). This can be attributed to the massive expansion in university education in Kenya in 2007-2012 period. On the other hand, there were almost equally a similar number (29%) who had a service in excess of 10 semesters. This is to confirm that part-time teaching in HEIs has been practised in for a relatively long period of time. The focus of highest academic qualifications show

that most of the staff are holders of masters degree (82%). This trend is worrying compared to the 5% who possess doctoral degree and above. The highest academic qualifications possessed by each respondent was explored in this study. This owes to the fact that a minimum of a Ph D degree is the qualification required to teach in a university. This means that most of those involved in part-time teaching barely possess the required qualifications as per Kenya's Commission for University Education academic staff quality standards that require a minimum of Ph D.

The income generating activities respondents are involved in, including part-time teaching was explored. This is due to the fact that part-time teaching can be taken as the major job and the only income generating activity to some respondents while to others it is just one of the many moonlighting activities. The study had an item soliciting for responses on the nature of other income generating activities part-time academics are engaged in. The results show that most of them have a full-time job and hence the part-time teaching is just as moonlighting activity. However, 29% reported that they are solely involved in part-time teaching as their only income-generating activity.

This study had an item exploring whether the respondents have a full-time job over and above the part-time teaching job they have. On whether the respondents had full-time jobs, 58% were on the affirmative. However this number could go up given that some did not want to prejudice their jobs by stating that they have another job. This study had an item exploring the work sector from which the respondents with full time jobs work. The results of the descriptive analysis are shown in Table 3.15. This study set out to find the work sector where the part-time academics belong. While 40% confirmed that they have no full-time job, the bulk of the rest were in the education and training sectors. This means that the same full-time staff in HEIs participate a lot in part-time teaching; and this is supported by those who work in the secondary education sector and the tertiary training sector.

A summary of the results of descriptive analysis of personal characteristics indicated that the mean of the personal characteristics ranged from a low of 1.30 to a high of 6.62. This is quite a big range in the mean implying that it was not normally distributed but skewed. The standard deviation ranged from .374 to 5.587 showing a big inconsistency in the ratings. The personal characteristics included in this study were also correlated to each other (gender, age, marital status, sibling status, and average ages of children). Gender, $r_s .253, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 was found to have a positive statistically significant relation with Marital Status. Gender was also positively and significantly related to Average Ages of Children, $r_s .133, p$ (two-tailed) <0.05 . Age was not correlated with gender $r_s .012, p$ (two-tailed) >0.01 ; but was positively and significantly related to sibling status, $r_s .371, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 , and negatively and significantly related to Marital Status, $r_s -.420, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 . Marital status was positively and significantly correlated with Gender, $r_s .253, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 ; Average Ages of Children, $r_s .322, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 ; and negatively and significantly correlated with Age, $r_s -.420, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 ; and Sibling Status, $r_s -.559, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 .

The variables in the averaged items of the Three Component Model (TCM) of Organizational Commitment scales were correlated with each other. The results are as shown in Table 2. The analysis shows that AC is positively correlated and is significant with the two other variables: CC $r_s .228, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 ; and NC $r_s .202, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 . Similarly, CC was found to have a positive relationship with AC and NC. CC is statistically significant with AC, $r_s .228, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 ; NC $r_s .311, p$ (two-tailed) <0.05 . Lastly, NC was found to have a positive correlation and was statistically significant with AC $r_s .202, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 ; and CC, $r_s .311, p$ (two-tailed) <0.01 .

The objective of this study was to establish whether the personal characteristics influence organizational commitment of part-time academic staff. To establish this prediction, stepwise regression was carried out with personal characteristics being independent variable and affective, continuance and normative commitment being dependent variables in turns. Stepwise regression analysis to establish personal characteristics predicting affective commitment produced the results summarized in Table 3.46 and a summary of model parameters represented in Table 3.

The results of step 3 show that the selected and statistically significant personal characteristics (average ages of children, age of respondents and sibling status) accounts for 2.7% ($R^2=.027$) of the factors that predict affective commitment.

Stepwise regression analysis looking for personal characteristics predicting affective commitment produced the results summarized in Table 4 and a summary of model parameters represented in Table 5. The results of step 4 show that the selected and statistically significant personal characteristics (average ages of children, age and sibling status) accounts for 2.7% ($R^2=.027$) of the factors that predict continuance commitment. This may imply that personal characteristics used in this model are poor predictors of continuance commitment.

The results from the model parameters shows that the 2 selected predictors had relatively large contributions to the model shown by the t-values : a sibling status, $t= -1.867$, average ages of children, $t= -2.485$). In summary, the two variables are the predictors of continuance commitment in this model with continuance commitment being the dependent variable. However, these two still depict a very weak prediction of continuance commitment.

Stepwise regression analysis looking for personal characteristics predicting normative commitment produced the results summarized in Table 6 and a summary of model parameters represented in Table 7. The results of step 3 show that the selected and statistically significant personal characteristics (average ages of children, age of respondents and sibling status) accounts for 6.6% ($R^2=.066$) of the factors that predict normative commitment. This leaves out a colossal 93.5% being accounted for by variables not covered in this model.

The results from the model parameters shows that the 3 selected predictors had relatively large contributions to the model shown by the t-values : age, $t= 3.22$, sibling status, $t=-3.27$, average ages of children, $t= -.37$). In brief, therefore, the three variables are the predictors of

normative commitment in this model with normative commitment being the dependent variable.

The results of the analysis of the personal characteristics predicting affective, continuance and normative commitment are shown in Table 9 below.

The results show that age is a negative predictor of affective commitment while sibling status and ages of children are positive predictors of the same. The same factors are all predictors of normative commitment although sibling status then is a negative predictor while sibling status and age of children are negative predictors.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1

Personal characteristics such age (X_2), number of children (X_4), age of children (X_5), and marital status (X_3) were represented by questions Q2, Q4, Q5, and Q3 respectively in the questionnaire for this study. These formed the basis for the first hypothesis in this study which is set out as follows:

H1₀ Personal characteristics such age (X_2), number of children (X_4), age of children (X_5), and marital status (X_3) among part-time academic staff pushes for flexible working schedules and thus all have an affect on normative commitment (all $\neq 0$, for $i=2,3,4,5$).

H1_A Personal characteristics such as age (X_2), number of children (X_4), age of children (X_5), and marital status (X_3) among part-time academic staff do not push for flexible working schedules and thus not all have an effect on normative commitment (some of $= 0$, for $i=2,3,4,5$).

Personal characteristics such age (X_2), number of children (X_4), age of children (X_5), and marital status (X_3) were similarly correlated and subsequently fitted on a multiple regression with normative commitment (Y_3). The correlation coefficients are as represented in Table 10.

The correlation on Table 10 depicts a rather weak correlation between $X_2 - Y_3$, weak correlation for $X_5 - Y_3$, $X_3 - Y_3$ and very weak for $X_4 - Y_3$. Fitting a multiple regression for the same, we obtain the following equation deduced from Table 9.

$$Y_3 = 4.165 + 0.207 X_2 - 0.617 X_4 - 0.174 X_5 + 0.057 X_3$$

To test the research hypothesis: Personal characteristics such as age (X_2), number of children (X_4), age of children (X_5), and marital status (X_3) among part-time academic staff do not push for flexible working schedules and thus not all have an effect on normative commitment (some of $= 0$, for $i=2,3,4,5$); the regression equation was subjected to significance test as in Table 12.

From the test results in Table 12, α_4 and α_5 and α_3 are insignificant; hence the multiple regression reduces to:

$$Y_3 = 4.165 + 0.207X_2$$

Since $\alpha_4 = 0$, and $\alpha_5 = 0$ and $\alpha_3 = 0$; the null hypothesis is rejected at 5% confidence interval and conclude that personal characteristics such as age (X_2), number of children (X_4), age of children (X_5), and marital status (X_3) among part-time academic staff not all have an effect on normative commitment.

Hypothesis 2

The personal characteristics used in this hypothesis are age (X_2), marital status (X_3), and sex (X_1) and are represented by questions Q.2, Q.3, and Q.1 respectively. The hypotheses are set out as follows:

H2₀: Personal characteristics as age (X_2), marital status (X_3), sex (X_1) all affect continuance commitment of part-time academic staff (all of $\neq 0$, for $i=1,2,3$)

H2_A: Personal characteristics as age (X_2), marital status (X_3), and sex (X_1) not all affect continuance commitment of part-time academic staff (some of $= 0$, for $i=1,2,3$).

Initially, each variable was independently regressed with continuance commitment, Y_2 , to assess the plausibility of the relationship. Subsequently, a multiple regression equation was fitted and hypothesis tested against α_2 , α_3 and α_1 that correspond to age (X_2), marital status (X_3), and sex (X_1) respectively.

$$Y_2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 X_2 + \alpha_3 X_3 + \alpha_1 X_1$$

Table 13 shows a relatively weak correlation between $X_2 - Y_2$, a weaker correlation between $X_3 - Y_2$ and a very weak correlation between $X_1 - Y_2$. This means that establishing a relationship might not be plausible. Furthermore, when we try to fit a multiple regression equation we get the following equation with the corresponding statistics in Table 14.

$$Y_2 = 3.483 - 0.141 X_2 - 0.277 X_3 + 0.123 X_1$$

To test the research hypothesis that personal characteristics as age (X_2), marital status (X_3), and sex (X_1) not all affect continuance commitment of part-time academic staff; (some of $= 0$, for $i = 2,3, 1$). In this case, we first subject the regression equation to significance test as follows:

The results of the significance test on Y_2 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_1 indicate that $\alpha_2 = 0$, $\alpha_3 = 0$, and $\alpha_1 = 0$; and are thus insignificant. The resultant equation, which is in no way a regression equation, is as follows:

$$Y_2 = 3.483$$

Since $\alpha_2 = 0$, $\alpha_3 = 0$, and $\alpha_1 = 0$; the null hypothesis is rejected at 5% confidence interval and conclude that the selected personal characteristics: age (X_2), marital status (X_3), and sex (X_1) not all affect on continuance commitment of part-time academic staff. 4.5

In conclusion, the first research hypothesis (H1_A) was accepted indicating that personal characteristics not all have an effect on normative commitment of part-time academic faculty. Similarly, the second research hypothesis (H2_A) was accepted indicating that personal characteristics not all have an effect on continuance commitment of part-time academic staff.

Conclusions

The following conclusions can be made arising from the findings of this study. First, since part-time academic staff seem to be an evolving and quickly rising trend in higher education, it might as well be important to start appreciating their role in the economic and social development of a country. Secondly, the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment is applicable in Kenya, a developing country context, as it is applicable in the Western context. Third, managers of HEIs employing part-time academic staff need to focus more on ages and family responsibilities of potential applicants as a means of assuring organizational commitment at the onset.

Recommendations

The study recommends that where possible and practicable, part-time academic staff should be recruited from among the post-graduate students in the same institution. The head of department or supervisor, the study recommends, should endeavour to provide personal support and especially to new part-time lecturers.

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Appendix

Table 1: Output for for Spearman correlation on Personal Characteristics

Spearman's rho		Gender	Age	Marital Status	Sibling Status	Average Ages of Children
	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.012	.253**	-.005	.133*
Gender	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.	.852	.000	.941	.045
	N	227	227	227	227	227
	Correlation Coefficient	.012	1.000	-.420**	.371**	.113
Age	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.852	.	.000	.000	.090
	N	227	227	227	227	227
	Correlation Coefficient	.253**	-.420**	1.000	-.559**	.322**
Marital Status	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	227	227	227	227	227
	Correlation Coefficient	-.005	.371**	-.559**	1.000	-.634**
Sibling Status	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.941	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	227	227	227	227	227
	Correlation Coefficient	.133*	.113	.322**	-.634**	1.000
Average Ages of Children	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.090	.000	.000	.
	N	227	227	227	227	227

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

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

Table 2: Output for for Spearman correlation on the TCM Elements of Organizational Commitment.

Spearman's rho		Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.228**	.202**
Affective Commitment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.002
	N	227	227	227
	Correlation Coefficient	.228**	1.000	.311**
Continuance Commitment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.000
	N	227	227	227
	Correlation Coefficient	.202**	.311**	1.000
Normative Commitment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.
	N	227	227	227

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

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

KEY: JRF= Job-Related Factors, OF=Organizational Factors, EF=Economic Factors, AC=Affective Commitment, CC=Continuance Commitment, NC=Normative Commitment

Table 3: Model Summary of personal characteristics as predicting affective commitment

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	.202 ^a	.041	.019	.823	.041	1.873	5	221	.100
2	.181 ^b	.033	.016	.825	-.008	1.775	1	221	.184
3	.165 ^c	.027	.014	.825	-.006	1.325	1	222	.251

a. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Gender, Marital Status, Sibling Status

b. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Marital Status, Sibling Status

c. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Sibling Status

d. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

The results from the model parameters shows that the 3 selected predictors had relatively sizeable contributions to the model shown by the t-values : age, $t = -2.326$, sibling status, $t = 2.045$, average ages of children, $t = 1.701$). In summary therefore, the three variables are the predictors of affective commitment in this model with affective commitment being the dependent variable.

Table 4: Model parameters of personal characteristics as predicting affective commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error				Beta
1	(Constant)	2.189	.624		3.510	.001
	Gender	-.171	.128	-.094	-1.332	.184
	Age	-.154	.084	-.154	-1.842	.067
	Marital Status	.290	.193	.130	1.498	.136
	Sibling Status	.652	.262	.300	2.489	.014
	Average Ages of Children	.110	.064	.189	1.720	.087
2	(Constant)	2.237	.624		3.586	.000
	Age	-.156	.084	-.155	-1.857	.065
	Marital Status	.213	.185	.096	1.151	.251
	Sibling Status	.575	.256	.264	2.247	.026
	Average Ages of Children	.096	.063	.165	1.522	.129

	(Constant)	2.650	.511		5.188	.000
3	Age	-.186	.080	-.185	-2.326	.021
	Sibling Status	.511	.250	.235	2.045	.042
	Average Ages of Children	.106	.062	.183	1.701	.090

A. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Table 5: Model Summary of personal characteristics as predicting continuance commitment

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	.202 ^a	.041	.019	.824	.041	1.883	5	221	.098
2	.198 ^b	.039	.022	.823	-.002	.411	1	221	.522
3	.176 ^c	.031	.018	.825	-.008	1.843	1	222	.176
4	.164 ^d	.027	.018	.825	-.004	.974	1	223	.325

a. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Gender, Marital Status, Sibling Status

b. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Gender, Marital Status, Sibling Status

c. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Gender, Sibling Status

d. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Sibling Status

e. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Table 6: Model parameters of personal characteristics predicting continuance commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.444	.625		7.116	.000
	Gender	.175	.128	.096	1.366	.173
	Age	-.054	.084	-.054	-.641	.522
	Marital Status	-.288	.194	-.129	-1.485	.139
	Sibling Status	-.489	.262	-.224	-1.863	.064
	Average Ages of Children	-.133	.064	-.229	-2.090	.038
2	(Constant)	4.455	.624		7.144	.000
	Gender	.174	.128	.096	1.359	.175
	Marital Status	-.250	.184	-.113	-1.357	.176
	Sibling Status	-.562	.236	-.258	-2.386	.018

	Average Ages of Children	-.152	.056	-.262	-2.709	.007
	(Constant)	3.946	.500		7.900	.000
3	Gender	.120	.122	.066	.987	.325
	Sibling Status	-.414	.209	-.190	-1.978	.049
	Average Ages of Children	-.147	.056	-.253	-2.621	.009
	(Constant)	4.029	.492		8.181	.000
4	Sibling Status	-.387	.207	-.178	-1.867	.063
	Average Ages of Children	-.138	.055	-.236	-2.485	.014

a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Table 7: Model Summary of personal characteristics as predicting normative commitment

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	.260 ^a	.068	.047	.642	.068	3.210	5	221	.008
2	.258 ^b	.067	.050	.640	-.001	.212	1	221	.646
3	.257 ^c	.066	.054	.639	-.001	.160	1	222	.689

a. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Gender, Marital Status, Sibling Status

b. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Marital Status, Sibling Status

c. Predictors: (Constant), Average Ages of Children, Age, Sibling Status

d. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Table 8: Model parameters of personal characteristics as predicting normative commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error				
	(Constant)	4.152	.486		8.541	.000
	Gender	-.046	.100	-.032	-.460	.646
	Age	.208	.065	.262	3.178	.002
1	Marital Status	.078	.151	.044	.519	.605
	Sibling Status	-.596	.204	-.346	-2.919	.004
	Average Ages of Children	-.170	.050	-.371	-3.434	.001
	(Constant)	4.165	.484		8.597	.000
2	Age	.207	.065	.261	3.178	.002
	Marital Status	.057	.144	.033	.400	.689

	Sibling Status	-.617	.199	-.359	-3.102	.002
	Average Ages of Children	-.174	.049	-.379	-3.561	.000
	(Constant)	4.276	.396		10.809	.000
3	Age	.199	.062	.251	3.218	.001
	Sibling Status	-.634	.194	-.369	-3.273	.001
	Average Ages of Children	-.171	.048	-.373	-3.547	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Table 9: Personal characteristics predicting affective, continuance and normative commitment

Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Age (-)	Sibling status (-)	Sibling status (+)
Sibling status (+)	Ages of children (-)	Ages of children (-)
Ages of children (+)		Sibling status (-)

Table 10: Correlation between Y₃, X₂, X₄, X₅, X₃

Variables	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	
X ₂ and Y ₃	.105	$Y_3 = 2.967 + .0083X_2$
X ₄ and Y ₃	.009	$Y_3 = 3.198 - .016X_4$
X ₅ and Y ₃	.098	$Y_3 = 3.279 + .045X_5$
X ₃ and Y ₃	.027	$Y_3 = 3.224 + .048X_3$

Table 11: Regression parameters for personal characteristics predicting normative commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error				
	(Constant)	4.165	.484		8.597	.000
	Age (X ₂)	.207	.065	.261	3.178	.002
1	Sibling Status (X ₄)	-.617	.199	-.359	-3.102	.002
	Average Ages of Children (X ₅)	-.174	.049	-.379	-3.561	.000
	Marital Status (X ₃)	.057	.144	.033	.400	.689

Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment (Y₃)

Table 12: Significance test on Y_3, X_2, X_4, X_5, X_3

$2S(\quad)$	α_i	If $2S(\quad) \leq$ then it is "significant"
$2 \times (0.231) = 0.462$	4.165	Significant
$2 \times (0.067) = 0.134$.207	Significant
$2 \times (0.121) = 0.242$	-.617	Insignificant
$2(0.049) = 0.098$	-.174	Insignificant
$2(0.144) = 0.288$.057	Insignificant

Table 13: Correlation between $Y_2, X_2, X_3,$ and X_1

Variables	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	
X_2 and Y_2	.089	$Y_2 = 3.191 - .089X_2$
X_3 and Y_2	.049	$Y_2 = 3.104 + .109X_3$
X_1 and Y_2	.035	$Y_2 = 2.894 + .063X_1$

Table 14: Regression parameters for personal characteristics predicting continuance commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	3.483	.324		10.746	.000
Age	-.141	.074	-.141	-1.917	.057
Marital Status	-.277	.169	-.125	-1.642	.102
Gender	.123	.126	.067	.975	.331

Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Table 15: Significance test on $Y_2, X_2, X_3,$ and X_1

$2S(\quad)$	α_i	If $2S(\quad) \leq$ then it is "significant"
$2 \times (0.324) = 0.648$	3.483	Significant
$2 \times (0.074) = 0.134$	-.141	Insignificant
$2 \times (0.169) = 0.338$	-.277	Insignificant
$2 \times (0.126) = 0.252$.123	Insignificant