PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT ON ACADEMIC EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT IN TOP PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

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Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities 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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DEDICATION

To all my family members for their love and support. I give God the glory and praise for sparing your lives to share in my success.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AC	Affective Commitment
AEC	Academic Employee Commitment
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BEI	Bern Embitterment Inventory
CC	Continuance Commitment
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease (Pandemic 2019)
CUE	Commission for University Education
ET	Equity Theory
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GoK	Government of Kenya
GVT	Global Virtualisation Team
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HLI	Higher Learning Institution
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IPUCCF	Inter Public Universities Councils Consultative Forum
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

KU	Kenyatta University
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMUST	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology
MoEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
NACoSTI	National Council for Science and Technology
NC	Normative Commitment
OC	Organisational Culture
OJ	Organisational Justice
OR	Organisational Reward
PJ	Procedural Justice
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TPUK	Top Public Universities in Kenya
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UASU	University Academic Staff Union
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation
UoN	University of Nairobi
WC	Working Condition

DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Achievement Culture Is derived from accomplished tasks from self-generated Psychological rewards that affect employees' commitment (Pee, Chung, & Al-Khaled, 2022).

Affective Commitment It indicates the emotional bond of the employee to their organisation Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Commitment This is a strong effort rendered by an individual worker to their organisation. It is the effectiveness of a worker in an organisation (Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Contingent Rewards Are rewards based on employee performance (Zhu, Liu, Zhang, & Wang, 2023).

Continuance Commitment It indicates the employee's opinions whether they are satisfied with their pay (salary) which may influence their commitment level in the organisation or the employee's breakdown of the costs of staying or leaving their organisation (Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Distributive Justice It is the recognition of impartial outcomes (Mustofa, 2022).

Employee It refers to a human being (male or female) who works in an organisation for livelihood. For this study, it refers only to people that work in public higher educational institutions in Kenya (Asemota & Asemota, 2022).

Employment Contract   Is an agreement or offer and acceptance of the terms to contract exchanged between the employer and employee (Asemota & Asemota, 2022).

Extrinsic Rewards   Are financial and tangible rewards employees receive for performing their work tasks or assignments (Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Interactive Justice   Focuses on interpersonal relationships, behaviours among employees, and the fairness of communication within organisations (Wolfe & Lawson, 2020).

Intrinsic Rewards   Intrinsic rewards are (non-financial) psychological incentives personnel receive for performing their jobs well (Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Leadership Support   Demonstrates an interest in their employees, value and make their employees feel important, and these employees exhibit more affective commitment to their jobs (Kim & Oh, 2023).

Management Contract   (Jahan, Huynh, & Mass, 2022).

Normative Commitment   It indicates whether the employee is delighted with the values of their organisation which may influence their level of engagement and their responsibility to stay with their organisation. It also indicates an employee's judgment of the moral duty to stay with their organisation (Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Office Infrastructure   Comprises appropriate furniture, computer network and security systems hardware, and other other equipment like telephone systems, internet

	connectivity, cabled or wireless networks (Sood, 2024).
Organisation	It is a social entity where two or more people persistently engage in systematic and harmonised efforts over some time towards the realisation of set goals (Gutterman, 2023).
Organisational Culture	It is commonly shared values and general patterns of behaviour among members of an organisation (Jahan, Huynh, & Mass, 2022).
Organisational Justice	It is an employee's recognition of impartial workplace processes, interplay, and results (Supriya & Dadhabhai 2020).
Organisational	Monetary and non-monetary compensation and benefits offered by the
Perceived Organisational Support	This refers to the employees' overall opinions of workers' beliefs that their employers appreciate their contributions and cater to their interests. It is also a measure of organisational support to staff (Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).
Perceived	It refers to having an opinion about something (Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).
Performance	It is the deliverables expected of the employee by the employers
Power Culture	It is the most senior employee controls everything and the subordinates are dependent on him or her for directives (Okpimah, 2022).

Procedural Justice   Implies personnel in organisations are concerned about the form, processes, or steps on how decisions are made that concern them (O'Callaghan, 2024).

Public University   This is a higher learning institution, relatively financed by the government, where scholastic programmes are offered and grant undergraduate and postgraduate degrees to recipients after completing the requirements laid down by the institution and the umbrella body governing Higher Institutions (Wanderi, 2023).

Research Tools   Comprise computer technology, the human mind, language, the library and its assets, measurements, and statistics (Fussy, 2024).

Rewards   the employer to the employee for services or jobs rendered (Okolie & Egbon, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Supervisor's Support   Includes providing feedback, guidance, and recognition, significantly predicted higher levels of employee commitment (Amoo & Adam, 2022).

Support Culture   Is based on mutual trust and respect between individual employee and the organisation (Kaouache, Brewer, & Kaouache, 2020).

Support   It refers conceptually to the aids, assistance, and help rendered to bring about comfort and a sense of worth to the people assisted. Support in this study refers to all forms of assistance (monetary, non-monetary, psychological, social, work conditions, and supervisors' support) provided to the staff (Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Working Conditions   Refer to the physical work environment of work provided by the employer and also other contractual work conditions and also relationship conditions that take place among the employees (Daweti, Khumalo, & Ngo-Henha, 2024; Asemota, Were, & Nyang'au, 2022).

Workload Distribution   Comprises teaching, research, publication, organising and attending conferences, administration, and community service (Abiona et al., 2023).

ABSTRACT

Institutions of higher learning in Kenya operate in a demanding industrial environment of exhausting competition. The challenges confronting Public Universities in Kenya may include poor workers' commitment attributable to poor compensation packages, distressing working environments, disproportionate reward systems, unpalatable leadership styles, and defective support structures. The research used Perceived Organisational Support to influence Academic Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya. The specific aims of the research were to determine how working environments, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisors' support systems drive academic employee commitment in Kenya's Public Universities. The research used the Equity Theory, Handy and Harrison's Theories of Culture, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Procedural Justice Theory, and Social Exchange Theory. The sample population comprises all academic employees from the selected seven public Universities in Kenya. A designed 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire was validated and used to gather data for the research. The questionnaire and interview guide were designed and delivered to lecturers and heads of departments in a public university outside those chosen for the thesis to assess the reliability, viability, and validity of the data-gathering instruments. The pilot study was conducted to adjust the questionnaire. The adjusted questionnaire design was applied to randomly sample all the subgroups of University lecturers to ensure sufficient representation in the sample. The questionnaire was arranged and grouped according to the specific research objectives. Out of the 400 questionnaires administered by trained Research Assistants and the researcher, 288 (80.4% of the anticipated 358) samples were used for analysis. The Cronbach's alpha reliability, analysis of variance, explanatory, and inferential statistics were determined by the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS 25th Edition). The study indicates that supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice explain academic employee commitment. Also, organisational justice had the predominant relationship over academic employee commitment, followed by organisational rewards, supervisors' support, and working conditions, which indicate that perceptions of fairness and equity in the workplace are vital for fostering commitment among academic employees in Kenya. The findings suggest that supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice were all important factors influencing academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya. This research contributes to understanding academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya because it has practical implications for universities in East Africa and adds to the limited literature on workers' commitment and perceived organisational support in Africa. The study has also empirically, methodically, and optimally (optimal model development) contributed to perceived organisation support and academic employee commitment. Cumulatively, the power of organisation culture on working conditions, organisation rewards, organisation justice, and supervisor's support provided 92.0% influence on academic employee commitment in Public Universities in Kenya. Future research can consider the interplay of other factors like employment demands over employee commitment and investigate the generalisability of these findings.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

This section of the thesis presents the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the general research and specific objectives, the hypotheses, the scope of the study, and the research outline. The thesis explored how Perceived Organisational Support (POS) influenced Academic Employee Commitment (AEC) in Top Public Universities in Kenya (TPUK).

Globally, Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) contribute to producing knowledge economies (Vieira-dos Santos & Gonclaves, 2018). Over the previous decade, there is a significant transformation in HEIs worldwide. This includes the creation of international networking, collaboration among Higher Institutions, high levels of exit of faculty and students, new and reformed management structures, accreditation, and diversification of courses. Others include the use of online technology in teaching and learning, which depends on the quality of human resources and other non-human resources (Vieira-dos Santos et al., 2018). Thus, these call for new management strategies to ensure academic employee commitment.

Although human resource researchers and organisational behaviour practitioners agree that staff constitutes intellectual capital, the labour force drives the economy. It is also the greatest asset in any productive endeavour (Kavit, 2017; Bigirimana, Sibanda & Masengu, 2016; Ng'ethe, 2013; Ahmed, Nawaz, Ali & Islam, 2015). Hence, the human factor cannot be underestimated in any productive and performance process. Thus, staff in any industry should be managed to enhance the achievement of set organisational goals (Kavit, 2017; Bigirimana et al, 2016; Ng'ethe, 2013, Robbins & Judge, 2013). Managing the workforce in any industry or organisation, especially in the academic environment is continuously becoming a challenge to human resource professionals, administrators, and people managers due to changes in the global economy (Kavit, 2017; Robbins & Judge, 2013).

These changes affect the administration and management of HEIs and their workforce, particularly, academics. It has also been argued by Toulson and Castaneda (2013) that Human resource practices have a great role to play in ensuring that knowledge workers are chosen and trained to win their commitment. Whenever attitudes and commitment of staff in higher learning institutions are not well understood and managed these might lead to negative ripple effects and repercussions on the economy. To gain the commitment and dedication to work, on the part of the academic employees' that impact the right knowledge and skills to their students (customers), this study investigated Perceived Organisational Support (POS) on Academic Employee Commitment in Kenya's Public Universities.

1.1.1 Global Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment

Ping, Xin, Yen, Aisy, and Ting (2017) studied organisational commitment among academic employees of Private Universities in Malaysia. They opine that recognised organisational endorsement and systematised justice were materially compatible with academic organisational commitment. They propose administrators, governments, and human resource practitioners, focus on recognised organisational affirmation and procedural justice to improve academic commitment. Giorgi, Dubin, and Perez (2016) in Italy studied perceived organisational support for enhancing welfare at work using a Regression model to indicate that employees executing their work under non-conducive work conditions, such as poor work-life balance, stressful environment of work, were on the increase and can impact negatively on employee general welfare. The study examined a blend of working conditions and other organisational indicators that enhance workers' perceptions of organisational support. Conclusively, it was revealed that staffs who perceive that their organisation as supportive show proactive behaviours, and commitment. Employees' perceived organisational justice suggests organisational fairness has both negative and positive outcomes that affect employers and staff (Komodromos, 2014). Prior research in organisational justice shows that it positively correlate with trust, and commitment to the organisation, boosts morale, impacts ethical standards, and enhances a sense of responsibility for supervisors and the organisation (Komodromos, 2014). Giorgi et al.

(2016) quoting Ishfaq and Muhammad (2015) suggest that recognised organisational endorsement advanced growth and developmental opportunities, fairness, supervisor's endorsement, and co-workers' affirmation. In addition, supervisor's endorsement and fitting compensation lead to favourable outcomes for employees and organisations. Dinc (2015) demonstrated that recognised organisational endorsement has a beneficial relationship with organisational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor's support with affective commitment.

The study conducted in Portugal HEIs, examined how organisational culture (support, innovation, goals, and rules) and internal marketing contribute to the organisational support of staff (Vieira-dos Santos & Gonclaves, 2018). Findings from a sample of 635 staff show that organisational culture and internal marketing contribute to explaining perceived organisational support. Conclusively, Vieira-dos Santos et al., (2018) recommend that HEIs should establish a culture of support and the right internal medium that allows employees to perceive social support that is significant to the success of the Institution.

Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014) in a study of Human Resource Management practices and organisational commitment, carried out in Malaysia and Pakistan, among executives of public and private Universities in Pakistan, reported that their organisational commitment was strongly and positively affected by the compensation practices embraced by the Universities in Pakistan. Another study carried out in HEIs in Pakistan, by Khan, Khan, Khan, Nawaz, and Yar (2013), affirms that biographical factors have a significant influence on organisational commitment. It was evident from the study that females were more committed than males. The age and length of stay in the academic institution also had significant effects on the affective and normative commitment of staff. Singles or unmarried academics have also been found to be less committed than their married counterparts. The younger faculty members are more ambitious, less skilled, and less committed compared to their older colleagues (Khan et al., 2013). Employee engagement and employee commitment are vital organisational requirements as companies are confronted with issues of globalisation. Research on commitment in the Arab world is either lacking or scarce (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014).

1.1.2 Regional Perspective of Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment

Obicci (2015), in his study conducted in Uganda, in the public sector, demonstrated the influence of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards on employee engagement/ commitment. The study revealed that participation and commitment of staff to the organisation depend on the rewards obtained and their quality. Poor reward leads to employees' withdrawal and outright role disengagement. The author further explained that when workers obtain compensation from their organisations, they feel obligated to return with higher levels of commitment or dedication to their work. However, past studies in Uganda had reported mixed results, which call for more scientific research in this field. Obicci (2015) concluded in his study that both rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) have positive significant relationships with employees' commitment. Obicci (2015) reported the study conducted in Tanzania and found that health workers perceived support from their immediate supervisors and perceived ability to perform positively influenced their commitment.

Bigirimana *et al.* (2016) in their study examined the impact of working conditions on academic employee turnover at Africa University in Zimbabwe. The authors used seven (7) independent variables (leadership style, perceived organisational support, distributive justice and support, performance management, academic freedom and collegiality, workload and pressure, and research and outreach activities). They found that: structural reforms emphasising the adoption of private sector management style and practices (commercial-like managerial approaches); poor administration of contracts, lack of perceived organisational support, and lack of support staff, led to the demotivation of academic staff, and high turnover.

Oludeyi (2015), reported that academic employees' commitment in most African educational institutions is influenced by poor management systems, poor service delivery, and personal characteristics. Other factors that impact commitment include culture, poor financial rewards system, interpersonal relationships, workplace politics, and other University environmental factors. The study conducted by Mabaso (2017) in South Africa, examined the power of rewards on organisational

commitment among academic employees at selected Universities of Technology. In the study, reward management is explained to be the policies and processes preferred by the organisation to guarantee that people's effort is appreciated and rewarded, accordingly and sufficiently. The author suggests that workers who are well compensated are more dedicated to their organisations and are less likely to quit the organisation. Respectable payment has been categorised as a motivation for employee effectiveness in South Africa's educational system.

Also, Nwibere (2014) used Organisational Justice to predict organisational citizenship behaviour in the Nigerian work environment and sampled 245 University academics in the Niger Delta Region, using a quasi-experimental research design and Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for analyses. Organisational justice constructs using the impartiality in the distribution of rewards in the academic work environment resulted in distributive justice (impartiality in reward distribution), procedural justice (seeing their leaders as being fair), and interactional justice (describes people's responsiveness to the worth of interpersonal care they receive in the course of work procedure).

Mabaso (2017) in a South African study surmises that employees with a high level of organisational effectiveness strive to remain in the organisation. The author's distinctive summary of organisational engagement includes staff identifying with an organisation's ideals and principles (identification); employees' profound inclination to continually invest with the organisation (loyal), and being willing to strive extraordinarily hard on behalf of the institution (investment). Brenyah and Obuobisa-Darko (2018) in the Ghanaian Public sector examined the link between corporate culture and employee engagement (commitment) with a sample of two hundred and sixty-seven (267) staff randomly chosen. The study reported that achievement and supportive cultures are vital to employee commitment while power culture has a tremendous negative relationship with employee commitment. The authors conclude that supportive culture emanates from a sense of commitment and solidarity.

Another study conducted among Governmental Higher Institutions in Lagos, Nigeria examined the interrelationships between Organisational culture and Employee effectiveness, considering both academic and non-academic employees. The evidence indicates that there was a vital connection between organisational culture and employee effectiveness in Public Higher Institutions in Lagos, Nigeria. According to Aina, Adeyeye, and Ige (2012), the degree of workers' commitment can be affected either positively or negatively by the existing culture within the organisation. Every organisation has its own culture, which, if groomed will have a far-reaching effect on the overall employees' commitment (Aina *et al.,* 2012).

1.1.3 Local Perspectives of Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment

The Higher Learning Institutions (HLI) in Kenya have witnessed unprecedented development and enlargement since the 1980s at a time when the government could not adequately cover the pecuniary demands of Higher education (Kavit, 2017; Kiboiy, 2013; Ng'ethe, 2013). As a result of the rapid expansion coupled with reasons of political expediency, HLIs particularly, public universities have been plagued by a myriad of problems that have affected their ability to function as centres of excellence. Researchers reported that commitment is low among academic personnel due to a variety of factors including but not limited to inadequate and non-competitive salaries and other factors, like the proliferation of Higher Education Institutions beyond the levels of academic training (Kavit, 2017; Ng'ethe, 2013).

Strikes by National Universities academics in Kenya have become more frequent in recent years because of low pay, demand for better working conditions, such as access to car loans, higher medical insurance, and government corruption of mismanagement of public funds, which could be used to increase lecturers pay (Miriri, 2018; Wanzala, 2018). Poor university governance resulting from the failure of the Inter Public Universities Councils Consultative Forum (IPUCCF) to negotiate lecturers' welfare and poor implementation of the content of Collective Bargaining Agreements (Gachuhi, 2018; Malalo, 2018) has resulted in prolonged strikes. Other grievances include back-payment of claims owed to lecturers, teaching workload,

and the lecturer-student ratio of 1:500 or 1:900, resulting in overflowing classes (Nganga, 2017). Additional complaints by public university lecturers as reported by researchers are namely; lack of time to concentrate on research due to excessive teaching workload and large class sizes, which have reduced commitment and quality service delivery (Wanzala, Nyamai, Kakah & Mwangi, 2018).

Wainaina (2015) conducted a study on what determines academic employees' commitment in both Public and Private Universities in Kenya. The research reveals that academic employee involvement in decision-making and workers' non-monetary benefits had a moderate linear relationship with organisational commitment. It was recommended that Universities, whether public or private need more support from the government in the area of balanced work life. Also, policies that decrease part-time faculty members in the University workspace should be enacted to facilitate full-time employment and improve employee commitment. In another study conducted by Kavit (2017), the commitment was found to be very low among academics because of inadequate and non-competitive salaries. Wainaina (2015) investigated factors that determine organisational commitment among academics in Kenya's Private and Public Universities. He found that there was a strong positive linear relationship between employment terms and organisational commitment. There was also, a weak but still positive connection between work-life practices and employee commitment.

1.1.4 Higher Learning Institutions in Kenya

Higher Learning education in Kenya started in 1922 when Makerere College, Uganda was established as a small technical college and was expanded to meet the needs of the three East African countries (Kenya, Uganda, and Tanganyika and Zanzibar), as well as Zambia and Malawi. In the 1940s and early 1950s, only Makerere College was offering higher education in East Africa, which lasted until 1956 when the Royal Technical College was established in Nairobi (Kavit, 2017; Kiboiy, 2013; Ng'ethe, 2013). In 1963, the Royal Technical College transformed into the University College, Nairobi, following the establishment of the University of East Africa with three constituent colleges in Nairobi, Dares Salaam, and Kampala

(Kavit, 2017; Kiboiy, 2013; Ng'ethe, 2013). The University of Nairobi became the first national Higher Institution in Kenya. All national universities in Kenya have experienced significant growth and expansion as aligned with the governmental goals to improve equity, the economy, and the educated populace (Kavit, 2017; Ng'ethe, 2013). The choice of "selected top public universities in Kenya" used for the research is based primarily on their year of establishment, academic staff strength, and students population. The research began in 2019 when there were 22 fully-fledged chartered public universities in Kenya (Wainaina, 2015).

1.2 Statement of the problem

The government of Kenya through Vision 2030, aimed to increase citizens' access to university education from 4.6% in 2008 to 20.0% by 2030 with a focus on science and technology for national development (Wainaina, 2015). Hence, the Higher Education System in Kenya has witnessed rapid expansion, which has attracted simultaneously a lot of challenges and has significantly affected their ability to operate as institutions of distinction. Consequently, public universities in Kenya are experiencing low commitment which may impact service delivery, which possibly may be due to resource scarcity, likely poor pay, delay in payment of academic claims and student output may also suffer tremendously.

Some researchers have suggested that the challenges of lack or low commitment among academic employees in public universities in Kenya could be due to inadequate, poor, and low compensation packages, inadequate financing, and multiplication of HEIs (Kavit, 2017; Ng'ethe, 2013). Strikes by national Universities academics in Kenya have become more frequent in recent years due to clamour for better working conditions, access to car loans, higher medical insurance, and government corruption of mismanagement of public funds that could be used to increase lecturers pay (Miriri, 2018). The Commission for University Education (CUE), revealed that between 2010 and 2013 the number of Professors in the employ of the seven oldest national Higher Institutions increased by only 11.0% while the student population escalated by 56.0%. This worsening student-to-permanent

academic-employee ratio of more than five times further drives the low commitment downhill to uncomfortably and unsustainable levels.

The resulting large class sizes, attendant stressful work environment, and without commensurate organisational support to manage the overflowing classes, led to poor employee commitment (Wainaina, 2015). Poor university governance resulting from the failure of the Inter Public Universities Councils Consultative Forum (IPUCCF) to negotiate lecturers' welfare package and poor implementation of the content of Collective Bargaining Agreements (Gachuhi, 2018; Malalo, 2018) have resulted in prolonged strikes and further exacerbated the low commitment witnessed among academic employees at Public Universities in Kenya. Other grievances comprise back-payment of claims owed to lecturers for up to 8 years, teaching workload, and the lecturer-student ratio of 1:500 or 1:900, resulting in overflowing classes (Nganga, 2017), led to reduced or low commitment and quality service delivery (Wanzala, Nyamai, Kakah & Mwangi, 2018).

Mazher (2022) shows that academic staff at public universities are less motivated than private universities because of inadequate rewards. The increased demand for education and its attendant challenges are the direct results of the United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation's (UNESCO) aim of education for all. Overcrowding lecture halls and theatres at several public and private universities due to the staggering rise in enrolment without the corresponding increase in infrastructural facilities and other resources. In sum, the academic staff of public universities in Nigeria suffers from a nominal work ethic and organisational commitment, negatively impacting their work performance. The academic staff is unable to fulfill their duties because of the absence of adequate socio-psychological and motivational support, rewards not commensurate with the services rendered lead to lower quality service delivery, and seeking alternative sources to earn extra income. A large number of students in courses have made university lecturers to be overworked, overstressed, and underpaid leading to lack of dedication, poor supervision of students' projects, and sub-par quality education delivery (Mazher, 2022).

Boyer (1990) discusses scholarship over time and the work of the professoriate under current realities for recognising and rewarding academic employees based on faculty performance evaluation. At the heart of the debate of academic employee commitment falls squarely on faculty time, the question of reward systems, and which activities of the university scholar are most highly "priced"? It is pointless to speak of improving the quality of teaching if academic employees are not recognised for the time they attend to students. The work of the university academic over the years has shifted from teaching to service, and back to research both within and outside the university system. Dwindling financial resources to public universities has witnessed a shrinking academic employees' reward system when Kenyan higher education is expanding. Several of the nation's colleges and universities are caught in the web of competing goals. In these circumstances, students are the major losers because in many universities, teaching is not well rewarded, and the scholars who spend much time with students may never be promoted or recognised for their work or retained in their position as there may not be publications to support retention.

Academic employees are losing because research and publication have become the only means by which university scholars attain academic status and relevance. A majority of academic employees are drawn into the university system because of their love for teaching and instruction, or service, and to make the world a better place (Beard et al., 2020). Unfortunately, professional obligations do not receive the recognition they deserve but a climate that either frustrates or restricts creativity on many university campuses persists. Furthermore, the university system is in confusion over goals. Most have become imitative instead of being unique in their positions and goals.

The growing incivility, deepening and diminished community, and indiscretion on the part of some students rioting and demonstrating on the Hamas and Pro-Palestine liberation in the Gaza strip, added to the blind sidedness of the atrocities committed by Hamas on October 7th, 2023 against the Israeli civilians, is a case in point. The current foray of unreasonableness among university students and faculty of taking one wrong narrative because of wrong teaching and indoctrination by militants of a religious sect and their sympathisers who have killed innocent and harmless people

in cold blood and are now crying foul when their civilian population is being decimated after a false sense of invisibility. It is worrisome because none of those people sermonising on Israelis restraint on "destroying Hamas" would want terrorists around their shores for any reason. The perchance for ascendancy among college and university students and faculty the world over is a result of low commitment to sound reasoning, erudite scholarship, and excellent judgment expected of the people in situ in the academy.

Additionally, it is vital to know how the academic employees' reward system has either undermined the loyalty and commitment on university campuses or how it can be used to enhance these priorities.

The nation loses because at no other time in history, the need to harness the mosaic of talent in the university system is mostly needed to solve the many developmental problems and challenges plaguing the society. It is disheartening because a recessed and demotivated academic employee cannot easily be prodded to release their best for the good of the nation in times of need.

Currently, the rich talent pool and potential of Kenyan higher education cannot be fully realised when the university mission is narrowly defined and if the academic employee's reward system is grossly inadequate or restrictive. To break out of this mould and carve out a new paradigm of teaching and research debate, more innovative ways of rewarding the compendium of the work of the academic employee must be developed to recognise the full spectrum of academic work and the range of functions performed by higher education academics.

While the work contract of academic employees has been categorised into four by most universities (scholarship of discovery, scholarship of integration, scholarship of application, and scholarship of teaching), the evaluation and performance appraisal methodologies bring to bear psychological contracts on what was never stated as job functions or work accountable for at the point to contract between the University and the academic.

Psychological contracts are fraught with problems of execution because it is an unwritten contract in which each party to the contract has assumed terms of the contract in their minds which does not align with the written and sealed work contract between the parties to the contract. Once the psychological contract on the part of the academic employee is seen to be violated by the university leadership, it can lead to modified levels of loyalty and commitment and the academic employee may finally exit the university (Asemota & Asemota, 2022).

The above problems or factors could lead to frustration and each party working at cross purposes to the detriment of the development of the university, the academic employees, the students, and the nation as a whole. This is so because a demotivated or uncommitted academic employee cannot produce a well-rounded and enthusiastic university graduate.

What then are the duties that the academic employee is accountable for? The omnibus academic work contract operated by the university leadership partially made available during evaluation, promotion, or performance appraisal periods contains research and publication; teaching and instruction; consultancy; grants and proposal writing; community outreach; mentorship; drive professional membership/subscription; simulation games, roleplay, and case studies; recruitment of new students; curriculum development and reviews; supervision of projects/theses/internships; field trips, laboratories demonstration, and safety; pastoral care, counselling, and advisor; study materials, textbooks, and book chapters development and publication; innovation and patenting; administration, and a multitude of other assignments categorised as "service".

Low commitment and the attendant low-quality work-life balance emanate from a skewed performance evaluation and appraisal that is at variance with the academic employee's work contract (research and publication, teaching, consultancy, and community engagement, or "service"). It is disheartening to realise that out of the omnibus academic employee duties, only the quantity of research and publication metric is used for promotion because it is easy to count and apply, while the other

duties and functions that take most of the time, resources, and effort of the academic employees are unrecognised, undervalued, and also, unpaid for.

The frustration from the skewed academic employee appraisal and promotion methodologies may lead to six behavioural choices because they perceive injustice, unfairness, and inequity namely (Robbins, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2003): (a) change their input by not exerting as much effort as before, (b) change their outcomes in which individuals paid on a piece rate can increase their pay by producing a higher quantity of units at a lower quality, (c) distort the perceptions of self by retorting: "I used to think I worked at a moderate pace but now I realise that I worked a lot harder than everyone else", (d) distort the perceptions of others: "Joe's job is not as desirable as I previously thought it was", (e) choose a different reference frame: "I may not make as much as my sister-in-law, but I am doing a lot better than my Mom did when she was my age", and (f) leave the field: "resign from the job" or "exit the organisation".

Low work commitment occurred between 2017 and 2022 because of higher levels of academic employee casualisation at the London School of Economics and Political Science. Academics on fixed-term contracts increased from 55.0% to 59.0% between 2016 and 2022. The student-to-permanent staff ratio plummeted by 2023 and is the worst ratio among similar universities in the UK (HESA, 2023; LSE 2022/23 Financial Statements, 2023). A legal strike occurred in the summer of 2023 over pay, casualised academic employees' work contracts, and the imposition of 50.0% pay deductions beginning from June 16th, 2023 on academic employees taking part in the strike (LSE, 2023). Some striking academics received 25.0% of their pay in July 2023 because there were no deductions in June 2023 and the "Exceptional Degree Classification Schemes" policy approved to enable students to graduate on time during the strike eventually lowered the standards of the London School of Economics and Political Science degrees because only between 85.0% and 90.0% of undergraduate final grades degree requirements and only 75.0% of Master's students grade requirements were deemed sufficient for provisional degrees award (LSE Registrar's Division, Student Services, June 2023).

At Tuft's University Medical School, many permanent and full-time professors are now expected to cover much of their salaries using grants and are penalised with a reduction in salaries, if unable to do so. But, the general understanding of tenure is that professors are supposed to enjoy the job and economic security all their lives in the university community. The legal battle that would be heard in 2025 was instituted by eight Tuft's University School of Medicine faculty members. The Medical School in 2017, changed the contractual obligations to faculty members in the basic sciences to continue to cover half (50.0%) of their salaries with external grants failing which, they were to suffer salary reductions and lose their full-time permanent staff status, and the University could deny them of their laboratory spaces. This policy direction is prevalent at many Medical Schools in the USA (Langin, 2024).

In 2019, eight Medical School faculty of Tuft's University who had received tenure between 1970 and 2009 took the university to court because they purported that their tenure rights were violated by reducing their salaries ranging between US$4,500.00 and US$95,500.00. They argued that tenure was supposed to grant them economic security and academic freedom. Some of the academic employees had their workload reduced and their permanent full-time status changed to part-time, while their laboratory spaces were taken away from them. One member whose salary was US$60,000.00 and who received permanent full-time status in 1998 has experienced significant financial hardship and had to take on real estate work to augment her income (Langin, 2024).

The plaintiffs contend that they were hired to carry out research, teach, and engage in service work, and not write grants, and therefore, disagree with any language in the modified Tuft's University Medical School work contract of 2017 that labels them as "unproductive". They also contend that many grant funders restrict how much of the grant can be used to fund a Principal Investigator's (PI) salary. Sometimes, no fund is either budgeted or allowed for any part of the PI's salary. The 2017 policy puts the affected Tuft's University Medical School faculty in dire straits and to be treated as "disposables" or trifles. Furthermore, Tuft's University lawyers contend that "tenure" was not contractually binding on the University but "aspirational". Fortunately, the Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court ruled that "economic security is an important

substantive provision of the tenure contract". The Court on the side of Tuft's University ruled that further "…evidence was required to define what reduction types are consistent with, and not in violation of the contract". Again, the professors lost the capacity to have access to their laboratory spaces. The understanding that a tenured faculty member's salary can be reduced from lack of "productivity" is worrisome and can lead to frustration and low commitment. On the whole, the tendency to run universities as businesses is detrimental to the creativity, innovation, insight, and quality of graduates that only academia can deliver.

1.3 General Objective of the Thesis

The general objective of the thesis was to evaluate the influence of Perceived Organisational Support (POS) on Academic Employee Commitment in Selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives of the Thesis

The specific objectives of this thesis are to:

(i) Determine the influence of working conditions on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

(ii) Assess the influence of organisational rewards on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

(iii) Establish the influence of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

(iv) Determine the influence of supervisor's support on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

(v) Establish the moderating influence of organisational culture on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

H_{01}: Working conditions do not have a substantial influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

H$_{02}$: Organisational rewards do not have a substantial influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

H$_{03}$: Organisational justice does not have a substantial influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

H$_{04}$: Supervisor's support does not have a substantial influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

H$_{05}$: Organisational culture has no substantial moderating influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

1.5 Justification of the thesis

The findings of this thesis will specifically advance research in human resource management, psychology, and organisational behaviour. It would significantly contribute to the current body of knowledge in the field of recognised organisational endorsement and academic employee effectiveness. The stakeholders who are likely to benefit from this study are particularly the following:

1.5.1 Higher Learning Institutions

This study may provide empirical resources, data, and value-added information to the management and administrative organs of public universities in Kenya. It may also enable academic employees to improve their commitment and enhance their performance in their jobs. More so, the administrators and higher educational institutions are challenged in their styles of management, and may thereby seek better ways of managing academics that will enhance higher commitment.

1.5.2 Human Resource Practitioners

Professionals in people management, organisational behaviour in all organisations, particularly, in both public and private Higher Educational Institutions, can benefit immensely from the findings, which might result in problem-solving, higher commitment, and enhanced quality service delivery and optimal performance.

1.5.3 The Republic of Kenya and Policy Makers

Governments and other relevant policy-making institutions can utilise the knowledge gained and the information provided from this study to assist Human Resource Managers and policy-makers, especially University administrators, Deans, and Chairs of Departments/Heads of the department of different Schools, Colleges, Faculties, and Centres. This can result in good policies that better a lot of our academics and this reciprocate with a high job commitment. The Government can benefit from the body of knowledge and findings, to review policies that add value to academics and other human capital (intellectuals) in the educational industry and sector. Consequently, disruptions of work as a result of strikes can be efficiently managed, thus leading to improved productivity.

1.5.4 Researchers and Academics

Other researchers, particularly in academia, other fields, or disciplines, and related research institutes can equally benefit. The aforementioned can manifest in identifying and conducting new studies in the areas identified as research gaps, and areas marked for further investigation.

1.6 Scope of the study

The study focused on Recognised Organisational Support for Academic Employee Commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The target population (the unit of analysis) was all the academic staff of Public Universities (N = 5055) while the unit of observation was the seven (7) selected Top National Higher Institutions (n=358) in Kenya. The following Public HLIs were selected based on the oldest and the largest. The selection was so because these Institutions of Higher Learning, have the traditional setting of Universities which is universal. The HLIs that were selected were namely: the University of Nairobi (1970), Moi University (1984), Kenyatta University (1985), Egerton University (1987), Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (1994), Maseno University (2001), and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (2007). The study addressed perceived organisational support (working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational

justice, and supervisor's support) on academic employee effectiveness in chosen Top Public Universities in Kenya, using organisational culture as the moderator. The data for this thesis were collected from lecturers (full-time and part-time). The study was carried out within the time frame of twelve (12) months to fifteen (15) months.

1.7 Limitations of the study

Limitations encountered in any research endeavour are impediments or constraints that tend to obstruct or delay the research and its findings (Kaaria, 2022). The researcher encountered many constraints in the study, ranging from that fact that two public universities declined access for the pilot study, seeking and waiting for approval from the seven selected top public universities in Kenya, appointment and training of eleven (11) research assistants, financial constraints, time of the study, the actual data collection processes, and unforeseen Corona Virus 2019 pandemic (COVID-19).

The aforementioned limitations were mollified by the researcher by obtaining approval for a pilot study from another public university that was not part of the seven selected public universities. Research licenses, for approval and permission to collect data, were obtained from National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) and Kenyatta University Ethics Committee. Data were obtained from seven public universities since there was no time to cover all the twenty-two public universities and the timing of the study is limited. Furthermore, financial and other constraints made the researcher to courier (DHL) questionnaires to Research Assistants in public universities at the main campuses during the heat of COVID-19 pandemic. Initially, it was difficult to win participant's involvement in completing the questionnaires. To ease off these constraints, and to encourage more participation from the respondents, they were assured of confidentiality and anonymity and also were briefed on the fact that the study is strictly for academic purposes and will not be taken again anyone of them.

NACOSTI and Kenyatta University Ethics Committee requested for a copy to be submitted after completion of the research which will further incur extra financial burden that was not envisaged at the commencement of the study. Funding was

sought personally to alleviate the extra costs. Similarly, to increase more participation and because of restrictions placed on physical contact, some questionnaires were administered electronically by the researcher. Only a few responses were obtained from the online questionnaires. Consequently, the questionnaires that were self-administered and those administered by the eleven trained research assistants formed the bulk of the questionnaires used for the statistical analyses.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

This section of the thesis comprises the summary of chapter one (Introduction). It considered the Background of the Study and the Global and Local Perspectives of Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. Higher Educational Institutions in Kenya, Statement of the Problem, General and Specific Objectives of the thesis, Research Hypotheses, and Justification of the thesis. Further, Higher Educational Institutions, Human Resource Practitioners, the Republic of Kenya Policy Makers, and Researchers and Academics. The Scope of the Study and Limitations of the Study are also in the chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

A literature review is a step-by-step process that involves the identification of published and unpublished works of secondary data sources on the topic of the researcher's interest. This chapter describes several related scholarly works that have been conducted on perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment in universities, particularly in public universities. The chapter explores the theoretical and empirical literature, conceptual framework, critiques, and gaps in the literature that are related to the topic under investigation: Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

2.2 Theoretical Review

This theoretical review allows the researcher to recognise the construct under investigation entitled Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee Commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The literature review guided the researcher to identify, and also acknowledge previous and relevant scholars in the field of the research problem of interest. It further assisted the researcher to recognise and document past scholarly research endeavours and the contributions made to the body of knowledge without prejudices concerning the topic under investigation. Therefore, this section critically examines the different theories of Perceived Organisational Support and Academic Employee Commitment. By so doing, it aided the researcher to design the conceptual framework for the study, by identifying and conceptualising the dependent, independent and moderating variables and graphically depicting the relationships that exist between them. The most applicable theories adopted for the study are discussed in the subsequent sub-sections.

2.2.1 The Social Exchange Theory

Perceived organisational support derives from Social Exchange Theory (SET) developed by Blau (1964). Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) were the first to use SET to explain Perceived organisational support. SET has attracted great attention because it has been used to explain and understand employee behaviour, especially when people seek to receive economic value for services rendered. Furthermore, SET uses several interactions and relationships that exist between staff and employers, which are guided by the principles of reciprocity and negotiated rules. Thus, both parties have duties and responsibilities expected from each other in the workplace. However, a workplace relationship begins when contractual obligations had been entered into voluntarily by the two parties: the employer and the employee (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This theory supports organisational reward variable by explaining the value or worth each party, the employer, and the employee, has for each other, in exchange for their contributions in the working relationship. Succinctly, the SET fits into this study in such a way that faculty members reciprocate their services (teaching, research, research publications, student assessment, consultancies and community outreach in exchange for monetary rewards (salary, claims, promotion). However, whenever there is a breach in the contractual agreement, both parties suffer by displaying low commitment, with attendant poor service delivery.

2.2.2 Equity Theory

Adams (1965) postulated Equity theory and opines that workers evaluate their association with their organisation by examining the benefits they derive from their employers. This theory was used by Dinc (2015) to explain the process theory of motivation. Associated with the works of Adams (1965), Dinc (2015) reported in his findings, that fairness is associated with job motivation which may have effect on employees' reactions and attitudes in an organisation. Furthermore, staffs assess the bonding or connection between them and their organisation considering their contributions to the organisation and the rewards they obtain in return. Also, rewards are gains an employee receives from their organisation such as compensation,

desirable duties at work, respect, and prominence (Adams, 1965; Dinc, 2015). When employees sense inequality between contributions to their organisations and rewards obtained, it leads to dissatisfaction and unhappiness in the workplace. These diminish their commitment, performance, and contributions to their industry. These lead to discrepancies between efforts and rewards or exit from the job.

Equity theory depends on three basic assumptions: individuals are guided by a moral system that fair distribution of reward is fundamental; staff expect fair and just or equitable returns on their jobs contributions and beliefs that staff who perceive themselves in inequitable conditions, seek to reduce inequity (Bigirimana et al., 2016). Equity theory supports both organisational rewards and distributive justice variables. This is so because the theory explains the issue of fairness in allocating incentives and due benefits to staff and also ensures that the process of distribution is fair.

2.2.3 Procedural Justice Theory

Greenberg (1990) suggests that organisational justice theory focuses on fairness as it relates to the work environment. The organisational justice construct is conceptualised to have three major dimensions, namely: procedural justice, distributive justice, and interactional (relational) justice. Procedural justice focuses on the impartiality of the methods used to achieve the outcomes or the impartiality of the processes that relate to how decisions are made. Impartiality in the procedure and impartiality in the interpersonal treatment of staff tend to build trust and enhance closer and more open relationships among stakeholders (Nwibere, 2014; Ngugi, 2012). This also produces obligations for the successor as well as those candidates who are not selected for the job to remain loyal and dedicated to the organisation (Ngugi, 2012).

Furthermore, Ngugi (2012) indicates that Procedural justice theory affects an employee's recognition of impartiality in two different ways: by giving an individual result control and method control. Decision control involves the degree to which individuals have actual influence over the decision made. Process control involves the degree a procedure gives those affected by a decision an opportunity to express

their views or provide inputs on how decisions should be made. This enables them to have an indirect means of decision control. Fairness in the decision that relates to the distribution of rewards and other organisational favours is identified as distributive justice (Nwibere, 2014). Procedural justice theory supports the organisational justice variable by explaining the methods and manner in which issues that affect workers in the workplace are managed for each employee without injustices of any kind. This theory is adopted to fit into this study in explaining how organisational rewards, such as promotion, approval of annual leave and number of leave days, and a nomination for staff training, are fairly processed and distributed among academic employees.

2.2.4 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959) opines that workers are driven by inner values rather than extraneous values derived from their job. Motivation is internally generated and is propelled by variables that are intrinsic to the work, which are referred to as satisfiers, which are: growth, challenging work, responsibility, achievement, progression, and acknowledgement. The hygiene factors are extraneous factors present in the workplace to make staff delighted. However, the dissatisfiers are incentives, work-fellow relationships, management styles, company plan of action, and work environment (Ng'ethe, 2013).

This is plausible because the theory succinctly clarifies the role supervisor's management style could either influence positively or negatively employees' commitment. A Head of a department or a Chair that is autocratic and does not have concern for his team members (academic employees) or refuses to share useful information, or marginalises his or her team members, and faculty, such negative managerial style would likely impact negatively on the effectiveness of his or her members in the department. In addition, the assumption also utilises fiscal and non-monetary compensation packages to increase what could impact employees' effectiveness and stance in the workplace. Once the compensation is exhausted, the effectiveness of employees too may likely nosedive.

Since the study is examining perceived organisational support (organisational commitment from the employer's perspective) and considering the independent and

dependent variables, it is obvious that the selected theories are relevant in expounding and adding value to the study. Supervisor's support variable and also can be employed as an organisational reward variable in the organisation adopt Herzberg's Two-Factor theory.

2.2.5 Handy and Harrison's Theories of Culture

Organisational culture typology theories were developed by both Handy (1993) and Harrison (1993), cited in (Acquah, Seshie, & Zogbator, 2015, p. 373; Cacciattolo, 2014, p. 2 – 3). The four typologies of culture theories explained in this section are adopted to drive the moderating variable. This is a role culture: which is based on the work and its job description. It depends on the rules and regulations outlined in the job description, which is more important than the person occupying the position. It is coordinated from the top by senior management. Also, authorities are delegated with a highly rigid structure. This organisational role-dominant culture, forms hierarchical bureaucracies, with power derived from personal position and not from an expert power. Control is exercised through regulations, strict roles description, and authority structures (Acquah et al., 2015; Cacciattolo, 2014); b) achievement culture: according to Acquah et al. (2015) and Cacciattolo (2014) is similar to work arrangements that are around teams and not individuals.

This organisation type is characterised by high internal motivation and maximum utilisation of members' talent, which positively affect organisation performance; c) power culture: in power culture environments, the most senior employee controls everything and the subordinates are dependent on him or her for directives. It is characterised by the rule of fear and abuse of power for the leader's advantage, leading to nepotism, favouritism, and tribalism (Acquah et al., 2015; Cacciattolo, 2014); and d) support culture: is based on mutual trust and respect between individual personnel and the organisation. It is characterised by individuals positively influencing each other through examples, assisting others, and demonstrating cordial in-house communication and integration, with high levels of engagement and cooperation to decisions. It leads to a conducive work environment that enables

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proactive innovation and openness to change (Acquah et al., 2015; Cacciattolo, 2014).

2.3 Conceptual Framework

According to Salawu, Aina-Obe, and Masibo (2023), a conceptual framework is a visual or linear representation of the proportion or association linking variables in a study. It helps the researcher to view the connectivity between variables easily and swiftly. It is obtained from the theoretical literature review. The connection between the variables (dependent, independent, and moderating variables for this study is shown in the conceptual framework in Figure 2.1. The dependent variable is perceived organisational support (working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisor support). Academic employee commitment is the dependent variable, and organisational culture is the moderating variable.

Working Conditions

- Employment contract
- Office infrastructure
- Research tools

Organisational Rewards

- Intrinsic rewards
- Extrinsic rewards
- Contingent rewards

Organisational Justice

- Procedural justice
- Distributive justice
- Interactive justice

Supervisor's Support

- Leadership style
- Workload distribution
- Performance management contract

Organisational Culture

- Power culture
- Achievement culture
- Support culture

Academic Employee Commitment

- Affective commitment
- Continuous commitment
- Normative commitment

Independent Variables   **Moderating Variable**   **Dependent Variable**

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

2.4 Review of Related Literature

2.4.1 Working Conditions

The ways organisations demonstrate their commitment to their workers, include: providing conducive working conditions and infrastructure, fairness, an opportunity for advancement, supervisors' support, and co-workers' support (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015). Robbins and Judge (2013) indicate employees view their organisations as supporting when rewards are impartial, participating in decision-making, and gain supervisors assistance. Dinc (2015) suggests that workers' realisation of their organisation's responsibility to them as POS. This leads to better employee behaviour. Employees, generally, perform their duties under certain work conditions, either in the service industry or manufacturing organisations. The Tertiary education work environment is a micro-organisational system that is part of a larger society. It consists of myriads' of interpersonal, academic, socio-economic, political, and employment relationships (Oludeyi, 2015).

The diverse nature of the different personnel in the academic workplace accounts for the differences in their actions, reactions, and interactions. Thus, the University environment results in levels of commitment within any period. Hence, poor commitment is a sign of institutional failure. To achieve success, employees' commitment and satisfaction in academic and research institutions at different levels, need enhancement. For ease of reference, empirical research is scarce on workers' commitment in the University work setting (Oludeyi, 2015). This inquiry probed, together with other objectives, the importance of working conditions on academic employee effectiveness. Working conditions according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) have a great effect on staff in the educational organisation (Bigirimana et al., 2016). Working conditions in the context of this study include the physical and psychological well-being of personnel that is not restricted to remuneration. They include the availability of office space, availability of equipment for teaching and learning (overhead projector, class venue to accommodate the number of allocated students), employment contract, availability of tools for research, and workplace safety. Others comprise the provision of support services

(favourable or unfavourable conditions of work), methods of recruitment, placement, and career advancement. Working conditions refer to work environments that enhance the efficient performance of job tasks by employees.

Bigirimana et al. (2016) used the impact of working conditions on academic employees to determine poor working conditions, staff exiting their organisations in droves, and reduced levels of commitment. The working conditions studied, include perceived organisational support, academic freedom, opportunity and support for research activities, workload, and the psychological contract. Additionally, working conditions depend on the interaction of staff with their organisational climate. Oludeyi (2015) explains work as a construct of the relationship between individual staff at work and their work environment. These include settings, situations, and circumstances where persons perform their job tasks. It also comprises the physical setting, job characteristics, and aspects of organisational setting. It can compose the technical, human, and organisational environment. Work environments can directly impact levels of innovation, absenteeism, and retention rate, which are functions of employees' commitment.

Arguably, the manipulation of the following factors could result in toxic or conducive workplaces: opaque management (unclear visions, missions, and goals); bosses (different kinds of bosses); company policies; working conditions (noise, heat, unsafe work conditions, insufficient resources, obsolete technologies); interpersonal relationships (unhealthy politicking, mistrust, uncooperative workforce), and pay (below the market rate), (Oludeyi, 2015).

Furthermore, faculty members in HEIs confront waning working conditions that may decrease their levels of commitment (Daweti, Khumalo & Ngo-Henha, 2024). The study used a cross-sectional survey to examine how social interactions at work affect academic employee commitment in under-resourced public universities in South Africa. The results show that faculty members were willing to remain dedicated despite poor working conditions because of regular social interactions. Adeniji, Adelana and Ogunsile (2022) indicate that University staff job commitment is a function of appropriate work conditions and a conducive work environment. They

used academic and non-academic employees for the study. Pimpong (2023) suggests that organisations rapidly realise that to thrive in a constantly changing market environment, they must develop distinctive dynamic features that ensure their competitive advantages. He used Emerson's Social Exchange Theory to show that support from managers fosters employee confidence, which raises motivation to work and increases commitment and productivity.

2.4.2 Organisational Rewards

Academics in the University are strategic resources for the institution's accomplishment. Lecturers comprise a vast proportion of the cost allocation in HEIs and accordingly, perform important functions in the fulfilment of the Institutional set vision, mission, and goals. The intensifying developments and the perplexing competitive University work setting have revolutionised HEIs governance systems, structures, and strategies that assure sharpened dominance in the economy. Accordingly, several HEIs are realigning their compensation packages to interest, galvanise, and maintain invaluable employees that facilitate the formation and realisation of competitive superiority (Bayissa & Zewdie, 2010).

A reward is anything an employer is willing to offer in return for the services rendered by the employee. Inappropriate and poor rewards provided to staff can lead to unpleasant work attitudes and behaviour. These reduce employee efforts, leading to lower levels of commitment and withdrawal, which negatively impact the organisation, in the immediate, short, or longer terms. Rewards also sustain and create commitment among staff for good performance. Thus, employees' quality output depends on good reward systems that offer extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Both rewards whether tangible or intangible can be employed to enhance positive performance from staff (Ibrar & Khan, 2015).

In strategy execution, the reward system is critical. Hence, HEIs use their reward systems to measure the progress of strategy execution. Commitment to strategy improves by realigning the rewards system with the planned strategy. Thus, performance-based reward systems enable staff to know what is important, and what is valued and recognised in an organisation that serves as a motivation for people to

engage in the process (Siam, Hilman & Basri, 2015). Rewards symbolise the expectations of workers for the job executed and it also extends to other working conditions (Obicci, 2015). Contingent reward according to Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick (2002) is a performance-based incentive. Staffs respond positively to supervisors who administer rewards based on their productivity (Wayne et al., 2002).

Pee et al. (2022) examined the relationship between rewards (monetary and non-monetary) and organisational commitment. They also show a significant positive relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and organisational commitment. While employees' demographic characteristics influence organisational commitment, gender and the number of times employees have changed jobs do not. Furthermore, they indicate that it is becoming a challenge for organisations to cultivate and create loyalty among small and medium enterprise employees in Malaysia. However, the sense of achievement derived from accomplished tasks forms self-generated psychological rewards that affect employees' commitment. More challenging working environments and leadership roles can be more fulfilling measures of higher commitment and more opportunities and responsibilities. Career advancement opportunities and appropriate salary structures benchmarked with international standards, bonuses, fringe benefits, and promotions can lead to employee retention (Pee et al., 2022). Ayeni et al. (2022) examined the effect of the reward system on employees' commitment to Landmark University in Nigeria. They suggest that workers who enjoy great support from their colleagues are hardworking, find their workplace friendly, and are committed to remaining at the University. Somoye and Eyupoglu (2020) examined how organisations employ rewards to influence organisational commitment in the public service sector. They used performance evaluation criteria (PEC) to determine how effective and impartial organisations reward their employees. They show that corporate financial reward management practices significantly influence organisational commitment. Odunayo (2022) suggests that organisations success depends on the creativity, motivation, and commitment of its workforce. Organisational reward system depends on the kinds of rewards adopted and implemented by the employer. The benefits system comprises additional, optional, non-wage incentives offered to workers upon their wages or salaries to drive organisational commitment. Din, Shahani, and Baloch (2021)

investigated the impact of extrinsic and intrinsic reward systems on employees' motivation to work in manufacturing in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). They show that supervisors have difficulties sustaining and retaining their committed workforce.

Mazher (2022) shows that academic staff at public universities are less motivated than private universities because of inadequate rewards. The increased demand for education and its attendant challenges are the direct results of the United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation's (UNESCO) aim of education for all. Overcrowding lecture halls and theatres at several public and private universities due to the staggering rise in enrolment without the corresponding increase in infrastructural facilities and other resources. In sum, the academic staff of public universities in Nigeria suffers from a nominal work ethic and organisational commitment, negatively impacting their work performance. The academic staff is unable to fulfill their duties because of the absence of adequate socio-psychological and motivational support, rewards not commensurate with the services rendered lead to lower quality service delivery, and seeking alternative sources to earn extra income. A large number of students in courses have made university lecturers to be overworked, overstressed, and underpaid leading to lack of dedication, poor supervision of students' projects, and sub-par quality education delivery (Mazher, 2022). Okolie and Egbon (2024) indicate that employees will be dedicated and willing to stay longer in an institution that provides a better reward system and more efficient reward system that is constantly adjusted and consistently evaluated for higher standards, boosts employee satisfaction, and a sense of competence and independence to cater employee commitment and motivation. Dube and Ndofirepi (2023) used demographic characteristics to examine academic staff commitment to work imbalance and personal life and show that maintaining dedicated employees is a necessary goal for every organisation. HEIs need to understand the core elements that influence various levels of organisational commitment before they design appropriate human resource management policies and practices at the workplace and for the workforce. Awino and Korir (2020) examined the moderating effect of rewards on career training and employee commitment in some manufacturing firms in Kenya. Fredrick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Greenhaus Career Development Five-Stage model, and Controlled Commitment Continuum underpinned the study.

They also show that career training and appropriate reward systems positively and substantially influence employee commitment.

2.4.3 Organisational Justice

Many factors affect employees' commitment to the organisation they work with. One of these is organisational justice perception, in which employee assesses management's actions and behaviours towards them as fair, moral, and realistic (Turgut, Tokmak, & Gucels, 2012). Organisational justice is the way employees feel about how fairly they have been treated in the workplace (Nwibere, 2014). It explains the importance of fairness in the work environment. Organisational justice centres on workplace fairness which affects or impacts various organisational and individual work-related elements like leadership, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, and other organisational-related behaviours (Malik & Naeem, 2011). The three aspects of organisational justice have been established: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional (interactive) justice (Nwibere, 2014; Turgut et al, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2011). Distributive Justice: this is the justice that the employees perceive by evaluating their efforts and the rewards associated with the commitment made in comparison with other personnel within the organisation (Nwibere, 2014; Turgut et al., 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2012).

Procedural Justice implies personnel in organisations are concerned about the form, processes, or steps on how decisions are made that concern them (O'Callaghan, 2024; Turgut, Tokmak, & Gucels, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2011). Dinc (2015) interrogated the connection between systematised justice and organisational effectiveness and discovered that there was a limited number of studies on this subject matter. Interactive Justice refers to justice that focuses on interpersonal relationships, behaviours among employees, and the fairness of communication within organisations (Tafameh, 2019; Nwibere, 2014; Turgut et al, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2011).

Ojeleye, Falola, Iroanusi, and Abdullahi (2022) used organisational trust among academic employees to achieve planned organisational goals and objectives that ensure the institution's management decisions affecting employees are fair and

equitable. They show that distributive and procedural justice significantly and positively impacts employee commitment. They also report that over eighty-five percent of the workers in Nigeria are not committed to their organisations. The commitment crisis in Nigeria is characterised by high absenteeism, corruption, lackadaisical attitude, bullying, ostracism, and audacity, which are counterproductive behaviours that have culminated in poor employee commitment. The above antecedents have resulted from meagre funding, dilapidated infrastructure, labour strikes, diminishing teaching and research standards, injustices, poor working conditions, and non-compliance with mutual agreements between their employers and academic staff unions of public universities. Supriya and Dadhabhai (2020) examined how organisational justice impacted academic employees working in private engineering colleges in India. They indicate that the service sector focuses on employee commitment to raise their allegiance to organisational goals. Also, they observed that interactional and procedural justice have a stronger relationship than distributive justice in achieving institutional commitment.

2.4.4 Supervisor's Support

Supervisors in the context of this study refer to the Heads of Departments, Deans of Schools or Faculties, Deputy Vice Chancellors-Academic, and any other academic personnel coordinating academic affairs (lecturers). Also, social support among the workforce plays a very critical role in the general output of organisations. This is so because it enhances the psychological, physical, and general well-being of personnel. Social support can either be from colleagues, senior colleagues, and immediate supervisors. It has been shown to enhance organisational effectiveness by positively impacting employees' job enjoyment and organisational engagement and adversely on absence and labour contraction (Bashir & Long, 2015).

A study interested in the role of social approval on engagement showed a significant connection between assistance for training from senior employees and affiliate, continuation, and normalising engagements. A resembling study suggests that perceived supervisor's support had a positive connection with anticipated organisational support. This indicates that supervisors' assistance could lessen

turnover rates in organisations. Also, supervisor's help did not directly impact on normalising and continuation commitment but had a considerable and direct effect on affiliate commitment. Further, emotional bonding with supervisors by employees positively influences the three components of organisational commitment (Bashir & Long 2015). Those in higher education leadership positions such as Heads of Departments and Deans should find it important to understand shifting demographics, new technologies, and the commercialisation of higher education.

Asif, Li, Hussain, Jameel, and Hu (2023) used perceived employee support to discern how supervisors value employees' contributions and cater to their well-being. They indicate that a substantial positive association exists between perceived supervisor support and perceived organisational support. Kamil, Pariwita, and Wolor (2021) examined supervisors' support and work-life balance on organisational commitment using job satisfaction as an intervening variable or moderator. They show a substantial positive correlation between supervisors' support and organisational commitment. De Vries, Knies, and Leisink (2022) examined the processes that contribute to horizontal and vertical shared perceptions of supervisors support by frontline supervisors. They show that instead of merely examining the correlations of shared perceptions, scrutinising the processes that contribute to horizontal and vertical perceptions raises our understanding of these complex phenomena. Amoo and Adam (2022) explored what antecedents of engagement drive Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) college lecturers to improve engagement with their institutions. They show supervisors' support, performance feedback, and appropriate workload allocation are significant indicators of job and organisational engagement among TVET lecturers. They recommend top management involvement in creating strategic interventions that enable more lecturers to be better productively engaged with their jobs and organisations. Saleem, Malik, and Qasim (2022) used supervisors' social support to impact self-efficacy on employee performance from office de-clutter. They show that supervisors' cordial support and personal effectiveness positively and substantially enhance employee performance. Kim and Oh (2023) examined the interconnection between transactional and transformational leadership of public officials as they relate to organisational employee commitment.

Upon closer scrutiny, these leadership styles occupy both extremes of a continuum and can combine for greater organisational effectiveness.

2.4.5 Employee Commitment

Commitment as a construct, from organisational behaviour literature, is defined as a high-level subconscious (psychological) and social bond to someone or something in a social activity. It consists of presumptions of personal benefits, elements of personal character, and investments of devotion and dedication (Liou, 2008). Organisational commitment (OC) has several theoretical definitions. According to Liou (2008), OC mirrors a person's persistence in making the sacrifice for the success of the organisation. Its preoccupation with the organisation is the person's devotion of time to organisational activities. It entails a thinking and acknowledgment of the ideals and principles of the organisation. It is the readiness to apply work in favour of the organisation and a clear desire to continue membership in the organisation.

The concept of engagement in the organisation is one of the most subtle, demanding, and misinterpreted research concepts in the fields of governance, organisational behaviour, and human resources. This is so because it has assumed a significant role in the relationship between organisations and individuals since the 1970s (Dinc, 2015). The organisational commitment construct has attracted much attention in organisational behaviour research, with the belief that commitment is reciprocal between the employee or labour, and the organisation he or she works for or with. This is not new in the literature (Dinc, 2015). This opinion is also supported by the Side Bets Theory (Shore & Tetrick, 1991), and Social Exchange Theory (Dinc, 2015).

Jahan, Huynh, and Mass (2022) see employee commitment as an affinity between the personnel and the employer. Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014) indicate that organisational engagement is the opinion of loyalty the employee has towards the employing organisation with the aim to continue with the employer. In addition, the three appearances of organisational engagement (Jahan, Huynh, & Mass, 2022; Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014) include affective (emotional connection to the

organisation), continuance (realistic reasoning of the costs of staying against separation from the organisation), and normative (logic of moral duty to continue with the organisation). They opine that effectively engaged employees continue to work with great dedication and feel obliged to continue in the organisation (Oludeyi, 2015; Alvi, Hanif, Adil, Ahmed & Vveinhardt, 2014; Ghorbanhosseini, 2013; Khan, Khan, Khan, Nawaz & Bakht Yar, 2013).

Oludeyi (2015) contends that job engagement concerns the mind more than environmental factors of the workplace. It consists of employees' link with the organisation that has suggestions to stay or leave the organisation. Job engagement covers attitudes toward the organisation that connects each employee to the organisation. This procedure makes the aims of each employee increasingly unified with that of the organisation. Job engagement has three mechanisms: employees' willingness to apply efforts in favour of the organisation, workers' recognition of organisational ideals and principles, and workers' desires to continue with the organisation. Other researchers have categorised commitment as organisational membership, the current position of the individual employee, the predictive potential of employees, and the differential relevance of motivational factors (Oludeyi, 2015).

Lee and Chen (2013) define organisational engagement as the power of an individual's acceptance, loyalty, and psychosocial connection to the organisation's princiles. Susanty and Miradipta (2013) indicate it evaluates employees' loyalty, willingness to work with determination, and enthusiasm to continue with the employer. Job commitment cannot be fully defined without reference to the work of Meyer and Allen, as cited by Oludeyi (2015) and it is defined as the drive that connects an individual to a course of action relevant to one or more targets on the job. Workers are believed to demonstrate this commitment in three basic ways that play a role in shaping behaviour: affective, continuance, and normative (Wilkins, Butt, & Annabi, 2017). Organisational commitment has been the subject matter of organisational research for over three decades (Fisher, Boyle & Fulop, 2010).

Wilkins, Butt, and Annabi, (2017); Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014) view commitment in three distinctive levels: (a) an affection between an employee and the organisation

(affective commitment); (b) anticipated costs connected with separation from the organisation (continuation commitment); and (c) an obligation to continue a member of the organisation (normalising commitment). These themes culminate in behavioural and attitudinal components of commitment, regardless of whether it is individual or organisational commitment. Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014) explain the three-piece model of commitment in terms of organisational engagement cultivated together as three attitudes of intuition, normalising, and continuation organisational commitment.

Belay (2023) indicates organisational employee commitment, perceived autonomy, reward, recognition, and supportive leadership behaviour derive from a descriptive survey research design in an Ethiopian telecommunications company (Ethiotelecom). Priyanka (2022) indicates that organisational commitment derives from better identification, involvement, and loyalty among medical professionals by increasing their job satisfaction and quality of work-life balance. Winarsih (2022) views affective commitment from personal experiences, personal characteristics, structural or organisational features, and job-related characteristics or work experiences. Also, equity in rewarding employees in line with performance enhances and boosts affective commitment. Pee, Chung, and Al-Khaled (2022) suggest that organisational commitment is a pointer to employees' attitudes and loyalty towards their organisations. They indicate that affectively committed employees are attached to the organisation. In contrast, the continually committed employees fear losing and worry that they will lose more if they resign resulting in loss of income, status, or even friendship. Normatively committed employees have a sense of obligation to the employer, particularly when employers invest heavily in them by sending them for training or paying for their education.

2.4.6 Organisational Culture

Several authors have defined organisational culture as commonly shared values and general patterns of behaviour among members of an organisation (Jahan, Huynh, & Mass, 2022; Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2018; Ghorbanhosseini, 2013). These include organisational goals, values, and socialisation with the outside business

environment (Alvi, Hanif, Adil, Ahmed, & Vveinhardt, 2014). Others comprise the way things are done (Azadi, Farsani, Farsani & Aroufzad, 2013). Generally, culture in organisations, is considered the cardinal point of competition (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2018). In management literature, the culture of organisations tends to influence employee satisfaction, employee commitment, and performance (Wambui & Gichanga, 2018). Similarly, employee engagement has a direct connection with strong corporate cultures and high employee commitment.

Vieira-dos Santos and Gonclaves (2018) define organisational culture as the process and practice of how organisations conduct their affairs. Specifically, Irfan and Marzuki (2018) define the organisational culture of a University as the patterns of acceptable behaviour and values that govern academic management. However, the role of organisational culture as a mediator between work motivation and work commitment has not been deeply researched (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2018). According to Koech and Were (2016); Aina, Adeyeye, and Ige (2012), organisational culture is a combination of beliefs, values, traditions, and patterns of doing things, which differs from one organisation to another. It is also a system of shared common values among employees. This is a major reason for the researcher's intention to undertake this study, in addition to other literature gaps identified.

Krajcsak (2018) explained the theoretical framework of culture-commitment relationship based on individual characteristics. Other authors detected seven dominant attributes of organisational culture, specifically: aggressiveness, attention to detail, innovation and risk-taking, outcome orientation, people orientation, stability, and team orientation. The characteristics exercise a continuation from modest to lofty heights. Four categories of organisational culture were identified as the power dimension (examines organisational culture based on inequality); role dimension (on the job description and specialisation); achievement dimension (task culture which involves focusing on the realisation of organisational goals); and support dimension (organisational environment that is dependent on shared responsibility between the individual and the organisation (Aina et al., 2012).

Okpimah (2022) used corporate culture to examine employee performance of selected banks in Warri, Delta State, Nigeria. He shows that power distance positively influences employee motivation, performance, and organisational commitment. Further, organisational culture is adaptable to sustain continual development, enhance employees' performance, and increase quality consciousness. Pomyalova, Volkova, and Kalinina (2020) identified how organisational culture contributes to students' commitment to the University. They show that clan culture using identification positively influences organisational commitment while market and hierarchy sub-cultures negatively impact organisational commitment. Rita (2022) indicates that organisational culture is driven by hierarchy, and each aspect has assigned weights and preferences. Organisational culture is an intricate concept whose definitions are author and organisation specific. It is by building consensus identity, commitment, diversity, presence, prestige, purpose, and impact. Syarifin and Atmaja (2023) indicate a supportive organisational culture contributes to individual goals achievement, adaptation, enhanced employee performance, employee psychological attachment, identity, loyalty, competitive edge, continuous improvement, quality services and products, sense of unity, and positive attitude towards the success of the organisation. Abiona et al. (2023) used leadership, norms and values, and workload to examine the influence of organisational culture on employee commitment. They suggest leadership culture, norms and values, and clear communication were the dominant organisational cultures in the Federal Colleges of Agriculture in Southwest Nigeria. Jigjiddorj, Zanabazar, Jambal, and Semjid (2021) examined the effect of organisational culture on job satisfaction and organisational commitment in an insurance company. They suggest that organisational culture raises job satisfaction, employee commitment, and willingness to remain with the organisation. Darko, Adu-Oppong, and Aikins (2018) used adhocracy culture, clan culture, hierarchical culture, and market culture to explore the impact of organisational culture on the commitment to excellence of management support staff at the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. They show that only hierarchical culture indicates a substantial predictor of management staff support service excellence in Ghana.

Ghumiem, Alawi, Al-Refaei, and Masaud (2023) examined the corporate culture of the energy sector of Libya on organisation performance using the structural equation modelling approach. They indicate that corporate culture substantially enhances organisational effectiveness, performance, growth, and profitability. Demisse and Egziabher (2022) analysed respondents' perceptions of organisational culture in HEIs using qualitative and quantitative methods. They show that though a hierarchical culture is dominant, respondents expected to experience clan culture in the University that emphasises family ties, good neighbourliness, and love in the academy. Ngao (2023) examined the impact of organisational culture on employee commitment among private universities in Nairobi, Kenya. He shows that bureaucratic culture substantially and positively correlates with adhocracy culture, clan culture, and employee commitment. Yngson and Paulino (2023) studied the impact of organisational culture on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. They suggest organisational culture is crucial to employee commitment and job satisfaction but may not enhance employee productivity or performance.

2.5 Empirical Review

This section systematically presented an exploration of relevant, and preceding scholarly studies related to the study under analysis. The study reviewed related and relevant empirical literature based on the research objectives, the hypotheses and the variables collectively. These are categorised under the independent variables which are, namely: working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice and supervisor's support. The dependent variable is mainly the employee commitment in three aspects: emotional, continuation, and normalising commitments; while the moderating variable is identified as organisational culture.

2.5.1 Working Conditions

In the context of this study, working conditions refer to the physical work environment of work provided by the employer and also other contractual work conditions and also relationship conditions that take place among the employees.

A study conducted by Coskuner et al. (2018) in Ankara, Turkey, on the moderating power of recognised organisational approval on the linkage betwixt encircling and organisational labelling used a representative sample design with data obtained from academic and non-academic staff in an HEI. Perceived organisational support positively correlated with organisational identification (affective commitment). When an employer's environment is toxic, negative behaviour permeates the organisation and impacts employee's commitment. Bigirimana et al. (2016) conducted a study on the impact of working conditions on academic employees and deduced that when working conditions are poor, personnel easily leave their organisations. The parameters considered include perceived organisational support, academic freedom, opportunity and support for research activities, workload, and the psychological contract. Although working conditions in the context of the study included the physical and psychological well-being of personnel, it was not restricted to remuneration.

Thus, working conditions included the availability of office space, availability of equipment for teaching and learning (overhead projector, class venue to accommodate the number of allocated students), employment contract, availability of tools for research, workplace safety, and provision of support services. Others comprise favourable or unfavourable conditions of work, methods of recruitment and placement, and career advancement. Also, working conditions could be work environments that enhance the efficient performance of job tasks by the employees (Bigirimana et al., 2016).

Zabrodska, Mudrak, Kveton, Blatny, Machovcova, and Solcova (2014) conducted a study on the work environment and its influence on the welfare of Academic Faculty in Czech Universities in the framework of University governance. The work environment indicators employed were autonomy, involvement in decision-making, low pressure to produce, and strong social community. Accordingly, the work environment variables like autonomy, participation in decision-making, strong community outreach, and low pressure for results positively influenced employees' well-being and commitment. Also, negative emotions like stress and burnout were linked to a negative work environment (Zabrodska et al., 2014).

The study conducted by Giorgi et al. (2016) in Italy, reported that employees executing their work under un-conducive work conditions, such as poor work-life balance and stressful environment of work, were on the increase. This negatively impacted their general welfare. Additionally, the study examined a blend of working conditions and other organisational indicators that enhance workers' perceptions of organisational support. Conclusively, it was revealed that employees who recognise that their organisation is assisting show higher accomplishment, proactive behaviours, and commitment. In other words, perceived organisation support has a strong connection with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and only a moderate influence on employee performance.

Wainaina (2015) opines that organisational commitment is significant to both researchers and organisations because of the necessity to obtain and retain a quality and talented workforce. This study reveals that employees in the University work environment are either employed full-time, or part-time, on a permanent or non-permanent basis (contractual basis). This study found that there was a strong positive linear relationship between employment terms and organisational commitment.

2.5.2 Organisational Rewards

Organisational rewards in the context of this study refer to monetary and non-monetary compensation and benefits offered by the employer to the employee for services or jobs rendered.

Mabaso (2017) opines that employee rewards are an important component in exchange for employee contribution. It is generally accepted that employee rewards play significant roles in attracting, motivating, satisfying, sustaining, and maintaining commitment among staff in any organisation. They ensure a high standard of performance and workforce stability. Essentially, it is understood that reward systems in higher education institutions are faulty because they do not provide individual personnel with appropriate incentives that they value (Mabaso, 2017; Ng'ethe, 2013). Obicci (2015) found that a combination of external and innate motivation evidences a devoted workforce. Compensation is fundamental to employees' efficiency and also strengthens the obligation of employees in the

organisation (Ng'ethe, 2013). Although rewards symbolise the expectations of workers for jobs executed, they may also extend to other working conditions (Obicci, 2015). Hygienic (extrinsic) rewards are extraneous factors that propel workers to perform in manners that affect their behaviour on the job (Obicci, 2015; Ng'ethe, 2013).

Hygienic factors can be in the form of monetary value, elevation, supervisor's style of leadership, job security, and support from the leader. Ibrar and Khan (2015) investigated the effect of rewards on employee performance, using a case study of Malakand Private School in Pakistan. Rewards are special determinants of organisational success. Good rewards improve employee commitment to their work and the organisation. An employee who works in the school environment desires to secure both monetary and non-monetary incentives, such as working on a project and gaining support, and recognition from their managers, or heads of department. They also indicate staff having different needs that may not be satisfied equally, using the same types of rewards. This is so because some would prefer cash, while others may desire a house, go on holidays, or choose non-monetary rewards. Further, the public sector workforce mostly desires extrinsic incentives like higher pay than intrinsic rewards, when compared with those in the private sector. However, workforce commitment depends on rewards and recognition that contribute to the organisation's success (Ibrar & Khan, 2015).

Intrinsic rewards are (non-financial) psychological incentives personnel receive for performing their jobs well. It is an internal emotional feeling of satisfaction, growth, autonomy, and competencies staff encounter in the course of their careers. It varies from achievement, challenging responsibilities, professional growth, and status recognition, to praise from supervisors and co-workers, for quality jobs (Obicci, 2015). Employees feel committed when they obtain intrinsic rewards, which also enhances job satisfaction and motivation. Rewards do not necessarily have to be expensive to show sincere appreciation. Lack of commitment is a result of bad or poor human resource practices (Bari, Arif & Shoaib, 2013). Rewards represent either economic or psychological benefits given to staff by their employers (Obicci, 2015).

Contingent rewards are rewards based on employee performance (Zhu, Liu, Zhang, & Wang, 2023; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Employees respond positively to supervisors who administer incentives based on performance. According to Young, Glerum, McCord and Joseph (2020), the contingent reward system is a motivation-based system utilised to reward those who accomplish identified goals. The contingent reward provides positive reinforcement for a job well done. This reinforcement measurement encourages staff to effectively complete their tasks and meet their goals in a professional and timely fashion. Unlike annual performance reviews and evaluations, the contingent reward system provides more frequent assessments of the personnel work with applicable rewards when qualified.

For the reward to be effective, the reward options in this motivation system must be of interest to the worker. If the rewards do not capture the attention of the employees, the rewards will not provide effective motivation. Incentives such as free memberships, trips, paid vacation days, and even free lunches are effective reward factors when introduced properly. Since the contingent reward system is positive reinforcement, it must encourage the overall desired behaviour, not only should the employee meet the immediate goal, he should uphold and maintain the company's metrics of the desired behaviour (Young et al., 2020). The reward system should be clearly outlined to ensure that all employees understand what is required to qualify to be effective. Although the contingent reward system must be structured to be effective, the system must also be individualised and user-friendly to capture the interest of the staff (Young et al., 2020). Contingent reward systems are best executed under a contingent reward leadership style, where leaders and managers focus on enhancing performance management while reinforcing positive behaviours. These leaders select quality staff and empower the staff to take control of their tasks responsibly while the staff are expected to meet quality metrics and adhere to company policy and are periodically rewarded for their excellence (Young et al., 2020).

2.5.3 Organisational Justice

Organisational justice in the context of this study refers to the processes and procedures of allocating resources, workload, rewards, amongst academic employees without prejudice and discrimination. Prescriptors categorised under organisational justice in this research are namely: procedural justice, distributive justice, and interactional justice.

Organisations have concerns about employees' feeling of organisational fairness because of the function it plays in shaping attitudes and workers' work-related behaviour (Komodromos, 2014). The concept of employees' perception of trust and fairness has been in empirical literature for upward of more than twenty-five years. Thus, it has been considered very important in organisations, particularly in the business environment, where there is stiff competition. With the highly competitive global market, organisations cannot succeed and survive without their employees' effort and commitment (Komodromos, 2014). Extensive research has been conducted on employees' perception of organisational justice, which indicates that organisational fairness has both positive and negative impacts on outcomes that are important to both workers and employers. Such outcomes are namely: organisational commitment, cooperative work behaviours, trust, and job satisfaction.

More specifically, prior research in the domain of organisational justice showed that its characteristics correlate negatively to turnover intention but are positively associated with trust, job satisfaction, and commitment to the organisation (Komodromos, 2014). Nwibere (2014) in expounding the concept of organisational justice refers to it, as the insight workers in organisations believe whether they have been fairly treated on issues that relate to them and their job. Organisational justice mainly centres on workplace fairness which affects or impacts various organisational and individual work-related elements such as leadership, organisational commitment turnover intentions, and other organisational-related behaviours (Malik & Naeem, 2011). The authors further describe organisational justice as workers' feelings concerning their care by the employer, whether it is honest, and whether the outcomes of these processes are impartial, or partial. Hassan (2002) identified the

fairness of the outcome factors as salary, salary raises, recognition, incentives, promotion, and fringe benefits. Scholarly evidence on organisational justice and its influence on work-related outcomes such as organisational commitment are important for researchers and business organisations to examine (Malik & Naeem, 2011). However, studies on whether or not fairness perception can enhance lecturers' job satisfaction in Higher Educational Institutions in Pakistan are scanty (Malik & Naeem, 2011). Dinc (2015) also submits that the studies of the relationship between perceived justice and organisational commitment were limited in number. In the empirical literature, researchers believe that justice in the workplace is a fundamental requirement for the effective functioning of organisations and also for the individual well-being within the organisation (Malik & Naeem, 2011).

Fairness, according to Nwibere (2014) has been explained differently by various researchers and it is impacted by the dominant culture of the organisation. Three major justice (fairness) rules that regulate outcomes of justice are the needs rule, the contribution (equity) rule, and the equality rule. The equity rule is merit-based with the concept that is conditional on the assessment that diligent employees earn the highest incentives above others. This is reputed as a merit or equity norm, to achieve high output, and a high dimension of production, or performance (Nwibere, 2014). The needs rule depends on the principle of equal opportunity (egalitarianism). It targets the work force having a comparable proportion of rewards without considering employees' individual work efforts. This is important when the organisation aims to preserve and experience social reconciliation or harmony. The third definition of impartiality is established on the need norm, with the belief that every member of the organisation should receive rewards in proportion to their needs. This principle is employed when the organisation aims to enhance individual interest (Nwibere, 2014).

Earlier scholars have demonstrated the impact of culture on defining fairness. Americans favour the notion of equity, while equality is much more favoured in Nigeria (bandwagon annual promotion policy in the Nigerian Civil Service), many other African countries, and also Asian and Scandinavian countries (Nwibere, 2014). The three aspects of organisational justice have been categorised as distributive

justice, procedural (process) justice, and interactional (interactive) justice (Nwibere, 2014; Turgut, Tokmak, Ismail, Gucel & Cem, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2011). Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice form a critical role in an individual's perception of fairness of treatment, they all form part of the organisational justice construct (Nwibere, 2014). The idea of fairness became more applicable in organisational behaviour research, especially through the work of other scholars like Blau (1964) and Adams (1965).

Distributive justice in the context of this study refers to how resources are apportioned or allocated to respective employees (allocation decision). It is the fairness that employees discern by evaluating their efforts and the incentives associated with the commitment made in comparison with other staff within and outside the organisation (Nwibere, 2014; Turgut, Tokmak, Ismail, Gucel, & Cem, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2012, Hassan, 2002). According to Nwibere (2014), distributive justice refers to impartiality in the decision relating to the distribution of work-related rewards and other organisational favours. Findings from the data analysis show that distributive justice has a significant positive impact on the assessment of organisational citizenship behaviour. These findings can either be attributed to the manner workers may have viewed the continuous and fair distribution of organisational favours as an indication of their organisational commitment to them and would exchange such employer action with complimentary positive work-related attitudes and behaviour.

Nwibere (2014); Turgut et al. (2012); Malik and Naeem (2011), considered distributive justice as an important factor that fosters a company's effectiveness. It is a type of justice that is based on equity theory which focuses on the assessment made by workers about their work outcome in the form of promotion, and salary offered by their organisation in comparison with the exerted efforts. The authors propose a beneficial relationship exists between organisational justice and organisational obligation. A different study by Malik and Naeem (2011) indicates a beneficial and outstanding network between distributive justice and organisational effectiveness, and also a higher level of workers' recognition of distributive justice which tended to raise the level of employees' commitment.

Procedural justice (process decision) implies that personnel in organisations are concerned about the form, processes, or steps how decisions are made that concern them (Nwibere, 2014; Turgut, Tokmak, Ismail, Gucel, & Cem, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2011). Dinc (2015) studied the link between recognised organisational justice and organisational engagement and observed a limited number of studies on this subject matter. Ping, Xin, Yen, Aisy, and Ting (2017) studied organisational commitment among academic employees of Private Universities in Malaysia. They established that recognised organisational endorsement and methodical justice is noticeably compatible with organisational effectiveness. They recommend that administrators, human resource practitioners, and governments focus on recognised organisational approval and procedural justice to improve academic employee commitment thereby increasing the retention rate among the workforce. From the foregoing, workers are not only concerned about the decision made but they are equally bothered about the process which brought about the decision (Turgut et al., (2012). When workers perceive that their employer is fair in the manner of decisions that affect reward distribution and its processes, this will translate into work behaviours of commitment, fairness in everyday function, and fairness in every human relation. It is equally very important to employees in shaping their work-related behaviours and actions, and inactions (Nwibere, 2014).

Interactional or interactive justice focuses on interpersonal relationships, behaviours among employees, and the fairness of communication within organisations (Nwibere, 2014; Turgut, Tokmak & Gucel, 2012; Malik & Naeem, 2011). It further explains the quality of the interpersonal treatment staff receive within their work environment and also the degree to which workers feel respected by their supervisors or employer (Nwibere, 2014). Malika and Naeem (2011) in their study explained that interactional justice is a vital aspect of the workplace environment. This is particularly so because of its link with fair and unfair treatment. Empirical evidence shows that there are two sub-categories of interactional justice, namely: interpersonal justice and informational justice.

2.5.4 Supervisor's Support

Support from the supervisors is the assistance rendered by the Head of Departments, or Chair of departments, in terms of providing prompt or delayed and sufficient and insufficient feedback on employee's work performance, work recognition, and any positive assistance that may either boost job morale and employee commitment or elicit negative. These may come through the supervisor's style of management.

Changing population, recent technologies, the commercialisation of higher education, and changing relationships between higher institutions and governments have made it mandatory for leaders to seek better ways to provide support to their staff (Ng'ethe, 2013). Therefore, leaders and managers in higher education institutions should be equipped with different leadership skills to be effective. This is plausible as Ng'ethe (2013) argues that there are many components of effective leadership in the education sector which include the ability to lead multicultural academic members. Also, leaders should possess critical thinking skills and have the ability to lead by example. Many studies had been conducted on styles of leadership. However, scanty research has been done on examining the influence and relationship between leadership styles with academic employee commitment in organisations (Oludeyi, 2015).

Scholarly literature reviewed by Oludeyi (2015) revealed that management-related constructs such as authoritative, democratic, coercive, and affiliate are correlates of affective work commitment. These are also variable components of leadership. It was evident that employees' commitment in combination with other organisational factors impact employee loyalty on the job and in the organisation. Bad or poor leadership styles demotivate employees' morale and destroy the already built commitment among employees in the organisation. A further empirical study is required to determine the relationships between university-leadership approaches and academic commitment to universities, particularly in the developing world. In a similar study reviewed it was found that there was a significant relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and affective commitment. These findings align with previous research that supervisors who utilise transformational

leadership style, demonstrate an interest in their employees. They value and make their employees feel important, and these employees exhibit more affective commitment to their jobs (Oludeyi, 2015).

In this study, the workload refers to all the responsibilities allocated to lecturers to perform in the tertiary institution's work environment. The workload comprises teaching, research, publication, organising and attending conferences, administration, and community service. It has a link with the processes of allocating workload, whether it is fair or not.

Performance management contract refers to the deliverables expected of the employee by the employers. The employer is represented by the academic managers like Deans and Heads of Departments. Ordinarily, achievement management contract is guided in Institutions by the various Heads of Department and Deans at the inception of each academic session, by which staff will be evaluated, periodically. Performance management of academics should include not only assessments but incentives for good performance and punishment for unsatisfactory performance. Changes in academic management style have been followed by changes in performance management systems (Bigirimana et al., 2016). Obicci (2015) reported the study conducted in Tanzania and found that health workers perceived support from their immediate supervisors and perceived ability to perform positively influenced their commitment.

2.5.5 Employee Commitment

Commitment of employees in the context of this study refers to employees' act of being devoted and loyal to their employer.

Turgut et al. (2012) in their inquiry characterise organisational effectiveness (employee effectiveness) as the general normative pressures that workers bear to fulfill their organisational tasks, psychological interest toward their organisation, and the psychological state that enforces the individual to remain with his or her employer. Jahan, Huynh, and Mass, (2022); Lee and Chen (2013), empirically showed that there are three different dimensions to employee commitment, and are,

specifically; emotional commitment, continuation commitment, and normalising commitment. Affiliate commitment indicates the workers' positive emotional connection, acceptance, and involvement in the organisation's beliefs and principles (Oludeyi, 2015). The stronger the affective commitment demonstrated by the employees, the higher the level of alliance, or connection to the organisation (Dinc, 2015; Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014; Lee & Chen, 2013). Such employees remain loyal to the organisation and such commitment is affective since it is a personal decision to be performed for the organisation (Oludeyi, 2015). Affective responsibility depends on the emotional ties the employee primarily develops with the organisation through positive work experiences. The extent of such connection is determined by the intensity of the good feelings of the individual employee towards his or her organisation.

Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014) define affective commitment as an employee's enthusiastic connection to, labelling with, and engagement in the organisation. Employees with a wholesome emotional effectiveness continue working with the organisation because they desire to do so. Employees who actively agree with the ideals of the organisation choose to continue in the organisation. Rashid, Sambasivan, and Johari (2003) consider emotional engagement of an employee to an organisation as the passionate connection to the ideals and principles of the organisation. Turgut et al. (2012) ascertained in their study that emotional commitment is connected positively to distributive justice and interactive justice.

Continuance commitment (CC) relates the knowledge of the costs connected with disengagement from the organisation (Oludeyi, 2015; Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014). Employees whose main contact to the organisation depends on continuous responsibility last in the organisation. The employee endures in the organisation because he/she has to do so. The fewer possible job alternatives employees have at various organisations, the stronger their continuance commitment to their current organisations (Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014). CC also refers to the commitment that is deduced from socioeconomic factors and is also based on the employee's awareness of the amount it will earn the employee if he or she considers exiting from or remaining in the organisation as an option (Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014; Lee & Chen,

2013). Continuance commitment also occurs when personnel remains with the organisation due to failure to obtain other alternative sources of income elsewhere, such as sticking there for retirement benefits and income (Oludeyi, 2015). Turgut et al. (2012) reported in their study that continuous commitment is affected positively by distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactive justice.

Normative commitment (NC) refers to individuals who commit themselves to remain with an organisation because of feelings of obligation to be loyal to the organisation. Employees with a significant level of normalising engagement understand they work to continue in the organisation (Oludeyi, 2015; Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar 2014). This could demonstrate an internalised standard, cultivated before the employee joined the organisation during family or other socialisation practices, that the employee should be faithful to the organisation. Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014) argue that employees with a strong normative commitment remain with an organisation because of their belief that it is the right and moral thing to do. Turgut et al. (2012) concluded in their study that normative commitment is positively influenced only by interactive justice.

According to Jeet and Sayeeduzzafar (2014); Lee and Chen (2013); Robbins and Judge (2013), normalising engagement is the employees' duty to continue with the organisation for noble or right reasons. Employees with healthy engagement continue because they desire to, while those with substantial continuation obligation last because they wish to, and those with deep normalising obligation stay because they perceive they guarantee to do so (Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014; Lee & Chen, 2013). Normative commitment derives from an individual's sense of duty to the organisation and shows the extent that an employee's ethic and judgment accord with the organisation and because of this belief employees will consider adherence to organisational rules as appropriate (Lee & Chen, 2013). Normative commitment may also develop in a situation where the employer provides tuition fees or provides high training costs to the employee. This makes the employee feel obliged to remain considering the huge investment incurred by the organisation. These three commitment dimensions need further empirical evidence in Higher Educational Institutions, which is one of the reasons for conducting this study.

2.5.6 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture refers to the way employees in the institution behave, and act with each other in performing their tasks. It also refers to their beliefs system of how managers and leaders coordinate the workplace.

The organisational effectiveness literature uses culture to motivate and maximise the value of its intellectual human capital assets. Organisational culture is relevant to both public-sector management and the management of private-sector businesses (Jahan, Huynh & Mass, 2022; Onday, 2016). The Ghanaian Public sector study conducted by Brenyah and Obuobisa-Darko (2018) linked corporate culture and employee engagement (commitment) using a randomly chosen sample of two hundred and sixty-seven (267) employees. The study reports that achievement and supportive cultures were vital to employee commitment while power culture was negatively correlated with employee commitment and engagement. The authors propose that the management of public sector organisations in Ghana, should advance achievement and support cultures, and decrease power culture by placing reduced emphasis on role culture (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2018). They conclude that supportive culture emanates from a sense of commitment and solidarity.

Adams (2017) indicates that organisational culture has an impact on employee commitment. A supportive culture enhances employee's commitment while a bureaucratic organisation negatively impacts employee's commitment. Thus, organisational culture impacts employees' commitment and work effort. It directly influences cultural values, attitudes, and indirectly affects human resource procedures and systems. Therefore, organisational culture enhances organisational commitment development through human resource policies (Adams, 2017).

Another study conducted among Government Higher Institutions in Lagos, Nigeria considered the relationship between Organisational culture and Employee effectiveness, drawing samples from both academic and non-academic employees. The outcomes indicate that substantial interconnections exist between organisational culture and employees' effectiveness in Government Higher Educational Institutions

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in Lagos, Nigeria. According to Aina et al. (2012), the degree of workers'
commitment can be affected either positively or negatively by the existing culture
within the organisation. Every organisation has its own culture, which, if properly
groomed will have a far-reaching effect on the overall employees' commitment
(Aina et al., 2012).

In another study conducted by Acquah et al. (2015) where the authors assessed the
influence of organisational culture on the performance of faculty in private
Universities in Ghana. The results show that all four dimensions of organisational
culture: power dimension (examines organisational culture based on inequality); role
dimension (on job description and specialisation); achievement dimension (task
culture focuses on the realisation of organisational goals); and support dimension
(organisational environment that depends on reciprocal trust between the employee
and the organisation), exist in the University Colleges. Non-faith-based University
Colleges need to decrease their power culture and embrace achievement and
supportive culture while still maintaining the role culture (Acquah et al., 2015). The
analysis of organisational culture can be approached from interpretive and structural
viewpoints. The interpretive perspective indicates that culture is shaped and persists
in the organisational environment while the structural view targets how positions are
structured in the organisations (Cacciattolo, 2014).

2.5.7 Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived organisational support is conceived as the employees' general feelings
regarding how much their organisation appreciates their contributions and takes their
welfare seriously (Bigirimana et al., 2016; Dinc, 2015). Robbins and Judge (2013)
agree that employees recognise their organisations as supporting when rewards are
impartial, involved in decision-making, and supervisors are assisting. Dinc (2015)
suggests that workers' awareness of their organisation's responsibility to them is
called Perceived Organisational Support (POS). This produces the impression of
responsibility to the staff and this leads to better personnel workplace behaviour. Lee
and Chen (2013) suggest organisational commitment as the strength of an
individual's recognition, allegiance, and psychosocial attachment to organisational

values. Susanty and Miradipta (2013) indicate it determines employees' dedication, readiness to work, and to continue with the employer.

Perceived organisational approval is important because it is considered as the organisation's input to an additional quality exchange in compensation for employees' work (Coskuner, Costur, Bayhan-Karapinar, Metin-Camgoz, Ceylan, Demirtas-Zorbaz, Aktas & Ciffiliz, 2018). Perceived organisational approval is also employees' general feelings of how well their organisation appreciates their contributions and their welfare by satisfying their socio-emotional needs (Coskuner et al., 2018; Bigirimana et al, 2016; Dinc, 2015; Afzali, Motahari, & Hatami-Shirkouhi, 2014; Ahmed et al., 2014). This impression of responsibility that is given to personnel leads to better personnel workplace behaviour. Lee and Chen (2013) explain organisational engagement as the power of an individual's acceptance, loyalty, and psychosocial connection to the organisation's principles. Susanty and Miradipta (2013) propose it assesses employees' devotion, skill to work hard, and enthusiasm to continue with the employer.

2.6 Critique of Existing Literature Relevant to the Study

The empirical literature reviewed by the researcher formed the basis of the critique in this section. Different and relevant scholarly journals in the framework of this investigation guided the researcher's critique. A majority of the empirical literature on perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment is mixed-method research that was previously   investigated in developed countries and subsequently replicated in some developing nations, and other related studies are currently being examined. The studies under review employed different methodologies from quantitative, qualitative, and case study research designs using academic and non-academic employees as their respondents. Some researchers conducted their studies with respondents or participants from financial and health sectors, some from secondary schools, and some from other private and public organisations besides HEIs. Here are a few of the critiques of past studies conducted in the area of recognised organisational endorsement and employee effectiveness.

Coskuner et al. (2018) probed the moderating outcome of recognised organisational approval on encircling (unfavourable and offensive workplace behaviour) and organisational brand (devotion to the organisation). The work used a representative sampling research design with data obtained from both academic (123 samples) and non-academic employees (29) in only one Higher Education Institution (HEI) in Ankara, Turkey. The overall findings showed that there was no substantial connection between encircling and organisational brand, and recognised organisational brand did not bias the ineffectiveness of abusive workplace behaviour and organisational harmony. From the inquiry, it was established that a toxic work environment generates negative behaviour from employees which also impacts commitment. The study only considered mobbing and there might be other variables that may influence affective commitment. More so, the study was a case study, samples were only drawn from one HEI, which was limited in scope, the sample from the non-academic staff was low in comparison with academic employees and as such the findings cannot be generalised. This study, therefore, considers other variables (organisational rewards, organisational justice, supervisors support besides working conditions) that were not researched by the previous authors, and samples for this study were drawn from seven foremost public universities.

Bigirimana, Sibanda, and Masengu (2016) studied the repercussion of working conditions on academic staff turnover at Africa University with a sample of 35 respondents out of a total of 74. The sample was from a private Higher Educational Institution in Zimbabwe. The method of selection was not elaborately disclosed. The authors did not report from which faculty, school, or department the sample was obtained. Multiple aspects of working conditions were, however, examined, namely, academic freedom, leadership style, POS, performance management system, collegiality, opportunity and support for research activities, workloads, and psychological contracts. It was concluded that the working conditions were unfavourable and accounted for high academic turnover. The previous researchers utilised case study designs and a qualitative approach in their investigation that limited the scope of the study.

Zabrodska, et al. (2014) conducted a pilot study on the work environment and well-being of academic faculty in Czech Universities. The work environment indicators examined in the study were autonomy, involvement in decision-making, low pressure to produce, and strong social community. Findings showed that the work environment variables like autonomy, participation in decision-making, strong community outreach, and low pressure for results positively influenced employees' well-being and commitment. It was a pilot study carried out in Czech Universities and therefore cannot be generalised to other developing countries.

Wainaina (2015) examined the determinants of organisational commitment among academic employees in Kenya's Public and Private Universities and concluded that there was a strong positive linear relationship between employment terms and organisational commitment for both full-time and part-time faculty members. Since it was not a comparative study with other African HEIs, the study cannot be generalised with other HEIs in developing countries and East Africa Community.

Academic employee engagement and perceived organisational assistance are important factors for the quality of HEIs in Kenya. Clear-cut studies on perceived organisational support on academic employee commitment conducted in Higher Learning Institutions in Kenya have hardly emerged from previous studies. It is noteworthy to mention that other previous studies reviewed inclined towards other factors, besides those that this research intended (Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014; Dinc, 2015; Ahmed et al., 2015; Akhtar, Aamir, Khurshid, Qazri Abro & Hussain, 2015).

The study on the link between organisational culture and employee engagement in Nigeria was localised to Lagos State. It could have been extended to other states in Nigeria but failed and thereby limiting the generalisation of the study (Aina et al., 2012). Cultural typology was not examined instead organisational culture was discussed as a holistic topic, and more focus was on the effect of biographical factors on employees' commitment. By so doing, the researcher could not convincingly pinpoint exactly the type of culture that permeates the State Universities in Nigeria. In another study investigated by Irfan and Marzuki (2018), they placed more

emphasis on the consequences of organisational culture on employees' effectiveness rather than as a moderating variable.

The studies on rewards and how they have impacted employee commitment have been variously treated in the literature. The research by Siam et al. (2015) sought how the effectiveness of employees was influenced by the size of the organisation. However, in their findings, it was not clearly explained whether it was the size of the students, the administrators, or the number of lecturers. They only mentioned organisational hierarchy (positions, titles), as it impacts on reward systems of the institution, and successful strategy execution. The research is inconsistent with previous research on reward systems and their effects on employee commitment. This study needs further investigation that will produce a deeper analysis of rewards systems on employee effectiveness in different segments of the African continent either for East or West African region, which is among the reasons the researcher has proposed to undertake the current study.

Another empirical study conducted by Akhtar et al. (2015) examined the effects of total rewards on retention in Higher Institutions in Pakistan. A similar study should be conducted on total rewards on commitments of staff in Higher Institutions, adopting a longitudinal study, to enable stakeholders in the education sector to have a clear understanding of their employees commitment and how to improve on it for optimum performance. Bari et al. (2013) investigated the power of nonmonetary compensation on stance and employees' accomplishments in the workplace. Fiscal rewards on employee effectiveness can be conducted using a comparison study in both National and Private Higher Institutions. Due to the paucity of research on academic employee engagement, this study examined variables under perceived organisational support and proffer strategies to improve commitment levels amongst the academic employees in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

2.7 Research Gaps

An existing review of past studies revealed various conceptual, contextual, and methodology gaps that the current research sought to address. Different scholarly journals have been elaborately reviewed by the researcher in this study and it was

found that diverse topics were conducted using different theories, concepts, and methodologies. However, the previous studies were not without research gaps. The evidence-based research fell short of theoretical, conceptual, and knowledge gaps

First, most previous studies conducted in Kenya examined the determinants of employee retention, reward systems, and the influence of human resource practices on employees' performance. Many studies have not been carried out in the area of POS, and academic employee commitment (Wainaina, 2015; Ngethe, 2013; Kavit, 2017). Other studies were limited in scope focusing only on private HEIs, public service, non-academic employees, and the factors causing low commitment among academic staff in Kenya (Wanzala, Nyamai, Kakah & Mwangi, 2018; Nganga, 2017).

Secondly, previous researchers working on organisational culture and organisational effectiveness (Sarhan, Harb & Alhusban, 2020; Wambui & Gichanga, 2018; Irfan & Marzuki, 2018; Aina et al., 2012) applied a few variables and other effectiveness indicators but none of the studies considered the moderating power of organisational culture on staff member responsibility.

Third, various studies on POS have adopted different theories and models to analyse the effects of POS indicators in both public and private sectors, some did not consider HEIs, resulting in a narrow sample size, gender, and other biographical data. Although the sample used was accepted to be adequate for these studies, however, larger and more diverse sources for the sample would improve the generalisation of the implied outcomes and may further help future research have more robust results (Jahan, Huynh, & Mass, 2022; Bigirimana, Sibanda, & Masengu, 2016).

Fourth, some studies proposed the effects of organisational culture on organisational commitment in the hotel industry, IT companies, case studies, satellite campuses in Higher Education, the financial sector, civil service institutions, and health workers. These studies are limited in scope and information, (Jahan et al., 2022; Aranki, 2019; Hamidi1, Mohammadibakhsh, Soltanian, & Behzadifar, 2017; Wilkins, Butt, & Annabi, 2017; Zabrodska et al., 2014). A future extension of this research would be

the inclusion of more dependent variables, such as employees' satisfaction, employees' intensives, and contemporary leadership style and also future research may investigate hotel managers' opinions about employees' organisational commitments.

Fifth, despite the studies' significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge, other limitations are hereby acknowledged. The majority of the studies mentioned earlier adopted cross-sectional survey research, non-probability sampling methodology, middle-level employees, administrators, and length of service (Jeet & Sayeeduzzafar, 2014; Dinc, 2015; Ahmed et al., 2015; Akhtar, Aamir, Khurshid, Qazri Abro & Hussain, 2015). It is recommended that additional research examining longitudinal data may be considered in the future in Kenya, East Africa, and other African countries. To some extent, this study was able to fill a few of the research gaps using both permanent and nonpermanent academic staff members in public universities in Kenya and also acknowledged some limitations. Further research has been proposed in chapter five.

Sixth, noted further from the literature review it was found that studies on perceived organisational assistance on academic employee engagement are from advanced countries. Additionally, they used business-oriented environments and the few studies in higher education in Africa are addressing the issues of organisational engagement but not perceived organisational assistance and academic employee commitment in Higher Learning Institutions (Coskuner et al., 2018; Ping, Xin, Yen, Aisy & Ting, 2017). Furthermore, an understanding of why there is a reduction in the levels of faculty commitment would enable those in higher education management to take the proper steps to ensure improvement in commitment levels. It would also ensure the quality of work amongst faculty and enable them to compete more favourably in the global market. Hence, this research was geared towards examining the power of recognised organisational endorsement on academic employee effectiveness in chosen public universities in Kenya.

2.8 Systematic Extended Reviews of Theories used in the Thesis

2.8.1 Extended Reviews of Social Exchange Theory

Nunkoo (2016) indicates that social exchange theory (SET) is among the oldest theories of social behaviour in sociology and social psychology. Social exchange embraces two persons or groups who provide benefits and rewards to one another and are dependent on each other. SET is underpinned by a swap of activities, tangibles, and intangibles like rewards and costs. Social exchanges are distinct from economic exchanges because the exchange of benefits is voluntary and entails undefined future obligations without guaranteed reciprocity of benefits. Power is pivotal to SET because a partner can exercise overarching control over resources and assets that another partner needs and values. A resource is anything like property, money, competence, knowledge, and skills owned by a person that is placed at the disposal of others to satisfy their needs. Power is a gathering of resources (economic, social, cultural, environmental, and political), position (office and role), and skill (behaviour types, alliances, and coalitions) for societal benefits. Furthermore, trust is pivotal in building consensus that underlies economic development, government institutions' legitimacy, and outcomes promotion that benefit society. Social exchange flourishes in long-term relationships in contrast to market and financial transactions premised on legalities.

Farhana (2020) indicates SET explains customers' reciprocal behaviour towards the organisation by cordially offering the customers substantial benefits and that trust is a pivotal construct of SET. Andersen, Buch, and Kuvaas (2020) indicate employees retaining a substantially positive perception of social exchange are far more socially motivated and feel considerably obligated to reciprocate the benefits and support received by exceeding the minimum effort demanded of the employment. Further, highly intrinsically motivated employees were influenced less by the benefits of a social and economic leader-member exchange. However, substantially unmotivated employees gain more from a social leader-member exchange arrangement. Hsiaso, Ma, Manfreda, Baker, and Xu (2023) used social exchange to boost customer loyalty by culturally competent servers. Also, SET presumes social behaviour is an exchange

process that maximises benefits and minimises costs. Affect Theory of social exchange stresses success whenever the benefactor and beneficiary exhibit substantial productive emotions like gratitude that contribute to trust and long-lasting relationships. Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan, and Ashraf (2023) indicate SET overshadows other theories as an umbrella and has become the gold standard for comprehending workplace behaviour. SET involves the onset towards a target, an attitudinal or behavioural response away from the reciprocating target, and resulting connectivity. Relationships in the corporate world are increasingly complex because they have implications across the various fields of social psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Lyons and Scott (2012) postulate homeomorphic reciprocity as the capacity of an employee to access help or harm depending upon the degree to which they engage in benefit or harm. Active exchanges are visible, while inactive or psychological exchanges are translucent or not transparent. They are positive when they withhold unacceptable behaviour or negative when they withhold acceptable behaviour. The obscurity of inactive exchanges damages organisations because they are difficult to trace. The principal significance of SET is that commitment, loyalty, and trust are upshoots of maturing relationships over time that depend on the rules of exchange.

Stancu (2024) indicates that SET was separately developed by Homans and Blau using functionalism and Parson's social systems approach to analyse society. Other psychological roots of SET derive from behaviourism, conflict theory, pragmatism, and utilitarianism. Thibaut and Kelly used Groups in a matrix formulation of rewards and costs to model behaviour under varying conditions of symbiosis. The core helps to make forecasts about behaviour with distinct outcomes depending on the partners and their specific circumstances. Their work was anchored on experimentation for many years by coalition, competition, cooperation, and negotiation leading to game theory for insightful strategy formulation. Anthropologists like Levi-Strauss, Malinowski, and Mauss influenced exchange theory in a completely different way, and the sociologists of the time used these Anthropologists' works to explain social exchange. Emerson's work on power dependence and Blau's power and power-gaining strategies in the 1970s were based on insights into power in social relations in that power and inequality were pivotal in the treatment of exchange processes.

They recognised SET as the building blocks in formulating a general theory of social structure premised on behaviour analyses by Skinner through Homans. The vital concepts comprise alternative exchange relations, balance, cost (foregone rewards), dependence, and reward (positive reinforcement), which use the extended SET to manage risk and uncertainty. The predominant assumptions of exchange theory comprise the desire to increase profit and minimise loss, mutual trust, partners engaging in recurring and jointly conditional exchanges with specific parties over time, and weighted outcomes obeying the law of slightly reducing usefulness (Stancu, 2024).

Akkermans, Tomlinson, and Anderson (2024) indicate that SET assumes employment relationships between employers and employees as a sequence of resource trade-offs to garner jointly and reciprocally beneficial resource exchanges that lead to high-quality trade benefits. Also, SET presupposes the six distinct resources exchanged between people and organisations: goods, information, love, money, services, and status. Resources are analysed based on how ubiquitously they are valued (money considerably has a constant worth) and how tangible the resource is (a financial stimulus is highly material and fair, though a promise for future development is less material and more symbolic). These resources are categorised as economic or socio-emotional and are reciprocated by employees with commitment, loyalty, and enhanced performance. Parr, Teo, and Koziol-McLain (2021) indicate that SET collaboration leads to responsibilities that are symbiotic and conditional on individuals with the possibility of developing into high-quality relationships. This exchange is bi-directional and comprises regulations and patterns of the transaction, resources exchanged, and emerging connections guided by shared and reciprocal arrangements. Adhering to rules over time results in trust, loyalty, and shared commitment because shared exchanges portray better work relationships than negotiated ones. Also, SET is foundational to the reciprocation between relational and resonant leadership, emotional intelligence, and engagement. Zhang and Liu (2024) use SET to explain that individuals participate in social interactions based on rewards and associated costs. Porter (2018) argues that SET should be revised to integrate work relationships in the new work era, characterised by a more divergent workforce with uncertain expectations for relationships between themselves and their

organisational representatives. Nickerson (2023) indicates that individuals use economics to consciously or unconsciously evaluate relationships, conduct cost-benefit analyses, and compare alternatives. He uses SET to explain social behaviour based on costs, exchanges, and rewards. So individuals pursue maximum profit by maximising rewards and minimising expenses for self-interest, self-preservation, and without regard to the repercussions of their decision. These interactions involve value exchanges among and between partners or participants for synergy and organisational development. Davlembayeva and Alamanos (2023) use SET to explain four major components of individual social behaviour comprising mechanism of exchange, reciprocity, reinforcement tools, and social capital factors and structures based on the kind of resources of goods, information, love, and services. Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu (2018) indicate workplace features, forces impacting organisations, and management skills have changed tremendously in the past few decades. Workplace networks have changed from physical assets to pieces of information, the work itself has become more flexible and virtual, and employee features are freer (free agency and freelancing) because of the growth of knowledge workers. The forces impacting organisations like technology, workforce, values, markets, and digitised events have a business orientation. Raised digitisation devalues traditional employee status and job assurance, and the modern employee loses in two ways by competing with advanced technologies and those skillful in applying them. The modern workplace is more global and divergent, having unstable organisational values and emphasis on constant change favouring swiftness over stability, often at the expense of efficiency and effectiveness. The modern workplace is ambiguous, complex, uncertain, and volatile, which is stressful for employees and worse for managers because they have less influence on organisational outcomes.

Furthermore, management skills embrace leadership, interpersonal relationships, workplace design, and work methods that are more decentralised and empowering. The work done in modern workplaces is by teams rather than individuals. It is more collaborative, with information sharing, decentralised decision-making, and a relaxed hierarchy. Moreover, the contemporary workplace design leans towards experimentation, development, and learning.

2.8.2 Extended Reviews of Equity Theory

Robbins, Odendaal, and Roodt (2003) indicate Equity Theory (ET) comprises employees making comparisons of their job inputs (effort, experience, education, and competence) and outcomes (salary levels, raises or promotions, and recognition) relative to others. If the employee recognises their ratio or proportion to be the same as others, equity is presumed to exist. The situation is presumed fair, and justice prevails. In contrast, if an employee perceives an unequal ratio, they express and experience an equity tension, which Adams (1965) postulated results in putting structures in place to correct the anomaly. Further, whenever the proportion of an employee's outcome to their input is less than that of other identical employees' outcome ratio to input, there is inequality and under-reward. If the outcome-to-input ratio of two separate employees at the same level is the same, there is equity and equality in reward. But, inequality exists whenever one employee is rewarded higher (over-rewarded) than another exerting similar efforts in identical jobs in the same organisation.

Additionally, employees compare themselves to and with friends, neighbours, co-workers, and colleagues in other organisations or past jobs they had. Robbins et al. (2003) indicate the referent basis an employee chooses depends upon the information at their disposal of the referents and their attractiveness focusing on five moderating variables: gender, experience, position, education, and professionalism. This choice adds to the complexity of ET. If an employee's experiences in different positions within their organisation are self-inside references, their experiences in situations or positions outside their organisation are self-outside references. Other individual or group of individual employees' experiences in different positions within their organisation is an other-inside reference, and other individual or group of individual employees' experiences in situations or positions outside their organisation is an other-outside reference. They propose four theories of discriminatory payments: Apt payment per time group are over-rewarded employees who deliver more than the deservedly paid employees, Apt payment by the quantity of production group are over-rewarded employees who deliver fewer but higher quality units than deservedly paid employees, Apt payment by time group who are under-rewarded and produce

the less or poorer quality of output employees than deservedly paid employees, and Apt payment by the quantity of production who are under-rewarded and deliver a large number of low-quality units compared to the deservedly paid employees.

Schmid and Dowling (2022) indicate equity components like remuneration and offices, assigned status symbols, furniture symbolisms for discerned fairness and extrinsic motivations, technological rewards dependent on managerial recommendations, and low scientific weight. While motivation and place are vital, personalised furnishings and positioning objects are substantial as they underpin the direct links of mediators between external influences, emotional needs, and job characteristics. Notably, technologies satisfy needs, physical conditions satisfy physical necessities, and other needs seeking satisfaction comprise safety, esteem, self-actualisation, and the need to succeed. Other ET factors include employee training, information and communications technology (ICT) applications, and workplace design components. Ahmadpour, Arman, Foukerdi, Hadi-Vencheh, and Mavi (2022) indicate ET investigates how fair people feel treated, and literature is yet to answer: what is the magnitude of equity one may recognise in an organisation and how much resources (outcomes) of an underpaid member reduced (or increased) for equality? They propose a nouveau methodology dubbed data envelopment analysis (DEA), which is similar to ET conceptually. It shows how DEA estimates the degree of equity recognisable by group members with distinct personalities like optimistic, pessimistic, benevolent, and entitled. Further, people provide inputs to the organisation for outcomes, and each person compares their inputs and outcomes with others and may not be satisfied. This comparison is the foundation of the ET introduced by Adams.

Conversely, each person compares their outcome-input (Y-X) ratio or proportion with others. If this proportion is less than others, they are dissatisfied. The feeling of inequity propels individuals to achieve equity or reduce inequity by galvanising collective bargaining rights, full-employment programmes, living wage policies, superior minimum wage regulations, and wage subsidies. Also, ET is applicable to distribute outputs. However, ET suffers from the drawback of its application in social problems, particularly those related to quantifying the theory. It does not support the

quantification of magnitudes of inputs, outcomes, and the degrees of perceived inequity. It is essential to measure perceived equity because the more inequity people recognise, the more distressed they feel, and the more effort they exert to reduce the inequity. ET equally enables procedural justice to highly affect the evaluation of compensation. Additionally, ET assesses inequity for each person from their point of view, which is a mental judgment other than a logical procedure.

Mdhlalose (2022) uses Adams's equity theory to explain the relationships between the input furnished and the expected outcome from the organisation. ET connects concrete and nebulous incentives with individual creativity and innovation. He posits three scenarios of the effect of organisational reward on employees' creativity and innovation: employees perceive their reward equity enhances creativity and innovation, innate motivation is an inspiration for creativity and innovation, and external impetus is an outside incentive for creativity and innovation. Tavoletti, Cohen, Dong, and Taras (2023) examine whether ET positions on individual comparisons between outcomes to input ratios and other comparison ratios that categorise individuals as benevolent, equity-sensitivity, and entitled apply to the modern workplace of global virtualisation teams (GVTs) where work is vastly intellectual, geologically diverse, and online, making personal efforts nearly impossible to track and observe directly.

2.8.3 Extended Reviews of Procedural Justice Theory

Khtatbeh, Mahomed, Rahman, and Mohamed (2020) indicate procedural justice (PJ) suggests employees' recognition of equity and goodness of procedural components in a complex that regulates the allocation of available resources. It also comprises fair dealing and consistency in methods, mechanisms, and processes. PJ is palpable among employees when the workings and sequence in the organisation exhibit acceptable standards and regulations: to the extent, they avoid prejudice and discrimination, align allocations, and use accurate and objective data and information in their judgments. Further, PJ embodies fairness in procedures and processes in decision-making founded on an organisational policy structure that engenders higher environmental control, lowers job absenteeism, lessens work attrition, and raises job

performance and commitment to the organisation. Additionally, a beneficial intricate relationship exists between PJ, job analysis, and performance. Nimmo (2018) defines justice as being impartial and equitable. It embodies ethics, equity, law, morality, and religion, and the concept of justice is culture-specific. The earliest theories of justice define it as the harmony of the individual and a just state. Others have opined that justice is natural law dependent, a social contract based on equality, and categorised into distributive, corrective, and restorative justice. Organisational justice was formalised in the 1960s and categorised into distributive, procedural, informational, and interactional (or interpersonal) justice.

Further, distributive justice is the recognition of impartial outcomes. Informational justice explains the impartiality in procedures and outcomes. Interactional justice is the certainty that people recognise their treatment as equitable, dignified, and respectful. The psychological contract is the total of uncodified and unwritten expectations between employees and employers. The less explicit employee expectations are career progression, job content, security, and undefined benefits and reward systems. Although the psychological contract is binding on the parties, the inability or the unwillingness to fulfill the tenets have repercussions on the employee and the organisation because a breach is a permanently shifting ground. The violation of mutuality and reciprocity in psychological contracts can cause reduced organisational trust, contentious employment relations, greater absenteeism, higher sickness absence, and heightened psychiatric morbidity.

The longitudinal study of Whitehall II correlated or linked issues of perceived organisational justice and cognition with memory, inductive reasoning, verbal fluency, vocabulary problems among middle-aged employees, and the determinants that belie the social gradient in death and disease in men and women. Unacceptable work justice has increased the risk of metabolic syndrome, ischaemic heart disease, abnormal sleep quality, ill health, and psychological distress, notably among male hospital doctors. Furthermore, bitterness is anger, disappointment, and resentment from unfair treatment, and chronic bitterness studies in the workplace is relatively new and is in its infancy. The Bern Embitterment Inventory (BEI) assesses embitterment and embittered employees who rated procedural injustice and

organisational support lower than other employees. Embittered employees suffered procedural injustice and over-controlling supervision. Although the tools for measuring organisational justice have been around for over five decades, there are no standards and strategies for managing it because fairness is grossly ill-defined and vastly from unverbalised and unwritten psychological contracts.

Wolfe and Lawson (2020) used meta-analysis to examine how organisational justice forecasts an understanding of the criminal justice employee work outputs, impact on communities, and justice-implicated populations. They indicate organisational justice is vital for predicting work-related attitudes, behaviours, emotions, orientations, and understanding employees in the criminal justice system. Employees who enjoy organisational justice exhibit higher organisational commitment and productivity, are less likely to engage in deviant work behaviour, have superior job satisfaction, trust in their agency more, have less misconduct, and are less likely to be stressed. Further, supervisor-employee relations depend on decisions to which employees are continually under. The decisions embody organisational policies and procedures, duty assignments, sociable work life, and chances for promotion. Supervisors' evaluations of employees have significant economic and social consequences for employees. These evaluations focus on organisational justice.

ET endorsed justice research, and organisational justice explained distributive and procedural justice. Interactional justice, introduced as a third component of organisational justice, comprises interpersonal and informational justice. They contend applying organisational justice principles in the workplace supports better organisational citizenry behaviours (performing beyond minimum job requirements), higher standards of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and productivity. Credible organisational justice discourages employees from embracing and engaging in attitudes and behaviours that are counterproductive or undermine organisational beliefs, aspirations, and regulations. Additionally, the measurement of organisational justice parameters and scales has been inconsistent and laden with poor organisational measures, especially those associated with diverse cultural setups and unequal scales in the justice dimensions. Cross-pollination and data contamination are prevalent in criminology and criminal justice research on organisational justice.

Notably, researchers have settled for perceived organisational support as a simpler alternative to studies on supervisors' interpersonal treatment of employees to avoid sharp criticisms from journal reviewers and editors. The overlap between organisational justice and organisational support literature without accounting for their overlap constitutes theoretical indeterminacy in both subjects. It frustrates the power of the criminal justice administration's ability to furnish clear-cut and practical guidance on how to proceed. They found police and correctional officers' care impartial. They are well-treated by supervisors because of continual threats of danger, civil lawsuits for wrongdoing, and difficulty understanding the bureaucratic decision-making process. Additionally, organisational justice effect sizes changed across separate measurement patterns, and measures comprising all four dimensions produced larger effect sizes.

Glowczewski and Burdziej (2022) indicate sizeable scholarship has chronicled the importance of justice administration towards decision-makers in HEIs in Poland. Presently, HEIs operate as the custodians of the achievement of affluence in society. Impartiality in erudition influences not only learned persons but the community at large. Academics are focusing on impartiality because HEIs in Poland have witnessed a five-fold student growth between 1990/91 (400,000) and 2005/2006 (2 million). Private educational institutions have increased providing poor-quality services arising from the "more is better" slogan from democratisation, a scheme to offer equal educational access to the less privileged. Despite HEIs democratisation, the culture of rigid institutional ranking has prevailed in some specialisations in Poland. Thus, HEIs have persisted in reproducing an aristocratic class while other sectors of the Polish economy have transited through democracy.

Further, they examined impartial treatment in HEIs to generate trust towards decision-makers across Poland. Even young children are predisposed to procedural justice because partiality and impartiality mould young people's attitudes toward authority. They found the impartial treatment a superior predictor for recognising the legitimacy of university authorities than impartial outcomes. Additionally, procedural fairness mediating students' identification with their university engendered trust in academic authorities leading to higher engagement and lesser

burnout. Academic identification modulated procedural and distributive impartiality and engagement and partly modulated between impartiality and fatigue. Impartial distributive outcomes and procedural fairness are vital for allocation decisions in citizen-police settings. Also, experiencing fairness contributes to recognised legitimacy of decision-making authorities, decision adoption, and willing collaboration. It determines whether the learning experience is consonant with trust and willing cooperation or derives from doubt, fatigue, or withdrawal. However, two strands of procedural justice are prevalent in higher education: one is on law administration, other justice system institutions, and the courts, and the other is on impartiality in organisations. Further, the school system understands procedural impartiality as comprehension, noninterference, and voice or viewpoint.

Rahman, Som, and Karim (2023) proffer important suggestions for institutions to enhance affective commitment and boost procedural justice because universities depend greatly on faculty for propelling lasting national development through the creation of expertise and proclamations or publications. They indicate that HEIs achieve knowledge creation and dissemination for continuous economic and societal development by depending on academicians. HEIs' ability to inspire and retain existing staff is pivotal for safeguarding the organisational performance and lasting competitive viability. Employees' exodus causes lower productivity, raises recruitment and training costs, and other hidden costs like diminished morale among the remaining employees and the loss of valued know-how that possibly unsettles the organisation. The turnover rate in the education sector hovered around thirty percent (30.0%) for fresh recruits and between twenty and thirty percent (20.0% and 30.0%) after five years. While the yearly turnover is around 20.0% among public institutions in the United States, 19.0% in Bangladesh's private universities, and 60.0% of employees in Bangladesh show detachment and are willing to change occupations. They further indicate the shortage of procedural justice has accelerated the loss of skillful academic employees in HEIs. Also, affective commitment, procedural justice, working conditions, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions are the overarching predictors of organisational commitment in private universities in Bangladesh.

Scrase (2020) argues that the stop-and-search practice damages the belief in the police to comply with the law. He explains that procedural justice of unfairness or partiality leads to illegitimacy and the tendency to disobey and exhibit anti-police sentiments and attitudes. The damaging identification in executing the police powers of stop and search generates powerlessness and shame or anger in people because of the police's power to render position-relevant information. The culprit is normative judgment. The associated police unfairness expands through numerous or forceful experiences producing an assessment bias or anti-police attitude (illegitimacy) and making antagonistic or defiant behaviours individually applicable.

The study of shame/anger and affect are complicated phenomena because shame is not usually explicitly expressed. It is invisible. Shame itself is a shameful, degrading, disgraceful, or humiliating experience. Shame is vital because it can be anticipated rather than experienced, and it can be denied, sidestepped, or converted to other emotions, but the affective circumstances for shame remain admissible. The affective conditions of shame refer to self-imagined disrespect, rejection, fear of rejection, inferiority complex, or similarity judgment. Further, the stop-and-search approach is a complicated cause of illegitimacy, alienation, or crime, and other interlocking factors like anti-police narratives that mould assessment tendencies, cumulative or joint emotions, and the intentional targeting of economically and socially vulnerable groups.

Saulnier and Sivasubramaniam (2021) examined the influence of decision-making technology on public evaluations of authority-subordinate interactions with constitutional authority at airport border crossings. Varying the human-machine interactions of search as a secondary procedure shows differences exist between procedural fairness judgments (human agency) and distributive fairness judgments (outcomes and machine mediated). It demonstrated that technologically mediated searches improved judgments in procedural and distributive justice. There was danger in extrapolating results from social interactions of procedural justice theory to technologically conducted interactions. Technology is mediating data collection (security and body-worn cameras) and analysis for decision-making by artificial intelligence (licence plate and biometric recognition automation) by constitutional

authorities. Surveillance technologies have become a lot of everyone even though they previously related more to vulnerable groups (poor, infirm, needy, little educated, and ethnic/racial minorities). Also, conventional procedural justice depended on neutrality, respect, trust, and voice or viewpoint.

Although constitutional authorities comprise the police, correctional officers, border officers, and probation officers with interpersonal interactions, reliance on technology for data gathering and analyses enhances crowd or group surveillance environments where all persons passing a point are subject to nondiscriminatory screening (data collection and assessment). Instrumental and relational concerns drive subordinates' interest in procedures. Instrumental concerns force subordinates to centre on procedures because they believe procedural regulations affect outcomes generated. People are concerned about decision-making because they desire to sway favourable outcomes. In contrast, relational concerns make subordinates centre on procedures because they believe their treatment depends on their rank or position as valuable individuals. It means people cherish decision-making procedures because they communicate whether people are on par or subpar in the social class of the administering authority. Technology exchanges between military and internal authorities are requirements for enhanced efficiency, effectiveness, and responsibility of constitutional authorities in all contexts. Notably, policing and border (internal) security necessitate information warehousing by constitutional authorities because of associated risks. Further, technologically mediated connections are more transparent and less biased to the citizenry.

Tomlin, Markham, Wittouck, and Simpson (2024) advocate accommodating procedural fairness principles in forensic mental health services to improve patient engagement and independence or freedom. Patterns of care in forensic mental health have advocated participation in decision-making of patient independence, choice, engagement in care, shared risk assessment, and research to improve therapy, raise satisfaction with care, and facilitate patients' recovery results. Patients' exclusion from the targets of their care could lead to combative behaviour, hostage-taking, and escaping. Procedurally just treatment has centred on voice (chance to present their stories and experiences and be heard), neutrality (unbiased authority figures, using

clear and understandable rules, and using explicit evidence), respect and dignity (polite treatment as exceptional individuals and valued persons with privileges and demands respected), trustworthiness (authority figures working in their best interests, genuine, and honest), information (understandable and availably communicated information), performance (expertise or knowledge of staff/authority holders), and authoritativeness (accommodating but impartial and determined).

Procedural impartiality of interactions is moulded by governmental and ethical perspectives, community norms or patterns, life's organised distributive impartiality, prevailing experience with constitutional authorities (policing circumstances: request help against detention and investigation), whether an experience involves high stakes and encounters of under-support, and unsociable behaviour in the community. Furthermore, previous service experiences, employees' education and training, employees' support, appropriate staffing, impartial procedures, administration/ leadership approach or pattern, care plan meeting arrangements, and a competent forensic care design are vital for a forensic mental health services background.

2.8.4 Extended Reviews of Herzberg-Two Factor Theory

Yousaf (2020) indicates Herzberg's Dual-Factor theory is one of the most increasingly used motivation theories because it is appropriate for expounding workplace behaviour. A bifurcation of motivation into two constructs results in a two-dimensional psychological paradigm of factors. Further, the presence of cleanliness indicators does not cause satisfaction by itself. But, its absence causes dissatisfaction. Conducive work conditions are one characteristic in the workplace that helps avoid organisational discontent. Herzberg defined work conditions as the total work surroundings of workers' amenities like tools, machines, infrastructure, and other psychological characteristics. The operational settings of the studies conducted show a substantial correlation between job satisfaction and conducive work environments that sustain workers' investment in the organisation. Also, the relationship between employees and supervisors is the synergy between employees and their supervisors that influences employees' contentment. Organisational policies

comprise arrangements and functions designed to achieve organisational goals and aspirations according to the organisation's benchmarks or criteria.

Further, previous studies show lecturers were contented with their jobs when fair work policies were applied by the administration. Human resource and people managers were requested to intentionally and deliberately institute humane policy guidelines for people management in their organisations. Additionally, Herzberg explains the relationship between and among peers at the workplace for both genders and that employees enjoying good interpersonal interconnection with coworkers stimulated public service managers more than private sector management.

Herzberg explains money as the value of financial exchange and the incentive employees offer for work tasks and services. It is an appropriate stimulus that sustains employees' interest in investing in their organisations. Whenever employees recognise their salaries and wages are appropriate or superior to what is offered by similar organisations, they are encouraged and enhance their commitment. It engenders job enjoyment and contentment in their organisations. Furthermore, remuneration is the most effective component for younger, junior, or less experienced employees because it is vital for measuring their worth in the marketplace or world of work. Notably, work security or assurance portrays all the categories of work tasks that assure employees' individual, mental, or physical safety to remain on their jobs for a long time. Elderly employees are particularly more invested and more contented with their duties when offered job security than gaining more financial benefits in their organisations.

The work itself comprises the chores, duties, and obligations or responsibilities expected to be accomplished by job holders. It is the most significant index for lecturers in private universities of Peshawar in India. It pinpoints the association between challenging work, the work itself, and work enjoyment. Recognition is an acknowledgment by others of the contribution to well-executed job tasks that are visible by offering incentives to deserving employees. Advancement is a physical and visible translation in a progress continuum that moves employees from one lower level to a higher hierarchy in the workplace for a subsisting career. It is

gaining higher chances to undergo competency or professional training to learn new skills and gain new knowledge for more effectiveness. Achievement is a realisation of a workgroup or individual targets, and growth is an employee's desire for personal improvement and advancement.

Mitsakis and Galanakis (2022) examined Herzberg's theory in many workplaces in the 21st century comprising correctional officers, retail, and front-line employees in the telecommunications industry. They inquired whether work conditions, peer relationships, and supervisors' feedback enhanced the contentment and incentive of employees or whether their lack led to a heightened turnover. They suggest job enjoyment predicates on the work itself, recognition, and achievement. Employee turnover jeopardises organisational performance, debilitates employee reward, creates toxic work environments, and maims organisational assets. Mitsakis and Galanakis (2022) further indicate Herzberg and his collaborators show employee well-being and motivation depend on achievement and individual growth while discontent that comprises work conditions, quality of supervision, and various organisational rules and statutes were hygiene factors. The link between positive psychology and Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theorising has emphasised optimism, determination, flexibility, innovation, tide, and charm as they affect employee contentment, discontent, and turnover.

Furthermore, job discontent among resident librarians derives from poor communication, inadequate feedback, and lack of mentorship. Achievement, recognition, promotion, earning power, flexible organisational policies, cordial employee-supervisor relations, and collegial coworkers favour job satisfaction in the retail industry and nursing subsector. Also, prisons in the United States of America confront a high voluntary turnover that has become quite expensive because of high associated costs including recruitment, learning, and disengagement costs. Positive psychology aligns with the aspirations of human resource practitioners as with Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theorising. It comprises individual skill sets, rising contentment, well-being, ethical behaviour promotion, innovation-seeking capabilities, and job enrichment.

Lee, Lee, Choi, and Kim (2022) examined the factors that influence job enjoyment using two-factor theory. They found that incentives and cleanliness factors are vital for job enjoyment in every industry. The qualifying influence of current and former employees for every industry was distinct. No qualifying effect for job enjoyment against motivation and hygiene factors exists. They report that over seventy percent (70.0%) of organisations that leveraged digital technology over human capital failed to increase organisational performance because the success of any enterprise depends on the retention of capable employees. The loss of one capable employee makes the organisation lose competitive power because of a loss of invested knowledge and industrial treasure. Job enjoyment lowers employee turnover and raises corporate performance and job commitment. The two-factor theory indicates two distinct elements (motivation and hygiene factors) that influence job enjoyment and discontent. The incentives inherent in employees' performance comprise achievement, recognition, the work itself, accountability, promotion, and growth. Hygiene factors are environmental and external to the work comprising organisation policy and management, supervision, salaries and wages, social relations, work conditions, individual life, position, and job assurance.

Alrawahi, Sellgren, Altouby, Alwahai, and Brommels (2020) indicate job enjoyment is vital for employee retention in the healthcare industry. They examined the linkage between job enjoyment and motivation relative to job enjoyment among medical laboratory professionals in Oman. Focus group discussion (FGD) was used to obtain data and analysed by content and frequency of factor statements analyses and compared with the tenets of Herzberg's theory. Job discontent (hygiene) components comprise fitness and security, burdensome workload, earnings, advancement, recognition, and organisational practices. The incentives (satisfaction) depend on connections with employees, leaders, and expert or specialist development.

Koncar, Santos, Strohmaier, and Helic (2022) examined online employer reviews by current and former employees using Herzberg's dual-factor theory. It is an aggregated experience of employees consonant with employers labelling, organisational culture, and corporate performance. The hygiene factors (organisational culture, remuneration, and work conditions) relate to employee

discontent. Incentives (accountability, promotion, and recognition) are linked to employee contentment. Online employer reviews are openly available and reduce time and labour costs for manual data gathering. They are a continuum for accurate assessment of Herzberg's dual-factor theory and an interrater comparison of employee contentment focused on organisationl culture, remuneration, and work conditions, enhancing satisfaction. The trend is visible across industries, cultures, and employment ranks or positions. Selection bias of extreme opinions and negative or difficult-to-read reviews (discontented employees) like communication, integrity, and safety are drawbacks of online employer reviews. Further, it can reduce role ambiguities, raise social networking, or whether to work for or avoid an organisation based on online employer reviews.

Ahmed and Sultan (2022) examined the effect of Herzberg's two-factor theorising on female media practitioners in Pakistan using a mixed methods approach. They surmise that hygiene and motivators equally likely affected employee job enjoyment and discontent among media women in Pakistan. Media comprises an assemblage of reporters, cameramen/women, and other relevant employees who ensure news compilation, presentation, and circulation in a highly dynamic and hostile business environment. Rising competition, risky market trends, and a limited economy resulted in the loss of many media jobs and the necessity to consider job enjoyment practices to continue as vibrant journalistic businesses. Individuals are satisfied through accomplishments, acknowledgment, identification, remuneration, and impetus for organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Workplace comfort and security lead to enhanced performance and collegial stakeholder relations. Work conditions, workplace practices, remuneration, supervision, leadership patterns, recognition, rewards, social relations, and career growth promote organisational objectives.

Buyukbese, Dikbas, Cavus, and Asilturk (2023) examined the effect of the motivation of bank workers on job satisfaction during the COVID-19 pandemic using Herzberg's hygiene and motivation factors. During the pandemic, hygiene factors negatively affected job satisfaction, while motivating factors positively influenced it. The same results were visible from different sectors of the banking

industry in Turkey. The COVID-19 pandemic reduced the value of internal and external information exchange in the banking sector. Many bank products could not satisfy customers' demand. Adaptation difficulties between customers and bank employees to technological innovation, few operational bank branches, rise in longer-term and low-interest borrowings or lending, and transaction risks were prevalent. Inherent motivators comprise accomplishment, advancement, attractive jobs, acknowledgment, obligation, and career development.

Further, the pandemic increased work-from-home, and others used different shift work schedules that were once prevalent in manufacturing and service industries. The pandemic resulted in flexible work conditions, masking-distancing-hygiene practices, mandatory leave observances, and significantly altering how employees recognise work and task fulfillment. The pandemic's spread heightened employee stress, depression, melancholy, and discouragement. The obligation to use gloves, flexible work and work systems, closure of workplaces, and retrenchment were the hallmarks of the pandemic in the banking sector. Protecting the health of employees and the public that they serve was uppermost to bank administration and leadership for enhanced job satisfaction of employee effectiveness and efficiency. Workplace comfort and security lead to improved performance and collegial stakeholder relations. Work conditions, organisational practices, remuneration, supervision and leadership patterns, recognition, and rewards substantially promote organisational objectives, social relations, and career growth.

Singh and Bhattacharjee (2020) examined the accomplishments and output of northeast India's HEIs. Although male academics were more satisfied with their jobs than female academics, the work was gratifying. Further, work conditions and university practices were the least satisfying. Also, academics who enjoyed their work show lower absence, lower turnover, superior decision-making input, higher devotion, and long incumbency. They opine that advancement, work conditions, accountability, position or rank, remuneration, and job assurance contributed to job enjoyment in northeast India.

2.8.5 Extended Reviews of Organisatonal Culture

Abdala, Morais, and Rebelatto (2021) examined remote work culture because of the COVID-19 pandemic and the remuneration package of a young digital organisation. High productivity and quality service requirements by customers brought changes to the organisation. Remote work took on a new dimension because of safety for employees and clients: isolation and distancing to avoid contamination, pollution, and spreading the pandemic. After the pandemic, remote or home-office work took on some permanency in work and workplace culture. The flexibility introduced into the workspace affected how remuneration and benefits were organised or administered.

Organisational culture comprises ideals, behaviours, and shared principles of the persons within a group. Organisational culture is founded on precise and imprecise rules and regulations or benchmarks, leading to cultural changes and adaptations for resilience and progress. Power culture concentrates power at the centre of the web and those closest to the sources of power benefitting and earning the most and also at the highest levels in the organisation. Strategy development in human resource practice ensures the organisation prepares. It galvanises its employees to deal with likely changes, adjustments, and difficulties in the future or ahead of the organisation's plans, strategies, and vision.

An unaligned remuneration system for employees has consequences for the organisation. An appropriately designed remuneration package with impartial and transparent scales increases job satisfaction. It encourages employees' improved performance and organisational commitment. The remuneration structure was a combination of a hierarchical, vital flat rate for all employees and bonuses. Interns did not receive bonuses. Also, person and task cultures predominate in the organisation. There was synergy and trust, and short-term objectives were prevalent because of the uncertain future deriving from the pandemic, current unpredictable market situations, and the infancy of the digital organisation.

Jain and Ahuja (2024) examined the organisational culture of multinational information technology companies in India. They indicate hierarchical culture was

the dominant organisational culture because it fosters effectiveness, output, synergy, and specialist development. It is an organisational culture that is stable, reliable, and predictable. It underpins procedures, output, and training at the managerial level for organisational success and innovation. It is the interplay of founder(s)' ideas and employees' expertise. It explains narratives, mores, precise and imprecise policies, slang, codes, and material plans. It creates how individuals recognise, consider, and respond to their surroundings. It emphasises flexibility and adjustability to accomplish organisational objectives, innovation or creativity, and administrative command and control.

Mikusova, Klabusayova, and Meier (2023) examined how the COVID-19 pandemic modified the organisational culture of national secondary schools in the Czech Republic. Before the pandemic, hierarchical culture was widespread. Adhocracy and market cultures increased substantially during the pandemic, and clan culture is to rise. Organisational culture determines organisational performance and superior work-life balance. It comprises tokens, patterns, mindsets, ideals, conduct, ethics, expectations, and shared interpretations. It results in the aggregation of narratives transferred to others through fraternisation. It supports permanence, lessens employee's anxiety, and substantially influences job enjoyment and sentimental health. It is also an incentive and a competing edge.

The COVID-19 pandemic disrupted the individual and professional lives of almost everybody worldwide. Bodily contact between and among people reduced significantly. Online meetings became the norm. Workload stresses rose. Employees lost work passion amid fears of dying in the shortest time possible without the hope of living. Leadership and administration adapted to a new organisational culture of ensemble and distributed teaching, tutoring, and instruction models. Teachers, tutors, and instructors are hastily constrained to learn new methods and use tools for online teaching, tutoring, demonstration, and instruction. These adjustments strengthened the organisational culture of national secondary schools in the Czech Republic and globally. The changes in the national secondary schools because of the pandemic include social interactions, settings or surroundings, human understanding, human

character development, employee productivity and job enjoyment, concept, and trademark that constitute organisational culture.

Kaouache, Brewer, and Kaouache (2020) examined the impressions between the prevailing and favoured organisational culture of an electricity power station in Algeria. The results indicate significant differences between prevailing and favoured organisational cultures in the Algerian electric power industry. Power and role cultures were the prevailing cultures. Achievement and support cultures, although the favoured organisational cultures, were poorer indices for assessing the strength of organisational culture in the Algerian electricity industry. Organisational culture contributes to organisational accomplishment, potency, and growth.

Although some administrators concentrate power and authority, employees favour discussion and cooperation. Centralisation is prevalent in Algeria because middle and lower-level management cannot make decisions even for their levels. The religion-cultural manifestation in the Algerian public service generates attitudinal, conversational, and fundamental conflicts. Cultural conflicts are intertwined and embedded in organisational cultures to engender the permanency of rivalries that are inimical to the organisation's development.

Sakhrekar, Samdani, Ogale, and Parashar (2021) examined the typologies and characteristics of organisational culture. They indicate it is the string that ties the organisation together. Organisational culture enables the enterprise to thrive and grow as a unique entity with a distinct personality in the marketplace. It raises employee commitment and devotion to the organisation. Culture drives organisational success, instructs, and demonstrates organisational ideals. Its formation comprises administration, employees, ideals, ethics, size, trademarks, and ownership or stakeholders of the organisation.

Culture allows for differences between organisations and administrators nationwide and globally. It lowers complications and anxiety. It supports uniformity in perspectives, ideals, policy-making, classification, and oversight. Organisational culture optimises employees' genius, partnership, personal and administrative learning, formation and utilisation of new expertise, and enthusiasm to share new

expertise. It is vital for organisational progress and integral to the business. It also preserves and improves the enterprise. However, the various organisational cultures include bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial, market, adhocracy, power, role, achievement, support, strong, weak, healthy, and unhealthy cultures.

Nasaireh, Abdullah, and Obeidat (2019) examined the interplay between organisational culture and organisational structure of academic and administrative employees of three national universities in Jordan. They found interconnections between power culture, internal communication, person culture, organisational complexity, organisational structure, task culture, role culture, and policy-making attitude to change. Organisational culture and structure yield the best descriptions and assessments of people's behaviour in organisations. Organisational structure establishes the distribution of work functions and managerial processes to harmonise and manage work assignments. The structure of an enterprise is how it separates its human capital into recognisable assignments and integrates them. Organisational structure is in three categories. Formalisation is resolutions and work relations controlled by precise policies and methods. Centralisation is how decision control is held by top management or assigned to middle and lower-level management. Specialisation is how the enterprise engages specialists and generalists.

Organisational structure is vital for any business. It arranges, harmonises, merges, originates, globalises, and searches assignments, assets, plans, and studies the collaboration and additional external organisation assets. Organisational structure can alter and conceive intricacies. It provides the impression and transformation that creates the organisational environment capable of risk-taking and incentive for change. Organisational culture enhances creativity, strengthens employees' alliances, and unfettered communication. It designs group procedures that assemble employees' expertise and proficiency for efficient problem-solving that promotes organisational change execution.

2.9 Summary of Literature Reviewed

In the literature review, perceived organisational support on academic employee commitment is vitally important to employers because of the adverse implications of

high employee turnover and less commitment. The Social Exchange Theory, Equity Theory, Procedural Justice Theory, Herzberg Two-Factor Theory, and Handy and Harrison Theories of Culture have been reviewed and found appropriate. The conceptual framework has been developed based on these theories, with the dependent variable being academic employee commitment. The independent variable is perceived organisational support and the following indicators: working conditions, organisational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor support. Also, the moderating variable is organisational culture. For completeness, systematic extended reviews of the theories used in the thesis strengthened the study. It comprises extended reviews of the Social Exchange Theory, Procedural Justice Theory, Herzberg-Two Factor Theory, and Organisational Culture Theory.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This part of the thesis presents the methodology applied to the study. It considers the research design, study population, sampling techniques, data collection instruments and procedures, pilot tests, data processing, and data analyses. The statistical analyses utilised for the study were also considered. This chapter, therefore, provides a basis for the justification of the research methodology adopted.

3.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is the belief and assumptions about how the study was conducted. The study adopts the positivist approach. Research positivism is based on the idea that science is hinged on empirical evidence as opposed to claims that are based on religious or metaphysical beliefs (Babbie, 2012). In scientific research, researchers do not explain the investigation of cases based only on cause and effects but rather they focus more on unambiguous, evident-based relationships between phenomena, and utilised both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The research assumes that perceived organisational support influences academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

3.2.1 Research Design

Research design is a strategy for examining and solving the problem under investigation (Babbie, 2012). A descriptive survey with a mixed methods design incorporating both qualitative and quantitative procedures was used for the study. The data collected at the same time, used the lecturers at the selected seven top Public Universities in Kenya as the unit of analysis. The qualitative research paradigm was of importance in this study because it enabled the researcher to obtain in-depth information from the respective informants (Babbie, 2012). On the other hand, the quantitative research approach provided the opportunity for the researcher to allocate numbers to determine the qualities of the variables or phenomenon under

study. Siddiqui (2010) believes that quantitative methods should be complemented with qualitative methods approaches to allow for richer and more robust research outcomes.

3.3 Target Population

Kothari and Garg (2014) indicate that the population is the element from which the sample is selected. Further, the population is all the elements or bodies of people contemplated for research purposes. The academic members of employees served as the units of observation with a focus on the full-time and part-time academic employees since both contribute to the overall functioning of the entire University community and also to avoid biases.

The Top Seven Public Higher Learning Institutions were selected based on the year of their establishment, and the largest in the number of academic employees and student population. The following Public Universities were chosen for the study: University of Nairobi (1970), Moi University (1984), Kenyatta University (1985), Egerton University (1987), Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (1994), Maseno University (2001), and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (2007). The study's targeted population (unit of analysis) was 5055.

3.4 Sampling Frame

The sampling unit according to Kothari and Garg (2013) may be a social unit such as a family or a school. Therefore, the sampling unit for this study was the academic employees from the selected seven Public Universities in Nairobi and their main campuses (the unit of observation). The sampling frame is a list of all items or the study population where a representative sample is selected for the study (Kothari & Garg, 2013). Participants for the study were categorised proportionately and randomly selected from the seven largest and oldest Public Universities in Kenya (Table 3.1).

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The Cochran formula enabled us to determine the ideal sample size for the level of precision, confidence interval, and estimated proportion of the attributes available in the population. Cochran's formula is useful for large populations. Samples of given sizes provide better information about smaller populations than larger ones. The correction provided by Cochran's formula is reduced if the whole population is small (Heckmann, Gegg, Gegg & Becht 2014). The Cochran formula is (Heckman et al, 2014):

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Where e- is the desired level of precision (margin of error)

p- is the estimated proportion of the population, which has the attribute under

investigation $\qquad q$- is $1 - p$

Z- is the value obtained from the $Z-$ table

n_0- is the number of samples (or sample size) required for analyses of the

population

The study involves only the academic employees of the seven selected top National Universities in Kenya. It is assumed that about one-half of the employees in the selected Public Universities are academic employees. This allows for maximum variability. So, $p = 0.5$, $q = 1 - p = 1 - 0.5$. Therefore, $q = 0.5$. For 95%

confidence interval and $\pm 5\%$ precision, the $Z-$ values are ± 1.96, from normal tables (Heckmann et al., 2014). The sample size becomes, and upon substitution, we have (Heckmann et al., 2014):

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{0.9604}{0.0025} = 384.16 \approx 385$$

Since we do not have a fraction of an academic or a human being, the sample size for academic employees for the selected seven Public Universities in Kenya is 385 and it gave us the confidence levels of 95% that were desired. The selected seven Public Universities had a total population of 5055 academic employees (Wainaina, 2015). Then, the sample size becomes:

$$n = \frac{385}{1 + \left(\frac{385 - 1}{5055}\right)} = \frac{385}{1 + \frac{384}{5055}} = \frac{385}{\frac{5439}{5055}}$$

$$n = 385 \div \frac{5439}{5055} = 385 \times \frac{5055}{5439} = 357.82 \approx 358$$

The proportionately random sample size for each of the seven selected Public Universities in Kenya was determined as follows:

$$n_i = \frac{N_i}{N} * n$$

where n_i is the proportionate sample size for each selected Public University

N_i is the number of academic employees of each chosen Public University

N is the aggregate number of all the academic employees in the selected Public

Universities

n is the determined sample size of all academic employees of the selected Public

Universities using the Cochran formula. Each University sample size is calculated and presented in a tabular form in Table 3.1

$$n_1 = \frac{1583}{5055} \times 358 = 112.11 \approx 112$$

$$n_2 = \frac{661}{5055} \times 358 = 46.81 \approx 47$$

$$n_3 = \frac{961}{5055} \times 358 = 68.06 \approx 68$$

$$n_4 = \frac{525}{5055} \times 358 = 37.2 \approx 37$$

$$n_5 = \frac{612}{5055} \times 358 = 43.3 \approx 43$$

$$n_6 = \frac{392}{5055} \times 358 = 27.8 \approx 28$$

$$n_7 = \frac{321}{5055} \times 358 = 22.7 \approx 23$$

Therefore, using a sample size of 358 academic staff was sufficient for both the reliability and validity of the data-gathering instruments (questionnaire and interview guide).

Table 3.1: Selected Public Universities in Kenya According to Year of Establishment / Employees Number/ and Proportion of Sample Size

S/N	Name of University	Year of Establishment	No. of Employees	Sample Size
1.	University of Nairobi	1970	1583	112
2.	Moi University	1984	661	47
3.	Kenyatta University	1985	961	68
4.	Egerton University	1987	525	37
5.	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	1994	612	43
6	Maseno University	2001	392	28
7.	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology	2007	321	23
	Total		**5055**	**358**

Source: Wainaina (2015)

The sampling technique employed for the study was a convenient random sampling method. A convenient random sampling technique was utilised with respondents that were easily reached and available at the time of data collection (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Moreso, lecturers are not so easy to track down in their offices since most of them are mobile workforce, working in different Universities across Kenya. Along

with the convenience random sampling technique, the researcher used the purposive sampling technique, and permanent and non-permanent University lecturers were chosen and not University administrators. The purposive sampling technique is also relevant to the study (Leedy & Ormrod, (2010). The principal focus of the thesis is the permanent and non-permanent University Lecturers in the seven selected Public Universities in Kenya.

3.6 Data Collection Instrument

The data collection instrument for the study was mainly a structured questionnaire on a 5-point Likert scale. The questionnaire is a popular data collection tool extensively utilised to collect data especially in social science and educational research (Bihu, 2021; Taherdoost, 2016). It is mainly used by researchers, public and private research institutions, and individuals, and can either be administered by post, mail, or self administered (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Questionnaire consists of some orderly or unstructured questions that require responses from the target respondents to achieve the objectives of the study (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). For the study the researcher distributed a self-administered questionnaire with eleven trained research assistants to both the full-time and part-time lecturers in the seven selected public universities. The structured questionnaire adopted in the study consist mainly of closed-ended and was wrapped up at the end with an open-ended question to allow respondents express their views on issues that were not covered in the closed-ended questions.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a tool for the assessment of one or more variables using summed (aggregated) item scores, called scales, and can be recognised on a progression of unstructured to structure (Elangovan & Sundaravel, 2021). A standard questionnaire was the data collection instrument adopted for the study. The questionnaire used was adapted from the previously validated questionnaire of Rhoades et al. (2001) study on "Affective commitment to the organisation: the contribution of perceived organisational support". This instrument was combined with the questionnaire from Jaros (2007) research on the "Meyer and Allen Model of organisational commitment:

measurement issues". Using the previously validated research instruments for the survey assisted in the reliability and validity of the instruments, which reduced the stresses and errors associated with developing and testing a new data collection instrument. It also saved time and costs (Kothari and Garg, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The questionnaire consists of both close-ended and open-ended questions. The structured or close-ended questions on the questionnaire helped the respondents to select from the different options that best suited their situation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

We check for consistency in questionnaires by incorporating "countercheck" questions into the list some distance from the earlier questions. This strategy helps to validate the consistency with which respondents have answered the questions (Leedy & Omrod, 2010). The survey method demonstrates the tenets of traditional quantitative methodology of objectivity, replicability, causality, and readily adaptable to research phenomena like academic employee commitment. Questionnaires conceptualise items, maintain reliability, and replicate the research using the same study instrument in other settings. The advantages of a sample survey include the information sought to be reasonably specific, the information sought to be familiar to the respondents, the researcher being considerably knowledgeable about the research problem and possible responses that could emerge, providing more systematically collected data and more scientific if mailed questionnaires and interviews are used, the objective is to study attitude rather than the behaviour of respondents, the study is exploratory and collected data is subject to further hypothesis testing. Furthermore, they are unsuitable for inferring cause and effect, do not allow in-depth examination of the questions, and tend to build on the error that the number of respondents is a measure of the accuracy of the data collected (Fajana, 1996).

The questionnaire was divided into four sections (Sections A–D) measuring the dependent, independent, and moderating variables. The 5-point Likert scale (Hutchison, 1997) measured Perceived Organisational Support: Strongly Disagree 1; Disagree 2; Undecided 3; Agree 4; and Strongly Agree 5.

Perceived organisational support, working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, employee commitment, and organisational culture, were the varying items of the questions adapted from Rhoades et al., (2001), Nwibere (2014) and Bigirimana et al., (2016). A 5-point Likert scale measured the respondent's degree of fairness in the distribution of rewards, the process, and the behaviour of the supervisors. Also, the opportunity for recognition, pay, advancement, and type of culture within the University system is important. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher and eleven trained research assistants. A 5-point Likert scale has been shown in the research literature to be more accurate, easier to use, and a better reflection of a respondent's true evaluation (Finstad, 2010).

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Primary and secondary data were obtained for the study. Primary data are the information obtained by the researcher from the respondents initially. They are original and highest in importance (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Secondary data are a form of data that have been stored, documented, and codified in journals, books, newspapers, professional newsletters, websites, published, or unpublished scholarly articles which are extracted by the researcher for use. However, not every secondary data is valid (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Data collection is the process of gathering information related to the study under investigation from the chosen respondents (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2018). The questionnaire utilised in this study formed the main research tool for the gathering of primary data.

Following the application and successful approval by NACOSTI and the Ethics Committee of Kenyatta University, the researcher was finally offered the researcher license and approval to proceed with data collection. Similarly, a letter of introduction to the selected seven public universities and the piloted university was obtained from the Institution for easy access to data collection. The data was collected using a structured questionnaire (closed-ended) for the quantitative raw data and an open-ended for the qualitative raw data. The primary data were collected by the researcher and assisted by eleven trained research assistants. The respondents from whom the data were collected were permanent and non-permanent lecturers in

the chosen seven Public Universities in Kenya. To encourage objectivity and confidentiality, the respondents' names were not required. To reduce bias and increase the response rate, the researcher and the eleven trained research assistants adopted the drop-off and pick-up technique in the questionnaire administration. This was done to encourage respondents to complete the forms at their own convenient time. The researcher and the team picked up the completed questionnaires again at an agreed later date. Follow-up visits, calls, text messages, e-mails, and WhatsApp chats were made as reminders to boost individual responses. One main concern in survey research (enquiry investigation), according to Allred & Ross-Davis (2011) is nonresponse bias which occurs when individuals refuse to fill out a questionnaire. Nonresponse of respondents to the questionnaire may lead to a poor response rate and negatively impact the inferences drawn from the study. The researcher encountered many constraints in the study mainly due to the unforeseen coronavirus 2019 pandemic (COVID) but these were mitigated by administering some questionnaires through e-mail, and DHL courier services to some respondents. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Version 25) was used to analyse the data for the study.

3.8 Pilot Study

The aim of the pilot study is to test-run the research process data collection instruments for necessary adjustments that can improve the validity and reliability of the data (Schachtebeck, Groenewald & Nieuwenhuizen, 2018; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). A pilot study is a miniature research or minuscule prior check or trial that probes the integrity of the suitability of the data collection instruments to the main study (Aziz and Khan, 2020). The researcher pilot-tested the data collected using the designed questionnaire. To do this, the researcher selected a pilot group from the population of the public universities which was not a part of the research sample population. Kothari & Garg (2013) recommended ten (10.0%) percent of the sample size as the population for the pilot study and this was 36 lecturers (full-time and part-time) from a public University outside the selected list. Over 40 lecturers (full-time and part-time) received the questionnaires designed for the study in the Public University. Only 31 questionnaires were returned (86.1% response rate of the

expected 36) and analysed for the study. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was 0.926 (92.6%). It indicates that the questionnaire design and data-gathering instrument were 92.6% reliable.

3.8.1 Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability of a measurement or a scale demonstrates whether it is without random errors. It is also the certainty to which the measurement is dependable, reliable, and reproducible with similar results (Taherdoost, 2016). Reliability measures the internal consistency of the data collection instruments (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Internal consistency can be measured in several ways but the most commonly used statistic is the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. It is seen as the most appropriate measure of reliability when making use of Likert scales (Taherdoost, 2016).

The researcher adopted the Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient to determine the quality and consistency of the administered questionnaire as a credible data collection instrument. High reliability showed high satisfaction and low reliability indicated lower satisfaction or nothing at all (Heckmann et al., 2014). Cronbach alpha tests for multiple-question Likert-scale surveys for reliability like the research investigated. It helped to measure the latent (hidden or unobservable) variables like a person's commitment or conscientiousness. The tests enabled us to determine whether the tests designed in the questionnaire accurately or precisely measured the variables of interest (Heckmann et al., 2014). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was determined using the formula given by Heckmann et al., (2014) as:

$$\alpha = \frac{N.\bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N-1).\bar{c}}$$

where N - number of items

$\bar{c}$ - average covariance between item-pairs

$\bar{v}$ - average variance

Although a score of 0.7 is usually accepted for most studies, psychological studies accept 0.6 as an alpha reliability coefficient (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Heckmann et al. 2014). However, there are drawbacks to using Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients: (a) high levels of alpha reliability coefficient could indicate highly correlated data. This is so because the alpha coefficient is sensitive to the number of test items in the sample, (b) a larger alpha coefficient could result from a large number of predictors or large samples included in the alpha coefficient determination, (c) a smaller alpha coefficient indicates a small number of parameters or smaller sample size was used in determining lower alpha coefficient (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Heckmann et al, 2014). Conversely, a low alpha reliability coefficient indicates the possibility of insufficient questions on the tests desired. Also, adding more "relevant" items to the test instruments can increase the alpha coefficient. Inadequate interrelationships between test questions can cause low alpha coefficient values. It also adversely affects the measurement of more than one latent variable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Heckmann et al, 2014). While there is debate on what causes high and low alpha coefficients, inadvertently removing test results labelled as incorrect or not trustworthy could be responsible. Cronbach's alpha is one-dimensional as it can only measure one latent variable. Hence, Factor Analysis could be used to test for more than one latent variable and remove the limitation of the uni-dimensionality problems identified with the alpha coefficient determination (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Heckmann et al., 2014).

Reliability for the pilot study was obtained using 10 percent of the calculated sample size (358). The 36 questionnaires were administered to permanent and non-permanent University Lecturers of a Public University that was not included in the final study.

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The data collection instrument has questions that are tallied on a wide range of values in which the responses from the respondents are on a 5-point Likert scale that is Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2, Undecided=3, Agree=4 and Strongly Agree=5. The analysis was done using Cronbach Alpha Coefficient in SPSS Version 25. The reliability is expressed as a coefficient between 0 and 1.00. The result from the analysis was .946, which shows excellent reliability and is above the acceptable level of 0.70. The nearer the Cronbach's alpha reciprocal is to unity (1.0) the better the inherent uniformity of the predictors in the scope and the more reliable the instrument (Taherdoost, 2016).

3.8.2 Validity of the Instrument

Validation of a survey instrument is a crucial task in the investigative (research) process (Elangovan and Sundaravel, 2021). For a data collection instrument to be reliable, it must also fulfill the requirements for validity (Taherdoost, 2016). Validity determines whether the research instruments truly measured what they were designed to measure (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). A panel of experts or judges in the field of study validated the different categories of the validity of (or standardisation) the data collection instruments (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The researcher adopted the content and face validity for the study.

Face validity indicates the certainty with which the measurement-gathering tool's surface examination of a currency checks what it is supposed to test. A device has face effectiveness if its composition readily appears appropriate to the person taking the measurement (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In this thesis, the measurement-gathering instruments: the questionnaire, by looking at the questions on their face value, show that it is robust enough and that they measured what they are supposed to measure for the investigation. Face validity, in order words, refers to the researcher's subjective assessments of the presentation and relevance of the measuring tool whether the items appear to be relevant, reasonable, unambiguous, and clear (Taherdoost, 2016). The researcher painstakingly ensured that items on the questionnaire were carefully designed following a deliberate, extensive, and thorough review of literature on the phenomenon under investigation. Modifications

of items were made at the onset of the collation of the questionnaire items through guidance and expert advice from supervisors, other scholars in human capital management, and expert committees. The knowledge gained from the analysis of data collected through the pilot study was also used to fine-tune the questionnaire for the main study.

Similarly, for content validity, the researcher carefully reviewed appropriate and connected literature to obtain pertinent information, and obtained experts advice from researchers in the fields of HRM, recognised organisational endorsement, and effectiveness (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Greenberg, 1990). Also, invaluable knowledge was obtained from the pilot study. According to Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Omrod, 2010, composition effectiveness signifies the degree to which the data-collecting instruments assessed the variables they were supposed to measure. Each of the four questionnaire sections used for the research reflected the appropriate questions of the thesis.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentations

The measurements gathered were organised, scrutinised, and analysed, respectively (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The data was analysed according to the research objectives of the thesis using the 25th Edition of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The reliability and validity tests determined the internal consistency of the data using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For data analysis and presentations, the study adopted both descriptive and inferential statistics. Both statistics are utilised in empirical data analysis and are vitally important in statistics (Mishra, Pandey, Singh, Gupta, Sahu & Keshri, 2019).

3.9.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are the type of summarised information presented to report the main characteristics of the data in a study such as percentage, frequency, mean, and standard deviation, (Mishra, Pandey, Singh, Gupta, Sahu & Keshri, 2019). Descriptive data analysis was conducted to summarise the data in the study. Both quantitative and qualitative data were captured. The data analysed were presented as

charts, diagrams, figures, graphs, and tables. Furthermore, appropriate descriptive statistics, like means, percentages, ranges, and standard deviations were also used to explain the connections between and among the variables. The qualitative data were analysed using content analysis.

3.9.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics deals with concluding analysis and testing for hypotheses (Mishra, Pandey, Singh, Gupta, Sahu & Keshri, 2019). T-test, multiple regression analysis, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to test each of the hypotheses, whether each statistically supports the 95% confidence interval or not. The study used a multiple regression model to measure recognised organisational endorsement on academic employee effectiveness in chosen public universities in Kenya and also to determine if there is any causal relationship. The multiple linear regression analysis specified the strength and direction of the linear relationships that exist between the individual variables and recognised organisational endorsement. The two-variable interactions that exist between the determined study variables and the contingent variables were also considered. The Pearson correlation coefficient was also used to measure the strengths and directions of the linear relationships that exist between the independent variables, dependent variable, and the moderating variables of the phenomenon under investigation.

3.9.3 Statistical Modelling

One of the most commonly used models to explain the influence of several variables on a continuous outcome variable is the linear regression model (Ernst and Albers, 2017). The study utilised the Multiple Regression model to test the power of recognised organisational endorsement on academic employee effectiveness in the chosen seven public universities in Kenya. There were four individual predictors in this thesis and therefore the multiple regression model becomes:

$$Y = \beta o + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + B_3 X_3 + B_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

where: Y= Perceived Organisational Support on Academic Employee commitment; X_1 = Working conditions; X_2 = Organisational rewards; X_3 = Procedural justice; X_4 = Supervisor's support; ε = Error term, the disturbance is between 0 and 1;

β_0 = Constant; β_1= Regression coefficient of X_1, β_2 = Regression coefficient

of X_2,

β_3 = Regression coefficient of X_3; β_4 = Regression coefficient of X_4;

3.9.4 Testing for Moderation

A Moderator is a factor that influences the direction and vigour of the interconnections that lie between an individual predictor and a contingent variable. This predictor may vary the course and also reduce or raise the intensity of the exchange between a predictor variable and a dependent variable. The moderating variable in this study was organisational culture. The statistical model used is as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_1 \cdot M + \beta_6 X_1 \cdot M + \beta_7 X_2 \cdot M + \beta_8 X_3 \cdot M + \beta_9 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

where:

X = Composite of all the independent variables; M = Moderating Variable (organisational culture); X.M = Moderator Multiplied by the Composite; ε = Error

(disturbance) term

3.9.5 Test of Hypotheses

A hypothesis refers to the researcher's opinion concerning the outcome of the study under investigation (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2018). According to Kothari (2011), a hypothesis is a set of assumptions presented to be confirmed or disproved. To test a hypothesis implies stating whether or not the hypothesis is valid (Kothari & Garg, 2013). The study performed individual tests of all independent variables namely: perceived organisational support, organisational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor's support to determine which regression coefficient may be zero and which one is not. The conclusion was based on the p-value. Inferences were drawn based on the tested hypotheses, while conclusions and recommendations were made based on the results.

The hypothesis is a numeric statement that the researcher formulates about the population value of the test statistic (Emmert-Streib & Dehmer, 2019). According to Emmert-Streib and Dehmer (2019), the basic idea of a statistical hypothesis test is to decide if a data sample is characteristic or representative or non-representative compared to a population assuming a hypothesis we formulated about the population is true. Researchers usually adopt two hypotheses which are referred to as the null hypothesis H0 and the alternative hypothesis H1 (non-directional) are always the norm Mugenda and Mugenda (2018). For this study, hypotheses were tested at a 95 % Confidence Interval level ($\alpha = 0.05$).

3.9.6 Diagnostic Tests

All statistical tests have inherent presumptions that are required to be met so that the test produces authentic results (Shatz, 2023; Patino & Ferreira, 2018). Most statistical diagnostic tests depend on specific presumptions about the predictors employed in the analysis. If these assumptions are not achieved the outcomes may not be reliable and the researcher would end up committing either a Type I or Type II error, over-estimation or under-estimation of significance or effect, biased estimates, inconsistent estimates, and the ordinary least squares estimator may not be efficient anymore (Shatz, 2023; Flatt & Jacobs, 2019; Ernst & Albers, 2017; Osborne &

Waters, 2002-2003). Regression presupposes that predictors are normally distributed. Kurtotic or highly skewed variables can distort effect or influence the significance tests (Osborne & Waters, 2002-2003).

The Linear Regression model assumes that there exists a linear relationship between the coefficient of independent variables (X) and the dependent variable (Y); that the residuals are normally distributed. Also, that the variance of the residuals is constant across all values of the independent variable, there is no autocorrelation between errors, and there is no or low correlation between independent variables also known as multicollinearity (Shatz, 2023; Flatt & Jacobs, 2019; Ernst & Albers, 2017). Each assumption can be analysed in two ways, namely: graphically or statistically (Flatt and Jacobs, 2019). In statistics, the diagnostic test is one of a set of procedures available for regression analysis that assesses the validity of a model in different ways. The diagnostic tests carried out in this study were linearity, multicollinearity, autocorrelation, normality, heteroscedasticity, and outliers (Gujarati & Porter, 2010).

Linearity is the conditional mean of the dependent variable which is a linear function of the independent variable (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). Testing linearity is of major import since many raw data in scientific fields are not large enough to guarantee accurate nonparametric estimation (Feng, Li, & Song, 2022). The Linearity assumption states that the conditional mean of the error is assumed to be zero from any given combination of values of the predictor variable (Ernst & Albers, 2017).

Multicollinearity occurs when the multiple linear regression analysis includes several variables that are significantly correlated not only with the dependent variable but also with each other (Shrestha, 2020). It refers to the correlation among the independent variables in a multiple regression model. It is usually invoked when some correlations are large (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). Multicollinearity occurs in multiple regression models where two or more explanatory variables are closely related to each other (Shweta, 2021). Multicollinearity is a more serious problem if the number of independent variables is less than or just equal to the number of observations. A scatter plot can be used to check the correlation between the independent variables. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is used as an indicator of

multicollinearity. The larger the value of VIF, the more correlated the variable is with other regressors. VIF shows how much the variance of a variable is inflated due to the presence of multicollinearity. As the extent of collinearity increases, VIF also increases. If there is no collinearity between two variables, VIF will be 1 (Shweta, 2021). Solutions for Multicollinearity are to remove the variable with high VIF and use Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to come up with non-correlated variables (Shweta, 2021).

Autocorrelation means that the error term of one observation is not influenced by the error term of another observation. In case the variables affect or influence one another, then, it is termed autocorrelation. Linear regression model assumes that error terms are independent and this is generally observed in time series data (Shweta, 2021). Durbin Watson test is used to check for autocorrelation. The value of the statistic will lie between 0 and 4. A value between 1.8 and 2.2 indicates no autocorrelation. A value less than 1.8 indicates positive autocorrelation and a value greater than 2.2 indicates negative autocorrelation (Shweta, 2021). One can also look at a scatter plot with residuals on one axis and the time component on the other axis. If the residuals are randomly distributed, there is no autocorrelation. If a specific pattern is observed, it indicates the presence of autocorrelation.

Normality is the classical linear model assumption which indicates that the error or the dependent variable has a normal distribution. The Jarque–Bera test determines if the skewness and kurtosis of the error term match a normal distribution (Flatt and Jacobs, 2019; Gujarati & Porter, 2010). Assumptions of normality could be tested using both graphical and numerical tests. Visual inspection of data plots, skew, kurtosis, and P-P plots are graphical tests while Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk tests provide inferential statistics on normality (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019). The researcher tested for normality using the K-S test.

Heteroscedasticity means unequal variance. Researchers have found that heteroscedasticity is usually found in cross-sectional data and not in time series (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). Homoscedasticity means that the variance of errors is the same across all levels of the predictors and when the variance of errors differs at

different values of the independent variable, heteroscedasticity results (Osborne & Waters, 2002-2003). This assumption can be checked by visual examination of a plot of the standardised residuals (the errors) by the regression standardised predicted value (Osborne & Waters, 2002-2003).

Outliers are observations with values outside the range of the data. The approach to guard against outliers is to use an estimation method that is less sensitive to outliers than Ordinary Least Squares (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). Removal of outliers is straightforward in most statistical software but it is not always desirable to remove outliers. Transformations through the use of square root, log, or inverse, can improve normality but may complicate the interpretation of the results, and should be used deliberately and in an informed manner (Osborne & Waters, 2002-2003). Furthermore, outliers can be identified either through visual inspection of histograms or frequency distributions or by converting data to z-scores, (Osborne & Waters, 2002-2003).

3.10 Summary of the Research Methodology

This section of the thesis comprises a summary of the methodology. It considers Research Philosophy, Research Design, Target Population, Sampling Frame, Sample Size and Sampling Technique, and Data Collection Instrument. Others comprise Questionnaire, Data Collection Procedure, Pilot Study, Reliability of the Instrument, Validity of the Instrument, Data Analysis and Presentations, Descriptive Statistics, Inferential Statistics, Statistical Modelling, Testing of Hypotheses, and Diagnostic Tests.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This section of the thesis presents the findings and the analysis of perceived organisational support on academic employee commitment in top public universities in Kenya. The findings are presented according to the response rate of the respondents, pilot study results, demographic information, descriptive results, diagnostic tests, and inferential results, and the specific objectives that the study was set to investigate.

4.2 Response Rate

The response rate is presented in Figure 4. 1. In total, 358 respondents were targeted in this study. From this number, 288 respondents participated and gave their views. The overall response rate was therefore 80.4 percent. This response rate was deemed satisfactory as suggested by Sekaran & Bougie (2016) who recommend 75.0 percent as a rule of thumb for minimum responses. Since the return rate was above 70.0% it was regarded as an outstanding response rate and was utilised for further analysis and discussions in the study.
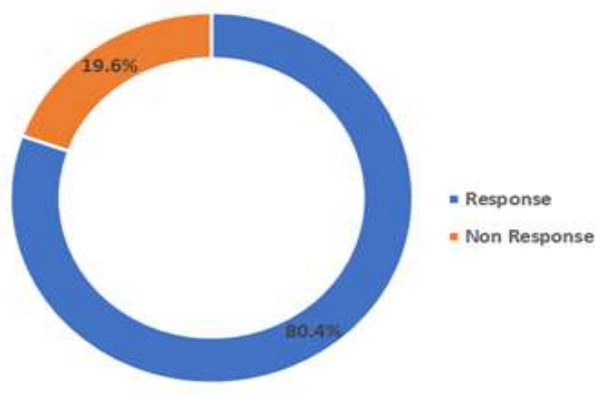
Figure 4.1: Response Rate

4.3 Pilot Study Results

4.3.1 Reliability of the Research Instrument

The reliability of a measurement or a scale demonstrates whether it is without random errors. It is also the certainty that the measurement is dependable, reliable, and reproducible with similar results (Taherdoost, 2016). Reliability measures the internal consistency of the data collection instruments (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Internal consistency can be measured in several ways but the most commonly used statistic is the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. It is seen as the most appropriate measure of reliability when making use of Likert scales (Taherdoost, 2016).

The sample size for the pilot study was 10 percent of the calculated sample size (10.0% of 358 equals 36 questionnaires). The administered questionnaires were to permanent and non-permanent University Lecturers of a Public University not included in the final study. Over 40 lecturers (full-time and part-time) received the questionnaires designed for the study in the Public University. Only 31 questionnaires were returned (86.1% response rate of the expected 36) and analysed for the study. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was 0.926 (92.6%). It indicates that the questionnaire design and data-gathering instrument were 92.6% reliable.

The data collection instrument has questions that are tallied on a wide range of values in which the responses from the respondents are on a 5-point Likert scale that includes Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2, Undecided=3, Agree=4 and Strongly Agree=5. The analysis was done using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient in SPSS Version 25. The reliability is expressed as a coefficient between 0 and 1.00. The result from the analysis was 0.946, which shows excellent reliability and is above the acceptable level of 0.70. The nearer the Cronbach's alpha reciprocal is to unity (1.0) the better the inherent uniformity of the predictors in the scope and the more reliable the instrument (Taherdoost, 2016).

From the findings presented in Table 4.1, working conditions constitute Cronbach alpha value of 0.833, organisational rewards analysis of Cronbach alpha was found to be 0.867, organisational justice Cronbach alpha value was 0.879, Supervisor's

support analysis of Cronbach alpha value was 0.610 (a moderate value which accounts for 61.0% but reliable), employee commitment had Cronbach alpha value of 0.707 and organisational culture had an alpha value of 0.773. The overall Cronbach's alpha value for the 46 items was established to be 0.946. Although a score of 0.7 is usually accepted for most studies, psychological studies accept 0.6 as

an alpha reliability coefficient (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Heckmann et al, 2014). The Cronbach's alpha value for the supervisor's support was 0.610 which indicates that the supervisor's support is low and needs to be boosted or enhanced in the University system to improve academic employee commitment. However, academic employees perceive that their supervisors do not always fairly reward them when considering the work they do (M = 2.62, SD = 1.25). This suggests potential issues with perceived fairness in reward allocation by supervisors. Additionally, while academic employees perceive kindness and consideration from their supervisors when decisions are made about their job (M = 3.19, SD = 1.26), there is room for improvement in this aspect of supervisor behaviour. Academic employees understand that their supervisors' management and leadership styles do not permit academic advice in decision-making (M = 2.91, SD = 1.31). This signifies a potential disadvantage in the degree to which academic staff members can partake in decision-making activities, which may upset their sense of support and commitment. The findings also align to some extent with other studies conducted by Ahmad, Lee, and Salim (2022), Uwanna, Onyekachi, and Filade (2021), Kaiyom, Rahman, and Mustaffa (2021), and Azmy (2019).

Table 4.1: Reliability Analysis

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Remarks
Working Conditions	6	0.833	Reliable
Organisational Rewards	7	0.867	Reliable
Organisational Justice	11	0.879	Reliable
Supervisor's Support	5	0.610	Reliable
Employee Commitment	12	0.707	Reliable
Organisational Culture	5	0.773	Reliable
Overall Cronbach's Alpha	46	0.946	Reliable

4.3.2 Validity of the Research Instrument

Validation of a survey instrument is crucial in the investigative (research) process (Elangovan & Sundaravel, 2021). For a data collection instrument to be reliable, it must also fulfill the requirements for validity (Taherdoost, 2016). Validity determines whether the research instruments truly measured what they were designed to measure (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). A panel of experts or judges in the field of study validated the different categories of the validity of (or standardisation) the data collection instruments (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The researcher adopted the content and face validity for the study.

Face validity indicates the certainty with which the measurement-gathering tool's surface examination of a currency checks what it should test. A device has face effectiveness if its composition readily appears appropriate to the person taking the measurement (Taherdoost, 2016; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In this thesis, the measurement-gathering instruments: the questionnaire, by looking at the questions on their face value, show that it is robust enough and that they measured what they are supposed to measure for the investigation. Face validity, in other words, refers to the researcher's subjective assessments of the presentation and relevance of the measuring tool whether the items appear to be relevant, reasonable, unambiguous, and clear (Taherdoost, 2016). The researcher painstakingly ensured that items on the questionnaire were carefully designed following a deliberate, extensive, and thorough review of the literature on the phenomenon under investigation. Modifications of items were made at the onset of the collation of the questionnaire items through the guidance and expert advice from supervisors, and other researchers in human resource management and expert panels. The results of the analysis of data collected through the pilot study were also used to fine-tune the questionnaire for the main study.

Similarly, for content validity, the researcher carefully reviewed appropriate and connected literature to obtain pertinent information, and obtained expert advice from researchers in the fields of HRM, recognised organisational endorsement, and effectiveness (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Greenberg,

1990). Also, invaluable knowledge was obtained from the pilot study. According to Taherdoost, (2016); Leedy and Omrod, (2010), composition effectiveness signifies the degree to which the data-collecting instruments assessed the variables they were supposed to measure. Each of the four questionnaire sections used for the research reflected the appropriate questions of the thesis.

4.4 Demographic Information

This section presents the data analysis of the biographical information of respondents who participated in the study. Specifically, the study sought to establish respondents' gender, marital status, institutions the respondents are working for, age of respondents, highest academic qualification, years worked in the institution, the nature of work, employment type, and current position. Demographic data is important in this study to enable researchers and stakeholders to observe the patterns of general information distribution in the selected top public universities in Kenya.

4.4.1 Gender of Respondents

Table 4.2 indicates that there was over fifty-six percent (56.6%) of male respondents, over forty-two percent (42.4%) of female respondents, and about one percent (1.0%) did not indicate their gender. This shows that males are more than female lecturers in the selected top public universities in Kenya. Both genders were involved in the study which reflects no gender bias and also indicates that both genders were given equal opportunity inclusion to participate in the study without any discrimination. It further reveals that 42.4% participation and representation of academic female lecturers in the study is an improvement of female access to the university academic workforce.

This study corroborates the findings from the UNESCO report (Galán-Muros, Bouckaert & Roser, 2023; Wendt, Gunnes & Aksens (2022) that female lecturer's representation in Higher Institutions has increased from 31.6% in 1974 to 43.6% in 2020 with undeniable distinction in all areas of the globe except for Sub-Saharan Africa where University academic female teachers' representation is still low (25.9% in 1995 compared with 25.2% in 2020), also corroborated in the findings from Hailu,

Lee, Halkiyo, Tsotniashvili and Tewari (2023); Ojwala, Kitada, Neat and Buchingham (2022). Therefore, the government of Kenya should scale up policies such as the provision of childcare support, funding policies to encourage women to pursue academic careers, raise more awareness, collaborate with HEIs to provide resources for research on gender balance in HEIs, and provision of parents child care subsidies in order to increase the number of female University academic employees.

Table 4.2: Gender: Male or Female

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	163	56.6	57.2	57.2
	Female	122	42.4	42.8	100.0
	Total	285	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.0		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.2 Marital Status

Table 4.3 indicates that just over twenty-seven percent (27.1%) of the respondents were single, almost sixty-one percent (60.8%) were married, about three and a half percent (3.5%) were separated, over two percent (2.4%) were widowed, over two percent (2.4%) were divorced, and close to four percent (3.8%) did not indicate their marital status. Findings from the study depict that the majority of the respondents were married. This suggests that the study considered the married, single, separated, widowed, and divorced. No one was discriminated against based on their marital status. Therefore, working in public universities in Kenya is based on something other than whether respondents are married or not. This further suggests that recruitment and final appointment are based on qualifications and experience.

Table 4.3: Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	78	27.1	28.2	28.2
	Married	175	60.8	63.2	91.3
	Separated	10	3.5	3.6	94.9
	Widow(er)	7	2.4	2.5	97.5
	Divorced	7	2.4	2.5	100.0
	Total	277	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	11	3.8		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.3 Institution

Table 4.4 implies that over fifteen (15.0%) percent of the respondents were from the University of Nairobi, over seventeen percent (17.0%) were from Moi University, about seventeen percent (17.0%) were from Kenyatta University, over twelve percent (12.0%) were from Egerton University, over seventeen percent (17.0%) were from Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, over eleven percent (11.0%) were from Maseno University and over eight percent (8.0%) were from Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. The findings show a similar proportion of respondents from traditional universities while the technological and relatively newly established universities expressed a low number of respondents. This is also attributed to the proportional size of the staff population. Both conventional and technological universities provided the needed information for the study.

Table 4.4: Institution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	University of Nairobi	44	15.3	15.3	15.3
	Moi University	50	17.4	17.4	32.6
	Kenyatta University	49	17.0	17.0	49.7
	Egerton University	36	12.5	12.5	62.2
	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	51	17.7	17.7	79.9
	Maseno University	34	11.8	11.8	91.7
	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology	24	8.3	8.3	100.0
	Total	288	100.0	100.0	

4.4.4 Age of Academic Workforce

Table 4.5 signifies that over seven percent (7.3%) of the lecturers were between 20 and 24 years old, close to thirteen percent (12.8%) were between 25 and 29 years old, about twenty-one percent (20.8%) were between 30 and 34 years old, just over thirteen percent (13.2%) were between 35 and 39 years old, about thirteen and a half percent (13.5%) were between 40 and 44 years old, close to eleven percent (10.8%) were between 45 and 49 years old, close to eighteen percent (17.7%) were over 50 years old, and close to four percent (3.8%) did not indicate their age. Overall, just over fifty-four percent (54.1%) of the respondents were below 40 years old and over forty-four percent (44.4%) were over 40 years old.

Different age groups participated in the study as displayed in Table 4.5 which shows that respondents were offered the opportunity to provide information on the data collection instrument. Both young and older academic employees from the chosen public universities in Kenya had an equal chance of being chosen without segregation. The findings deduce that most lecturers (54.1%) fall between the ages of

20 and 39 years which implies that young academic staff members are more than the older academic employees in the chosen public universities. 24.3% of lecturers fall between the age group 40 and 49 years while only 17.7% are above 50 years old. The university should invigorate and revitalise the discharge of established protocols of mentorship and training of younger academia in the chosen public universities in Kenya.

Table 4.5: Age of Academic Employee

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-24	21	7.3	7.6	7.6
	25-29	37	12.8	13.4	20.9
	30-34	60	20.8	21.7	42.6
	35-39	38	13.2	13.7	56.3
	40-44	39	13.5	14.1	70.4
	45-49	31	10.8	11.2	81.6
	50 and Above	51	17.7	18.4	100.0
	Total	277	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	11	3.8		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.5 Highest Academic Degree

Table 4.6 signifies that about forty-seven percent (46.9%) of the respondents hold a doctor of philosophy degree, about forty-four percent (43.8%) hold a master's degree, around eight percent (8.0%) hold a bachelor's degree, and over one percent (1.4%) did not state their academic qualifications. The findings show that most of the respondents have PhDs in the selected top public universities in Kenya. This supports Kenya's Government policy of encouraging academic employees to possess PhD degrees to meet the Kenya 2023 Vision and CUE Policy (Matheka, Jansen & Hofman (2020); Nganga (2019)).

Table 4.6: Highest Academic Degree

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	PhD	135	46.9	47.5	47.5
	Masters	126	43.8	44.4	91.9
	Bachelor(s)	23	8.0	8.1	100.0
	Total	284	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	4	1.4		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.6 Years Worked in the University

Table 4.7 implies that about forty-one percent (41.0%) of the lecturers have worked in the University for less than five years, close to twenty-three percent (22.9%) have between 6 and 10 years of experience, over fourteen percent (14.6%) have between 11 and 15 years experience, over five percent (5.6%) have between 16 and 20 years experience, close to three percent (2.8%) have between 21 and 25 years experience, just over two percent (2.1%) have between 26 and 30 years experience, about one percent (1.0%) have over 30 years experience, and just over ten percent (10.1%) did not indicate the time spent in the University as workers.

Overall, close to sixty-four percent (63.9%) of the lecturers have worked in the University system for less than 10 years. The study sought to document the accumulated number of years that respondents have served in their University. The findings demonstrate that lecturers have worked for different numbers of years in their universities. The majority (63.9%) of the lecturers who participated in the study had worked between 0 and 10 years. This signifies that the lecturers were in a position to provide useful and suitable information for the research.

Table 4.7: Years Worked in Organisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-5 Years	118	41.0	45.6	45.6
	6-10 Years	66	22.9	25.5	71.0
	11-15 Years	42	14.6	16.2	87.3
	16-20 Years	16	5.6	6.2	93.4
	21-25 Years	8	2.8	3.1	96.5
	26-30 Years	6	2.1	2.3	98.8
	Above 30 Years	3	1.0	1.2	100.0
	Total	259	89.9	100.0	
Missing	System	29	10.1		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.7 Nature of Work

Table 4.8 indicates that about sixty-one and a half percent (61.5%) were permanent lecturers, about thirty-six and a half percent (36.5%) were non-permanent lecturers, and just over two percent (2.1%) did not indicate the nature of their lecturing work in the University. Most of the participants (61.5%) were permanent lecturers at the time of the study. It indicates that the Universities chosen for this study offered permanent job opportunities to their academic employees and that the permanent academic staff members carry out the bulk of the work.

Table 4.8: Nature of Work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Full-Time Lecturer	177	61.5	62.8	62.8
	Part-Time Lecturer	105	36.5	37.2	100.0
	Total	282	97.9	100.0	
Missing	System	6	2.1		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.8 Employment Type

Table 4.9 indicates that about fifty percent (50.0%) of the lecturers were on permanent employment contracts, just over forty-seven percent (47.2%) were on non-permanent contracts, and close to three percent (2.8%) did not indicate their employment contract types. The findings illustrate that the chosen public universities for the study offered permanent employment contracts to their academic employees, which is also complemented by non-permanent contracts offered to part-time and expatriate academic employees (47.2%).

Table 4.9: Employment Type

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Permanent Contract	144	50.0	51.4	51.4
	Non Permanent Contract	136	47.2	48.6	100.0
	Total	280	97.2	100.0	
Missing	System	8	2.8		
Total		288	100.0		

4.4.9 Current Position

Table 4.10 indicates that about seven percent (6.9%) of the respondents were Full Professors, about seven percent (6.9%) were Associate Professors, about fifteen percent (14.9%) were Senior Lecturers, over thirty-one percent (31.6%) were Lecturers, about ten percent (9.7%) were Assistant Lecturers, just over twenty percent (20.1%) were Tutorial Fellows, about seven percent (6.9%) were Teaching Assistants, and about three percent (2.8%) did not indicate their position in the University. Most of the respondents (15%) were in the lecturer position while full Professor and Assistant Professor constitute only 6.9% in each category. These findings corroborate the UNESCO (Galán-Muros, Bouckaert, & Roser, 2023) report that top positions in academia are thinly occupied.

Table 4.10: Current Position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Professor	20	6.9	7.1	7.1
	Associate Professor	20	6.9	7.1	14.3
	Senior Lecturer	43	14.9	15.4	29.6
	Lecturer	91	31.6	32.5	62.1
	Assistant Lecturer	28	9.7	10.0	72.1
	Tutorial Fellow	58	20.1	20.7	92.9
	Teaching Assistant	20	6.9	7.1	100.0
	Total	280	97.2	100.0	
Missing	System	8	2.8		
Total		288	100.0		

4.5 Descriptive Statistics Results

This section of the thesis presents the descriptive statistics results for the independent, dependent, and moderating variables. The sub-sections analysed each variable and presented the results in percentages, means, and standard deviations. The results quantitatively showcase the patterns of the analysis, interpreted for clarity, and meaningful decision-making for all stakeholders in academia. The 5-point Likert scale questionnaire design was used to gather data and statistically analysed using SPSS. The scale measured the degree of lecturers' agreement with each of the proposed independent variable statements listed in the sub-sections and tables on the questionnaire. The 5-point Likert scale ranged between 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Undecided; 4 = Agree; and 5 = Strongly Agree.

4.5.1 Working Conditions

The feedback on the indicators for working conditions was obtained using a 5-point Likert scale. The scores were analysed using SPSS version 25 to calculate the percentage, mean scores, and standard deviations for each of the indicators assigned

to measure the working conditions in the chosen public universities. Table 4.11 illustrates the University lecturers' feedback pattern of how working conditions influenced academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya. The percentage results presented in Table 4.11 indicate that the majority of academic employees (64.3%) agree that the working conditions in the institution are favourable; 42.0% of the respondents believe that state-of-the-art office infrastructure was provided to academic employees in the University; 68.0% of the respondents agree that academic employees enjoy academic freedom at the University; 60.8% of the lecturers agree that academic employee contracts were adhered to in the University; 42.7% of the lecturers agree that research tools like computers, laboratories, and software for analyses and simulation, were provided. Overall, just over twenty-nine percent (29.2%) of the lecturers agree that research grants and publications fees were provided to academic employees in the University.

The findings on the mean scores and standard deviations indicate that academic employees perceive the overall working conditions in the institution to be favourable (M = 3.46, SD = 1.22). This suggests that, on average, the academic staff considers their working conditions satisfactory. Similarly, academic employees perceive their office infrastructure to be relatively up-to-date (M = 3.03, SD = 1.25) and report enjoying academic freedom (M = 3.62, SD = 1.12), indicating autonomy and independence in their work. Additionally, adherence to employment contracts is perceived positively by academic employees (M = 3.41, SD = 1.30), indicating a level of trust and compliance within the organisation. However, the provision of research tools such as computers, laboratory equipment, and software packages is perceived to be relatively lower (M = 2.95, SD = 1.31), indicating potential areas for improvement in this aspect of working conditions. Furthermore, academic employees' perception of the provision of research grants and publications fees is low (M=2.68, SD=1.27), indicating areas for improvement in the selected top public universities in Kenya. Improving this facet of working conditions would lead to an improvement in the commitment of academic employees to their Institutions.

These findings suggest that while the overall working conditions are considered favourable, there is room for enhancing the provision of research tools to support

academic employees in their research and experimental work. Previous studies provide insights that corroborate the findings regarding the power of working conditions on academic employee commitment in universities. Their findings indicated favourable working conditions, including infrastructure, resources, and academic freedom, positively influenced employee commitment. This aligns with the present study's findings, where academic employees perceived working conditions and academic freedom positively associated with their commitment.

This finding supports the notion that improved working conditions contribute to increased employee commitment. In a study conducted by Nordin et al. (2020) in a Swedish university, the researchers investigated the influence of working conditions on academic staff's commitment. Their findings showed that favourable working conditions, such as the availability of necessary resources and supportive infrastructure, positively impacted the commitment levels of academic employees. The findings are also in conformity with the studies conducted in Ethiopian Universities by (Abebe and Assemie, 2023), in Government–Owned Universities in Nigeria by (Adeniji, Adelana, and Ogunsile, 2022), by Janib, Rasdi, and Zaremohzzabieh (2022), and also the study by Mugove and Mukanzi (2018). This finding is consistent with the results of the present study, where academic staff's perception of working conditions influenced their commitment.

Table 4.11: Working Conditions

Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean	SD
Working conditions are generally favourable	9.8	17.4	8.0	47.6	16.7	3.46	1.22
Office infrastructure is an example of the state-of-the-art	12.2	26.0	16.3	30.6	11.5	3.03	1.25
Academic employees enjoy academic freedom	8.0	9.0	10.1	52.4	15.6	3.62	1.12
Employment contracts are adhered to	12.5	13.9	7.3	46.3	18.0	3.41	1.30
Research tools are provided like computers, laboratory for experiments, software packages for analysis and simulation	14.9	29.2	11.5	30.9	11.8	2.95	1.31
Research grants and publications fees are provided	22.2	18.1	18.8	24.3	4.9	2.68	1.27
Overall Mean						**3.19**	**1.25**

N=288

4.5.2 Organisational Rewards

The responses on the indicators for organisational rewards were gathered using a 5-point Likert scale. The scores were analysed using SPSS version 25 to calculate the percentage frequencies, mean scores, and standard deviations for each of the indicators assigned to measure the working conditions in the institutions. Table 4.12 shows the pattern of lecturers' responses on how organisational rewards influenced academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya.

The percentage descriptive statistics results of the indicators used for measuring organisational rewards are presented in Table 4.12. It shows that over fifty-six percent (56.2%) of the lecturers agree that the University recognises their good work; just over forty-four percent (44.1%) of the lecturers agree that they were promoted based on their contribution; 51.0% of the lecturers agree that they were allowed to advance on an annual salary scale; 51.8% of the lecturers agree that the University assigned them challenging and rewarding jobs; 48.6% of the lecturers agree that

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annual leave allowances were paid regularly; 35.4% of the lecturers agree responsibility allowances and claims were paid on time, and only about 34.0% of the lecturers agree that their salary increment is based on performance.

In addition, Table 4.12 contains the mean scores and standard deviations of the indicators used for measuring organisational rewards. The findings suggest that lecturers perceive the recognition of their good work in the university to be relatively low (M = 2.68, SD = 1.27). This indicates that they feel the institution does not adequately acknowledge their efforts and contributions. On the other hand, lecturers report being given the opportunity for advancement on an annual scale (M = 3.35, SD = 1.26) and promotions based on their contributions (M = 3.29, SD = 1.23), indicating a positive perception of the organisation's recognition and reward system in these areas. Furthermore, lecturers perceive the institution as assigning challenging and rewarding jobs (M = 3.06, SD = 1.29), indicating fulfilment and satisfaction derived from their job responsibilities. The regular payment of annual leave allowances (M = 3.21, SD = 1.31) and responsibility allowances and claims (M = 3.23, SD = 1.36) also contribute to the perceived organisational rewards. However, the perception of lecturers regarding salary increments based on performance in the university is relatively low (M = 2.87, SD = 1.27), indicating potential dissatisfaction with the link between performance and financial rewards. These findings highlight the importance of recognising and rewarding lecturers for their good work, providing opportunities for advancement, and ensuring fairness and transparency in the promotion and salary increment processes. Addressing these areas would positively impact academic employee commitment in public universities in Kenya.

Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding the power of organisational rewards to stimulate academic employee commitment in universities. Okolie and Egbon (2024) investigated the interconnection between organisational rewards and employee effectiveness in a higher education setting. The findings revealed that recognition of employees' good work and opportunities for advancement significantly influenced employee commitment. This supports the present study's finding that academic employees' perception of recognition and opportunities for advancement positively impacts their commitment. The study by

Nguni et al. (2006) which explored the impact of organisational rewards on employee commitment in a South African university, found that promotion based on contribution, challenging job assignments, and regular payment of allowances positively influenced employee commitment.

These findings align with the present study's results, where academic employees perceived promotions based on contribution and challenging job assignments as positively influencing their commitment. Another study by Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2009) focused on the interconnection between organisational rewards and employee effectiveness in a Canadian university. The evidence illustrates that fair and timely payment of allowances and salary increments based on performance positively affected employee commitment. Other studies conducted on the effects of organisational rewards on employee commitment also corroborated the findings that rewards are instrumental to organisational (employee) commitment Orajaka (2021), Mabaso and Dlamini (2021), Mabaso, (2017), Isimoya, Olajide, and Onafalujo (2018), Kharel (2018), Chelangat and Gachunga (2016), and also the study of Korir and Kipkebut, (2016). This finding supports the result of the present study that regular payment of allowances and the perception of fair salary increments contribute to academic employee commitment.

Table 4.12: Organisational Rewards

Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean	SD
The University recognises my good work	9.4	20.5	11.8	39.9	16.3	2.68	1.27
I am given an opportunity for advancement on an annual scale	9.0	20.8	14.2	38.5	13.5	3.35	1.26
I am given a promotion based on my contribution	12.5	26.7	12.8	30.9	13.2	3.29	1.23
This Institution assigns me challenging and rewarding jobs	13.5	19.1	12.8	36.5	15.3	3.06	1.29
Annual leave allowances are paid regularly	13.5	19.1	14.6	28.8	19.8	3.21	1.31
Responsibility allowances and claims (acting allowance and other benefits attached to the position) are paid on time	16.3	25.3	19.8	25.3	10.1	3.23	1.36
Salary increment is based on performance in this University	18.4	30.2	12.2	22.2	11.8	2.87	1.27
Overall Mean						**3.10**	**1.28**

N=288

4.5.3 Organisational Justice

The findings regarding the power of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya are presented in Table 4.13. The responses on the indicators for organisational justice were captured using a 5-point Likert scale. The scores were analysed using SPSS version 25 to calculate the percentage frequencies, mean scores, and standard deviations for each indicator assigned to measure organisational justice in the selected institutions. Table 4.13 shows the feedback pattern on the power of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in chosen public universities in Kenya. The scale is based on the degree to which the respondents agreed, disagreed, or undecided on the independent variable statements listed in the table.

The percentage descriptive statistics results on indicators measuring organisational rewards are presented in Table 4.14. It shows that more than forty-three percent (43.4%) of the lecturers agree that the decisions on jobs were made without consulting the people performing those jobs; above sixty-five percent (65.6%) of the lecturers agree that the process of allocating their workload was fair; about forty-seven percent (46.9%) of the lecturers agree that academic employees' rewards were distributed on merit; above sixty-two percent (62.2%) of the lecturers agree that their salaries and benefits depend on qualifications and experience; about twenty-eight percent (27.8%) of the lecturers agree that they were satisfied with their remunerations; about forty-two percent (42.0%) of the lecturers agree that their supervisors fairly rewarded them for the work done; above fifty-seven percent (57.6%) of the lecturers agree that their supervisors' decisions about their jobs were kind and considerate; just above sixty-nine percent (69.1%) of the lecturers agree that academic employees cooperate and support each other in their academic tasks; sixty-one percent (60.8%) of the lecturers agree that their co-workers do not put each other down and 62.2% of the lecturers agree that academic employees support each other in their academic tasks.

Furthermore, inclusive in Table 4.12 is the descriptive statistics results on the mean scores and standard deviations on the indicators measuring organisational justice. The findings indicate that academic employees perceive the process of allocating their workload to be relatively fair (M = 3.02, SD =1.35), suggesting a perceived sense of fairness in the distribution of work responsibilities. Similarly, academic employees perceive the process of making decisions about themselves and their work in the university to be fair (M = 3.51, SD = 1.21), indicating a perceived sense of fairness in decision-making processes. Furthermore, the perception that rewards in the university are distributed based on merit (M = 3.52, SD = 1.15) and that academic staff salaries and benefits are paid according to qualifications and experience (M = 3.12, SD = 1.25) contribute to the perception of organisational justice. Academic employees also report being satisfied with their remuneration packages (M = 3.46, SD = 1.28), indicating a positive perception of the fairness of their compensation.

However, academic employees perceive that their supervisors do not always fairly reward them when considering the work they do (M = 2.62, SD = 1.25). This suggests potential issues with perceived fairness in reward allocation by supervisors. Additionally, while academic employees perceive kindness and consideration from their supervisors when decisions are made about their job (M = 3.19, SD = 1.26), there is room for improvement in this aspect of supervisor behaviour. Moreover, academic employees perceive a positive organisational justice climate concerning cooperation and support among colleagues in their academic tasks (M = 3.40, SD = 1.24). The perception that co-workers do not put each other down (M = 3.66, SD = 1.15) and that academic employees support each other in their academic tasks (M = 3.48, SD = 1.27) further contributes to a sense of organisational justice.

These findings emphasise the importance of fair workload allocation, decision-making processes, reward distribution, supervisor behaviour, and positive colleague interactions in promoting organisational justice and subsequently influencing academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya. Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding the power of organisational justice to stimulate academic employee commitment in universities. Research by Colquitt et al. (2013) investigated the interconnection between organisational justice and employee outcomes across various industries, including academia. The findings revealed that perceptions of fairness in workload allocation, decision-making processes, and reward distribution positively influenced employee commitment. This supports the present study's findings that academic employees' perception of fair workload allocation, fair decision-making processes, and merit-based rewards positively influence their commitment.

In the study conducted by Edeh and Ugwu (2019), the researchers explored the impact of organisational justice on employee commitment among academic employees. The results indicated that fair salary and benefits, as well as fair decision-making processes, significantly predicted higher levels of employee commitment. This finding aligns with the results of the present study, where academic employees' perception of fair salary and benefits and fair decision-making processes positively influenced their commitment. This study is also supported by the findings of

Teshome, Bitew, and Gebremeskal (2021), Orajaka (2021), Tafamel and Akrawah (2019), Mustofa (2019), Gichira, Were, and Orwa (2016), Al-Gharaibeh and Albdareen (2015), Anjum, ul Haq, Usman and Hussain (2014), noted that organisational justice, distribution justice, have a beneficial and substantial interconnection with employee effectiveness while interactive justice has a beneficial but minor interconnection with employee effectiveness. This finding supports the present study's result that academic employees' perception of merit-based rewards and fairness in supervisor behaviour contributes to their commitment.

Table 4.13: Organisational Justice

Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean	SD
Decisions on jobs are usually made without consultation with job performers	16.7	22.9	14.6	28.8	14.6	3.02	1.35
The process of allocating my workload is fair	8.7	15.6	8.0	47.9	17.7	3.02	1.35
The process of making decisions about me and my work at this University is fair	6.6	16.7	9.7	48.6	16.0	3.51	1.21
Rewards are distributed based on merit	11.8	22.9	13.9	36.1	10.8	3.52	1.15
Academic staff salaries and benefits are paid according to qualifications and experience	11.8	12.5	10.4	43.4	18.8	3.12	1.25
Academic staff are satisfied with their remuneration packages	19.1	33.3	13.9	20.1	7.6	3.46	1.28
My supervisor fairly rewarded me for the work I do	11.1	17.0	20.8	27.8	14.2	2.62	1.25
My supervisor's decisions about my job are kind and considerate	11.1	12.8	17.0	40.6	17.0	3.19	1.26
Academic staff cooperate and support each other in their academic tasks	7.3	11.1	10.4	48.3	20.8	3.40	1.24
My co-workers do not put each other down	8.0	19.8	8.7	38.9	21.9	3.66	1.15
Academic staff support each other in their academic tasks	8.3	13.9	7.3	38.2	24.0	3.48	1.27
Overall Mean						**3.85**	**1.71**

N=288

4.5.4 Supervisor's Support

The findings regarding the influence of supervisor's support on academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya are presented in Table 4.14. The responses on the indicators for organisational justice were gathered using a 5-point Likert scale. The scores were analysed using SPSS version 25 to calculate the percentage frequencies, mean scores, and standard deviations for each indicator assigned to measure organisational justice in the selected institutions. Table 4.14 shows the feedback pattern on the power of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in chosen public universities in Kenya. The scale is based on the degree to which the lecturers agreed, disagreed, or undecided on the independent variable statements listed in the table.

The percentage descriptive statistics results on indicators measuring supervisor's support are presented in Table 4.14. It shows that around sixty-three and a half percent (63.5%) of the lecturers agree that academic employee supervisors provide sufficient feedback and guidance on performance evaluation; over forty-six percent (46.9%) of the lecturers agree that supervision and performance evaluation of academic employees were fair and transparent in the University; over fifty percent (50.7%) of the lecturers agree that supervisors regularly congratulate them in recognition of their efforts; above sixty-four percent (64.6%) of the lecturers agree that their supervisors were sensitive and supportive of their work schedules and about forty-one percent (40.7%) of the lecturers agree that their supervisors' management and leadership styles do not allow academic input in decision-making.

Furthermore, Table 4.14 contains the descriptive statistics results of the mean scores and standard deviations on the indicators measuring supervisor's support. The findings indicate that academic employees perceive their supervisors to provide sufficient feedback and guidance on evaluation and performance (M = 3.58, SD = 1.16), indicating a positive aspect of supervisors' support. This suggests that supervisors actively provide guidance and feedback to academic employees, which can contribute to their sense of support and commitment. However, the perception of the fairness and transparency of supervision and evaluation of performance in the

university is relatively low (M = 2.83, SD = 1.27). This suggests that academic employees perceive room for improvement in the fairness and transparency of the performance evaluation processes conducted by their supervisors.

Academic employees report that supervisors regularly congratulate employees in recognition of their efforts (M = 3.24, SD = 1.27). This highlights a positive aspect of supervisor support, where supervisors acknowledge and appreciate the contributions and achievements of academic employees. Furthermore, academic employees perceive their supervisors to be sensitive and supportive of their work schedules (M = 3.50, SD = 1.20). This suggests that supervisors accommodate and understand the work schedule needs of academic staff, contributing to a supportive work environment. However, academic staff members recognise that their supervisors' management and leadership styles do not permit lecturers' opinions in governance (M = 2.91, SD = 1.31). This demonstrates a likely disadvantage in the degree to which lecturers can partake in University administration procedures, which may upset their understanding of support and commitment.

These outcomes emphasise the gravity of supervisors supplying enough appraisal and advice, impartial and candid assessment procedures, admission of employees' work, awareness of work programmes, and permitting lecturers' contribution in governance to enhance lecturers' commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya. Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding the power of supervisors' support on academic employee commitment in universities. A study by Eisenberger et al., (2002) explored the impact of supervisor support on employee outcomes, including commitment, in a variety of organisational settings. The findings revealed that supervisors who provided feedback, recognition, and support significantly enhanced employee commitment. This supports the present study's finding that academic employees' perception of sufficient feedback and guidance, recognition of their efforts, and sensitivity to their work schedules positively influence their commitment.

In a study conducted by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) among academic staff in higher education institutions, the researchers investigated the interactions between

recognised supervisor approval and teacher effectiveness. The evidence points out that supervisor support, including providing feedback, guidance, and recognition, significantly predicted higher levels of teacher commitment. This finding aligns with the results of the present study, where academic employees' perception of supervisor support, including feedback, guidance, and recognition, positively influences their commitment. Another study by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) focused specifically on the influence of supervisor support on employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The findings demonstrated that supervisors who exhibited supportive behaviours, such as providing feedback, recognition, and fair treatment, positively influenced employee commitment. The findings also align to some extent with other studies conducted by Ahmad, Lee, and Salim (2022), Uwanna, Onyekachi, and Filade (2021), Kaiyom, Rahman, and Mustaffa (2021), Azmy (2019) and also by Mohamed and Ali (2016). This finding supports the present study's result that academic employees' perception of supervisors' support, fair and transparent evaluation, and regular recognition positively contribute to their commitment.

Table 4.14: Supervisor's Support

Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean	SD
My supervisor provides sufficient feedback and guidance on evaluation and performance	6.9	13.2	14.2	43.4	20.1	3.58	1.16
Supervision and evaluation of performance in this University are fair and transparent	25.7	12.5	13.9	46.9	-------	2.83	1.27
Supervisors regularly congratulate employees in recognition of their efforts	12.5	18.1	17.7	35.1	15.6	3.24	1.27
The Supervisor is sensitive and supportive of academic staff work schedules	10.4	10.8	12.2	48.3	16.3	3.50	1.20
Supervisor's management and leadership styles do not allow for academic input in decision-making	15.3	29.9	10.1	29.9	10.8	2.91	1.31
Overall Mean						**3.21**	**1.24**

N=288

4.5.5 Organisational Culture

The findings regarding the power of how organisational culture moderated the interconnection between perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya are presented in Table 4.15. The responses on the indicators for organisational culture were gathered using a 5-point Likert scale. The scores were analysed using SPSS version 25 to calculate the percentage frequencies, mean scores, and standard deviations for each of the indicators assigned to measure the moderating power of organisational culture in the chosen institutions. Table 4.15 illustrates the feedback pattern of the moderating power of organisational culture on academic employee commitment in chosen public universities in Kenya. The scale is based on the degree to which the respondents agreed, disagreed, or undecided on the moderating variable statements listed in the table.

The percentage descriptive statistics results on indicators measuring the moderating power of organisational culture are presented in Table 4.15. It shows that about sixty-three and a half percent (63.5%) of the lecturers agree that academics were encouraged to try new ways of doing things; just over forty-six percent (46.2%) of the lecturers agree that their ideas were put into practice by the University's management; about seventy-five percent (74.7%) of the lecturers agree that activities that affect them were controlled by the Top Management; just over seventy-one percent (71.2%) of the lecturers agree that the University was bureaucratic and over fifty-nine percent (59.4%) of the lecturers agree that autonomy was granted to them to maximise their potential to the fullest.

Table 4.15 contains the descriptive statistics of the mean scores and standard deviations on the indicators measuring the moderating power of organisational culture. The findings indicate that lecturers recognise a culture that encourages them to try new ways of doing things (M = 3.55, SD = 1.31), which suggests a positive aspect of organisational culture. This indicates that the university values innovation and supports academic staff in exploring new approaches and methods, which can contribute to their commitment. However, academic employees recognise that their

ideas are not consistently put into practice by the university's management (M = 3.18, SD = 1.25). This suggests that there may be room for improvement in the implementation of academic staff ideas, which can impact their commitment.

Lecturers realise that activities affecting them are largely controlled by the top management (M = 3.83, SD = 1.11). This indicates a centralised decision-making process, which may have implications for academic staff's commitment as their input and involvement in decision-making may be limited. Moreover, lecturers recognise their university as having a bureaucratic culture (M = 3.75, SD = 1.19). This suggests that there may be excessive rules, procedures, and hierarchy within the university, which can potentially hinder autonomy and creativity. Additionally, lecturers recognise that autonomy is granted to some extent for them to maximise their potential (M = 3.37, SD = 1.26). This indicates that while there may be some level of autonomy, there is still a recognised need for greater freedom to fully utilise their skills and capabilities.

These findings emphasise the role of organisational culture as a moderating factor in the interaction between recognised organisational support and academic employee commitment. The contributory features of organisational cultures, such as inspiring creativity and permitting independence, can raise the beneficial features of perceived organisational support on commitment. However, the presence of bureaucratic tendencies and limited implementation of academic staff ideas may weaken this relationship. Universities must foster a culture that encourages innovation, values the input of academic staff, provides opportunities for shared decision-making, and grants sufficient autonomy to maximise academic employees' potential. This can contribute to creating a supportive and committed work environment. General insights from previous research align with the findings regarding the moderating power of organisational culture on the interconnection between perceived organisational endorsement and employee commitment.

Denison (1990) researched the interactions between organisational culture and employee commitment. The research indicates that organisations with cultures that promote innovation, autonomy, and employee involvement tend to have higher levels

of employee commitment. This finding supports the present study's result that academics' perception of a culture encouraging new ways of doing things positively influences their commitment. The study by O'Reilly et al. (1991) investigated the impact of organisational culture on employee attitudes and behaviours. The findings suggested that organisations with a bureaucratic culture, characterised by excessive rules and procedures, tend to have lower levels of employee effectiveness. This agrees with the thesis finding that observing the university as authoritative adversely affects lecturers' commitment. Research by Spreitzer (1995), investigated the interplay between autonomy, empowerment, and employee commitment. The results indicated that granting employees autonomy and empowering them to make decisions fosters higher levels of commitment. The findings are also in adherence with the study conducted by Sarhan, Harb, Shraft, and Alhusban (2019) which confirmed that bureaucratic and supportive culture were the predictable dimensions of commitment, while innovative culture was found to be an unpredictable dimension of commitment. This study's outcomes provide some insights and guidance for managers striving to increase or grow their employees' commitment capability. Wambui and Gichanga (2018) also supported the findings that corporate culture is important in improving employees' level of commitment. This corroborates the thesis outcome that perceives autonomy as granted maximises the potential that positively influences academic employee commitment.

Table 4.15: Organisational Culture

Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean	SD
Academics are encouraged to try new ways of doing things	10.8	13.5	7.3	39.9	23.6	3.55	1.31
Academic staff ideas are put into practice by the University's management	9.4	25.3	17.4	30.9	15.3	3.18	1.25
Activities that affect academics are controlled by the top management	6.6	6.9	10.1	47.6	27.1	3.83	1.11
My University is bureaucratic	6.3	13.2	7.6	43.4	27.8	3.75	1.19
Autonomy is granted to academics to maximize their potential to the fullest	11.5	16.3	11.5	43.4	16.0	3.37	1.26
Overall Mean						**3.54**	**1.22**

N=288

4.5.6 Academic Employee Commitment

The findings regarding academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya are presented in Table 4.16. The responses on the indicators for academic employee commitment were gathered using a 5-point Likert scale. The scores were analysed using SPSS version 25 to calculate the percentages, mean scores, and standard deviations for each indicator assigned to measure academic employee commitment in the chosen institutions. Table 4.16 shows the feedback pattern of academic employee commitment in chosen public universities in Kenya. The scale is based on the degree to which the lecturers agreed, disagreed, or undecided on the moderating variable statements listed in the table.

The percentage descriptive statistics results on indicators measuring academic employee commitment are presented in Table 4.16. It shows that above fifty-six

percent (56.2%) of the lecturers agree that they would be very happy to spend their career with the University; almost forty-nine percent (48.9%) of the lecturers agree that academic employees feel that the University's problems were theirs; around a third (33.3%) of the lecturers agree that academic employees did not feel like a "Part of the Family" at the University; almost twenty-one percent (20.8%) of the lecturers agree that they did not feel "Emotionally Attached" to the University; about fifty-two percent (51.7%) of the lecturers agree that they would find it very hard to leave the University right now, even if they wanted to; just over forty-five percent (45.1%) of the lecturers agree that too much in their lives would be disrupted if they decided to leave the University now.

Furthermore, just over thirty-six percent (36.1%) of the lecturers agree that it would not be too costly for them to leave the University now; about forty percent (39.9%) of the lecturers agree that academic employees were not afraid of what might happen if they quit their jobs without having others lined up; almost sixty-five percent (64.9%) of the lecturers agree that one major reason academic employees continue to work at the University is their belief that loyalty was important and it is also a moral obligation; over fifty-six percent (56.6%) agree that academic employees were taught to believe in the values of the University; above thirty-two percent (32.3%) agree that academic employees did not feel it is right to leave their University if they got better job offers elsewhere and overall, more than a third (33.6%) of the lecturers agree that they did not think to be University men or women were sensible anymore.

Furthermore, Table 4.16 contains the mean scores and standard deviations on the indicators measuring academic employee commitment. The findings indicate that academic employees perceive that they would be happy to spend the rest of their careers with their university (M =3.36, SD = 1.31), which suggests commitment to their university. Similarly, they report that they feel that the University problems are theirs (M =3.15, SD = 1.31), indicating a level of emotional attachment to their University. The perception of academic employees regarding not feeling like "part of the family" at the University is comparatively small (M = 2.60, SD = 1.32), demonstrating likely discontent with the university. The consciousness of emotional detachment from the University by the selected academic employees (M = 2.38, SD

= 1.27), also suggests potential issues with affective commitment to their university. Furthermore, the perception that it would be extremely difficult for academic employees to quit the University presently, granted that they desired to (M = 3.24, SD = 1.37) and that exceedingly much of lecturers' lives would be interrupted if they decided to abandon the University now (M = 3.14, SD = 1.33) further advance affective commitment. Still, the consciousness of lecturers concerning the predictor that it would not be too expensive for them to leave the University now is relatively low (M = 2.82, SD = 1.31), and the perception of academic employees that they are not afraid of what might happen if they quit their jobs without having another lined up (M =2.92, SD = 1.42) are relatively low and also suggest a potential deficit or decrease on continuance commitment which in the long run affect their overall commitment.

Academic employees report that one major reason they continue to work at this University is their belief that loyalty is important and feel morally obliged to remain (M =3.60, SD = 1.23). This highlights a positive aspect of normative commitment by academic employees. Furthermore, academic employees' perception that they were taught to believe in the value of the University (M = 3.43, SD =1.25), suggests a positive aspect of normative commitment where academic employees value their University. However, academic employees' perception that they do not feel that it is right to leave their Institution if they get a better job offer elsewhere is relatively low (M = 2.72, SD = 1.39), and academic employees do not think being the University man/woman is sensible anymore is also low (M =2.68, SD =1.42). These outcomes demonstrate that normative commitment is powered adversely and alters the long-term commitment of academic employees in the chosen public universities in Kenya.

These outcomes accentuate the prominence of academic employee commitment in affective, continuance, and normative commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya. Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding academic employee commitment in HEIs. The outcomes of this thesis are consistent with previous research on the determinants that power employee commitment in organisations. In particular, research by Meyer and Allen (1997) establishes that working environments, organisational compensation, and supervisor

endorsement are strategic considerations that power employee commitment. Also, research by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) indicates that employees' viewpoints of organisational justice, which includes allotting, systematising, and synergistic justice, are important determinants of employee commitment. Therefore, the thesis finding that organisational justice is a significant predictor of academic employee commitment is consistent with the previous research. Meyer and Smith (2000) established that organisational payments, such as acknowledgment and path development opportunities, are compelling determinants of employee commitment in the healthcare arena. This discovery further reinforces the thesis that organisational rewards are a compelling determinant of academic employee commitment. On aggregate, the conclusions of the thesis are compatible with earlier research on the determinants that power employee commitment and may provide valuable insights for organisations looking to enhance employee commitment and retention. However, further research is necessary to explore the influence of other factors, such as job demands, on employee commitment, and to investigate the generalisability of these findings.

Table 4.16: Academic Employee Commitment

Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean	SD
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this University	12.5	15.3	13.9	36.8	19.4	3.36	1.31
I really feel as if this University's problems are mine	13.5	21.9	12.2	34.7	14.2	3.15	1.31
I do not feel like "part of the family" at this University	26.0	27.4	10.8	26.4	6.9	2.60	1.32
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this University	26.0	33.0	11.1	13.2	7.6	2.38	1.27
It would be very hard for me to leave my University right now even if I wanted to	15.3	17.7	13.9	31.9	19.8	3.24	1.37
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this University now	11.8	26.4	14.9	26.0	19.1	3.14	1.33
It would not be too costly for me to leave this University now	17.0	31.3	12.8	24.3	11.8	2.82	1.32
I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	19.8	25.3	12.2	22.9	17.0	2.92	1.42
One major reason I continue to work at this University is my belief that loyalty is important and a moral obligation	7.6	14.6	11.1	40.6	24.3	3.60	1.23
I was taught to believe in the value of the University	6.6	22.9	11.1	35.8	20.8	3.43	1.25
I do not feel it is right to quit my University if I get a better job offer elsewhere	20.8	34.0	10.4	16.7	15.6	2.72	1.39
I do not think being a University man/woman is sensible anymore	23.3	31.9	6.9	19.4	14.2	2.68	1.42
Overall Mean						**3.00**	**1.33**

N=288

4.6 Diagnostic Tests

To assess the power of perceived organisational support on academic employee commitment in chosen public universities in Kenya. This study used the ordinary least square regression (OLS) model, the general form of which is stated in chapter three. However, before the results of this model are presented, bearing in mind that OLS modeling is based on specific assumptions, it was deemed prudent to determine how well these assumptions were upheld hence the diagnostics. Various diagnostic tests were conducted to ensure that the coefficients of the estimates were consistent and could be relied upon in making inferences. As argued by Greene (2018, 2013) regression can only be accurately estimated if the basic assumptions of multiple linear regressions are observed. The study thus performed tests for, normality, autocorrelation, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity.

4.6.1 Tests of Normality

The results presented in Table 4.17 showed a Komolgorov-Smirnof (K-S) statistic whose probability values were greater than 0.05, indicating that the data was normally distributed. The Komolgorov-Smirnof test is used to check for the accuracy of the empirical distribution function. It is used to decide whether a sample derives from a population of a specific distribution. The Shapiro-Wilks' tests for normality also show that the data were normally distributed because all the probability values were greater than 0.05.

Table 4.17: Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**Df**	**Sig.**
Working conditions	.077	232	.097	.974	232	.076
Organisational rewards	.118	232	.061	.944	232	.098
Organisational justice	.075	232	.150	.973	232	.082
Supervisor support	.058	232	.200[*]	.985	232	.254
Organisational culture	.074	232	.175	.985	232	.231
Employee commitment	.196	232	.236	.198	232	.201

4.6.2 Autocorrelation Test

Durbin Watson Statistic was conducted to test for autocorrelation in the data before accepting it for regression analysis. According to Kothari (2004), Autocorrelation occurs when the residuals are not independent of each other. In other words, when the value of y(x+1) is not independent of the value of y(x). Therefore, the null hypothesis signifies the absence of autocorrelation in the data obtained for the thesis when applying the Durbin-Watson Statistics. The outcomes in Table 4.18 demonstrate that the Durbin-Watson Statistics was 1.805 for lag 1 and lies between the two definitive values 1.5<d<2.5. Consequently, the null hypothesis which established no autocorrelation in the data was dropped for the alternative hypothesis. This implies that the residuals were independent of each other. Similarly, the result satisfied the rule of thumb which states that values of $1.5 < d < 2.5$ show that there is no autocorrelation in the data (Barley, 2014).

Table 4.18: Durbin-Watson Statistics

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.838[a]	.702	.696	.40743	1.805

4.6.3 Multicollinearity Test

The evidence from the analysis of multicollinearity is shown in Table 4.19. The predictor variables (working conditions, organisational rewards, organisation justice, and supervisors' support), the tolerance levels, and their variance inflation factors (VIFs) show no multicollinearity effects in the data. The findings in the Table show that each of the independent variables had a variance inflation factor of less than 10 which was an indication of the non-existence of multicollinearity (Asemota & Ijumba, 2021).

Table 4.19: Multicollinearity

	Variable	Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)		
	working conditions	.525	1.904
1	organisational rewards	.286	3.498
	organisational justice	.229	4.358
	supervisors' support	.381	2.623

4.6.4 Homoscedastic Test

One of the assumptions of linear regression analysis tested in this study was homoscedasticity; this implies that the error terms along the regression line were equal. According to Barley (2009), the violation of homoscedasticity otherwise known as heteroscedasticity makes it difficult to gauge the true standard deviation of the forecast errors, usually resulting in confidence intervals that are too wide or too narrow. Particularly, if there is an increase in the variance of the error term over time, confidence intervals for out-of-sample predictions will tend to be unrealistically narrow. In that case, heteroscedasticity may also have the effect of giving too much weight to a small subset of the data (namely the subset where the error variance was largest) when estimating coefficients. Thus, it is expedient to test for homoscedasticity before carrying out a regression analysis to prevent such a scenario when conducting research.

Therefore, this study tested the null hypothesis that the data collected were homoscedastic in variance using the Breusch Pagan test. The result of the test presented in Table 4.20 revealed that the test statistics was 154.234 while the p-value was 1 indicating that the data collected was not heteroscedastic in variance and thus necessitating the acceptance of the null hypothesis that the data collected was homoscedastic in variance and can be relied upon for regression analysis.

Table 4.20: Breusch Pagan Test for Homoscedasticity

Test Statistics	Degree of Freedom	P-Value
154.234	3	1.000

4.7 Inferential Results

Inferential statistics was employed to analyse the relationship between study variables. The correlation was utilised to test the association that existed between independent variables (working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, supervisor's support), the moderating variable (organisational culture), and the dependent variable (academic employee commitment) while multivariate regression analysis was used to test whether independent variables significantly predicted changes in the dependent variables.

4.7.1 Correlation Results

To specify the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the individual predictors and recognised organisational endorsement, double-variable interrelationships between the measured study variables and the contingent variables are in Table 4.21. In this study, the conditional variable was academic employee commitment, and the independent variables were working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, supervisors' support, and moderating variable, organisational culture. The evidence demonstrates that all individual predictors have a significant positive correlation with academic employee commitment at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The strongest positive correlation with academic employee commitment was organisational culture (r=0.867), followed by organisational rewards (r=0.781) and organisational justice (r=0.754). Working conditions (r=0.620) and supervisor's support (r=0.674) also had a positive and significant correlation with academic employee commitment but to a lesser extent than the other variables. The

independent variables also had significant positive correlations among themselves, indicating that they were interrelated. For instance, organisational rewards had a significant positive correlation with organisational justice (r=0.803) and organisational culture (r=0.787). Overall, the results suggest that working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, supervisor's support, and organisational culture are all important factors that power academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.21: Pearson Moment Correlations Matrix

		Academic Employee Commitment	Working Conditions	Organisational Rewards	Organisational Justice	Supervisors Support	Organisational Culture
Academic Employee Commitment	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	262					
Working Conditions	Pearson Correlation	.620**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	234	249				
Organisational Rewards	Pearson Correlation	.781**	.665**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000				
	N	229	215	236			
Organisational Justice	Pearson Correlation	.754**	.633**	.803**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	253	238	229	265		
Supervisors Support	Pearson Correlation	.674**	.460**	.660**	.734**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	245	227	221	249	254	
Organisational Culture	Pearson Correlation	.867**	.759**	.787**	.751**	.622**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	228	208	204	222	216	228

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

4.7.2 Regression Analysis

To determine how the predictor variables influence the response variable multiple regression models were fitted to the data, this study used a regression model to measure the power of perceived organisational support on academic employee commitment in public universities in Kenya. A model summary was utilised to indicate the extent of variation in the dependent variable that can be explained by changes in the independent variables.

Table 4.22 provides findings on the overall performance of the regression model, which examines the relationship between working conditions and academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The table posts the Pearson correlation coefficient, which signifies the effectiveness and orientation of the continuous interconnection between working conditions and academic employee commitment. In this case, the value of R is .620, indicating a moderate positive correlation between the two variables. The Coefficient of determination assesses the capacity of a model to explain the outcome in linear regression. In this situation, the R Square quantity is .385, which implies that 38.5% of the variation in academic employee commitment was predicted by working conditions.

Table 4.22: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.620[a]	.385	.382	.61378

The ANOVA table in 4.23 provides information about the overall statistical significance of the regression model, as well as the contribution of each predictor variable to the model. The F-statistic was 145.143, with a corresponding p-value of .000, which was less than the conventional alpha level of .05, and therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The regression model was thus statistically significant.

Table 4.23: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	54.678	1	54.678	145.143	.000[b]
	Residual	87.399	232	.377		
	Total	142.077	233			

The Coefficients table provides information on the specific regression coefficients estimated for each predictor variable in the model, including the intercept and the slope for the working conditions variable. The intercept coefficient was 1.572, indicating that academic employee commitment was predicted to be 1.572 when working conditions are at the minimum level. The results in Table 4.24 indicate that the working conditions predictor variable had a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment, as shown by the .620 standardised coefficient and the .000 p-value. The 12.048 t-value and associated .000 p-value show that the power of working conditions on academic employee commitment was statistically significant.

The thesis desired to confirm the size and orientation of how working conditions power academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya using objective 1 and hypothesis one. **Objective 1:** To examine how working conditions influence academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. H_{01}: Working conditions do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. To determine the relationship, the model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 WC + \varepsilon$ was fitted. The regression results are shown in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Beta Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.572	.158		9.928	.000
1 working conditions	.584	.048	.620	12.048	.000

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The findings in Table 4.25 show an R-value of .781 which was an indication of a strong positive correlation between organisational rewards and academic employee commitment. The R-square value of .609 indicates that 60.9% of the variation in academic employee commitment was interpreted by organisational rewards. The .608 adjusted R-square quantity shows that the model was a good fit for the data. This is so because it expresses a great percentage of the variation in the dependent variable while not overfitting the data.

Table 4.25: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.781[a]	.609	.608	.44977

Table 4.26 shows that the F-statistic was 354.254, indicating that the model was highly significant and that the predictor variable had a large effect on academic employee commitment. This was strengthened by a matching p-value of .000, which shows that the estimator was greatly significant. The alternative hypothesis was accepted and the null hypothesis was dropped because the estimator had a significant impact on academic employee commitment.

Table 4.26: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	71.662	1	71.662	354.254	.000[b]
1	Residual	45.920	227	.202		
	Total	117.582	228			

From Table 4.27 the coefficient for organisational rewards was .693, which meant that a one-unit increase in organisational rewards was associated with a .693 unit increase in academic employee commitment, all other variables held constant. The coefficient for the constant was 1.049, which represents the predicted value of academic employee commitment when organisational rewards are zero. Both the coefficient for organisational rewards (t = 18.822) and the constant (t = 8.031) were

highly significant. The p-value associated with each t-value represents the probability of obtaining a t-value as large as the one observed for the null hypothesis. Both the coefficient for organisational rewards and the constant had a p-value of .000, indicating that they were highly significant. Overall, the coefficient table suggests that organisational rewards had a strong positive effect on academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya, even when regulating for other determinants.

The thesis desired to ascertain the size and orientation of how organisational rewards influence academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya using objective 2 and hypothesis 2. Objective 2: To examine how organisational rewards influence academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. H02: Organisational rewards do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. To determine the relationship, the model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2\ OR + \varepsilon$ was fitted.

Table 4.27: Beta Coefficients

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1 (Constant)	1.049	.131		8.031	.000
organisational rewards	.693	.037	.781	18.822	.000

The model summary presented in Table 4.28 examines the relationship between organisational justice and academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The coefficient of determination (R-squared) was 0.569, which indicates that about 57.0% of the variance in academic employee commitment was explained by organisational justice. The adjusted R-squared value was 0.567, which takes into account the number of predictors in the model and adjusts the R-squared value accordingly. In this case, it suggests that adding the predictor variable of organisational justice slightly improved the fit of the model. The results suggest that organisational justice had a significant positive influence on academic employee

commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya, as indicated by the positive regression coefficient (beta) and the statistically significant correlation ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.28: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.754[a]	.569	.567	.49252

Table 4.29 shows the results of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the linear regression model testing the power of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The ANOVA table indicates that the regression model was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), as indicated by the very low p-value (0.000). This means that the predictor variable of organisational justice significantly contributes to explaining the variability in academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.29: Analysis of Variance

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	80.418	1	80.418	331.522	.000[b]
1 Residual	60.886	251	.243		
Total	141.304	252			

Table 4.30 shows the results of the regression coefficients for the linear regression model examining the power of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The table demonstrates that organisational justice had a significant and beneficial impact on academic employee commitment, as indicated by the positive standardised coefficient (beta = 0.754) and the very low p-value ($p < 0.05$). This means that for every one-unit increase in organisational justice, academic employee commitment was expected to increase by 0.754 units, after controlling for other factors in the model. The intercept term of 0.909 represents the expected value of academic employee commitment when the evaluation of organisational justice is zero.

The study desired to ascertain the size and orientation of how organisational justice influences academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya using the following objective 3 and hypothesis 3. **Objective 3:** To examine the influence of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. **H03:** Organisational justice does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. To determine the relationship, the model $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_3 OJ+ \varepsilon$ was fitted.

Table 4.30: Beta Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.909	.142		6.411	.000
1 organisational justice	.765	.042	.754	18.208	.000

The Model Summary in Table 4.31 provides important information about the regression model used to analyse the data. The R-squared value (0.454) shows that the supervisor's support modelled approximately 45.4% of the discrepancy in academic employee commitment. The Model Summary demonstrates that the supervisor's support was a moderately strong estimator of academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.31: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.674[a]	.454	.452	.55857

Table 4.32 provides information on the statistical significance of the regression model as a whole. The F-statistic tests whether the variance explained by the regression model is significantly greater than the unexplained variance in the residuals. In this case, the F-statistic was 202.009 and the associated p-value was less

than .0001, indicating that the regression model was statistically significant. Therefore, the findings suggest that the predictor variable (supervisor's support) had a significant effect on academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.32: Analysis of Variance

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	63.026	1	63.026	202.009	.000[b]
1 Residual	75.815	243	.312		
Total	138.842	244			

The Coefficients Table 4.33 provides information on the individual predictor variables in the regression model. The Coefficients table suggests that supervisor's support had a beneficial and significant impact on academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya as evidenced by the positive unstandardised coefficient (0.624) and the positive standardised coefficient (0.674). The t-statistic is 14.213, and the associated p-value was less than .0001, indicating that the coefficient was statistically significant. The constant term in the model was also statistically significant, with a t-value of 10.278 and a p-value of less than .0001.

The study sought to establish the magnitude and direction of how supervisors' support influences academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya using objective 4 and hypothesis 4. **Objective 4:** To examine how supervisors' support influences academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. **H₀₄:** Supervisors' support does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. To determine the relationship, the model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_4 SP + \varepsilon$ was fitted.

Table 4.33: Beta Coefficients

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.466	.143		10.278	.000
1 supervisors support	.624	.044	.674	14.213	.000

4.7.3 Multiple Regression Results

Multiple regression analysis was employed to test the research hypotheses in this study. Five research hypotheses were tested. This study sought to establish the amount of deviation in academic employee commitment in public universities in Kenya due to variations in working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, supervisor's support, and organisational culture.

Table 4.34 presents a summary of multiple regression analysis with the dependent variable "academic employee commitment". For Model 1, the R-squared value was 0.695, indicating that the four predictors included in the model explained 69.5% of the variance in academic employee commitment. Both models had statistically significant F-values (100.272 for Model 1 and 129.660 for Model 2), indicating that the models were significant predictors of academic employee commitment.

The "change statistics" section shows the increase in R-squared and F-value when adding the interaction terms in Model 2. All four interaction terms had statistically significant F-values, indicating that they made a significant contribution to the model's prediction of academic employee commitment. The multiple regression analysis suggests that supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and their interactions with organisational culture were significant predictors of academic employee commitment.

Table 4.34: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.838[a]	.702	.688	.40887	.695	100.272	4	176	.000
2	.961[b]	.924	.921	.20640	.729	129.660	4	172	.000

The ANOVA Table 4.35 shows the results of the analysis of variance for the two regression models with different predictors for the dependent variable academic employee commitment. Model 1's predictors were supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice. The regression model was significant ($F_{(4, 176)} = 100.272$, $p < .001$) and explained 70.2% of the variance in academic employee commitment.

For Model 2, the predictors were the same as Model 1, but with the addition of working conditions moderated by organisational culture, supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture, organisational rewards moderated by organisational culture, and organisational justice moderated by organisational culture. This model was also significant ($F_{(8, 172)} = 261.568$, $p < .001$) and explained a larger amount of variance (92.4%) in academic employee commitment. The increase in variance explained was significant, as indicated by the significant F change value ($F_{(4, 172)} = 129.660$, $p < .001$).

Table 4.35: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	67.051	4	16.763	100.272	.000[b]
	Residual	29.422	176	.167		
	Total	96.473	180			
2	Regression	89.146	8	11.143	261.568	.000[c]
	Residual	7.327	172	.043		
	Total	96.473	180			

The coefficients in Table 4.36 show the estimated coefficients for the predictors in the two regression analysis models for the dependent variable "academic employee

commitment". The results reveal that adding interaction terms with organisational culture as a moderator has significantly improved the model's fit. The F-value increased from 100.272 to 261.568, with a very low p-value (less than 0.001).

Looking at the coefficients table, all predictors had significant effects on academic employee commitment in the second model. In particular, the interaction terms occurred when organisational culture acted as a moderator on each of the four predictors, separately which are working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisors' support. It was also observed that each of the four estimators considered in this thesis had a significant, beneficial, and synergistic impact on academic employee commitment.

The second model having the interaction terms and using organisational culture as a moderator provided a better explanation of the relationship between the predictors and academic employee commitment. The results suggest that improving working conditions, providing organisational rewards, ensuring organisational justice, and providing supervisor support can enhance academic employee commitment, especially when these factors are moderated by a supportive organisational culture.

Table 4.36: Beta Coefficients

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.622	.147		4.229	.000
working conditions	.123	.052	.141	2.385	.018
1 organisational rewards	.284	.070	.321	4.058	.000
organisational justice	.294	.084	.302	3.504	.001
supervisors support	.155	.059	.176	2.618	.010
(Constant)	2.566	.116		22.168	.000
working conditions	.666	.127	.761	5.237	.000
organisational rewards	.193	.173	.218	1.118	.025
organisational justice	.128	.153	.131	.833	.006
supervisors support	.042	.032	.047	1.319	.019
working conditions moderated by 2 organisational culture	.018	.009	.110	2.068	.040
organisational rewards moderated by organisational culture	.193	.036	1.206	5.427	.000
organisational justice moderated by organisational culture	.037	.050	.248	.733	.045
supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture	.079	.044	.504	1.813	.002

The study desired to ascertain the size and orientation of how the combined influence of working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisors' support impact academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. Table 4.37 provides information about the multiple regression model used to analyse the data, including multiple predictors. The R-squared value was 0.702 implying that approximately 70.2% of the variance in academic employee commitment was explained by the four predictor variables combined. Overall, the Model Summary suggests that the combination of supervisor's support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice were strong predictors of academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.37: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.838[a]	.702	.696	.40743

Table 4.38 summarises the sources of uncertainty in the contingent variable (academic employee commitment) estimated for the study variables. The table illustrates that the regression model was statistically significant ($p < .0001$), as demonstrated by the F-value of 113.531. This suggests that the four predictor variables (supervisor's support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice) explained significant variance in academic employee commitment. Overall, the ANOVA table provides evidence that the combination of supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice were significant predictors of academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.38: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	75.384	4	18.846	113.531	.000[b]
1	Residual	32.037	193	.166		
	Total	107.421	197			

Table 4.39 explains the interconnection between the four estimators (supervisor's support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice) and the contingent variable (academic employee commitment). The intercept or fixed term estimates the dependent variable when all predictor variables are equal to zero. In this case, the intercept is 0.551, which means that academic employee commitment was expected to be 0.551 when all the predictor variables are zero. All four predictor variables had significant coefficients ($p < .05$), indicating that each had a unique and significant impact on academic employee commitment. The coefficient for organisational justice ($B = 0.332$) indicated the most effective impact on

academic employee commitment, followed by organisational rewards (B = 0.298), supervisor's support (B = 0.137), and working conditions (B = 0.106).

Table 4.39: Beta Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.551	.142		3.885	.000
	working conditions	.106	.049	.117	2.160	.032
	organisational rewards	.298	.066	.332	4.516	.000
	organisational justice	.332	.081	.335	4.076	.000
	supervisors support	.137	.057	.153	2.408	.017

From Table 4.40, Model 1 shows that the predictor variable "working conditions" explained 40.7% of the variance in academic employee commitment, as indicated by an R-squared value of 0.407. The F-test indicates that the overall regression model was statistically significant (F(1, 206) = 141.304, p < .000). Model 2 includes an additional predictor variable, "working conditions moderated by organisational culture," and shows a higher R-squared value of 0.756, indicating that both variables together explained 75.6% of the variance in academic employee commitment. The F-test shows that this model was also statistically significant (F(2, 205) = 293.472, p < .000). Overall, the results suggest that both working conditions and organisational culture played important roles in shaping academic employee commitment, with organisational culture having a moderating effect on the relationship between working conditions and commitment.

Table 4.40: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.638[a]	.407	.404	.58430	.407	141.304	1	206	.000
2	.870[b]	.756	.754	.37562	.449	293.472	1	205	.000

The findings in Table 4.41 show the ANOVA results of the moderating variable. The ANOVA table of Model 1 shows that the regression model was statistically significant (F(1, 206) = 141.304, p < .000). For Model 2, the ANOVA table shows that the regression model was also statistically significant (F(2, 205) = 317.697, p < .000). In both models, the mean square values for the regression were higher than those for the residual, indicating that the predictors were contributing significantly to the variance in academic employee commitment. The low p-values (< .000) for both models indicated strong evidence against the null hypothesis, suggesting that the models provided a good fit for the data.

Table 4.41: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	48.242	1	48.242	141.304	.000[b]
1	Residual	70.329	206	.341		
	Total	118.571	207			
	Regression	89.647	2	44.824	317.697	.000[c]
2	Residual	28.923	205	.141		
	Total	118.571	207			

Table 4.42 provides the coefficients for the two regression models used to analyse the relationship between perceived organisational support, academic employee commitment, working conditions, and organisational culture in top public universities in Kenya. For Model 1, the table shows that the intercept (constant) was 1.637, indicating that academic employee commitment was expected to be 1.637 when working conditions were at zero. The coefficient for "working conditions" was

0.568, indicating that for every one-unit increase in working conditions, academic employee commitment was expected to increase by 0.568 units. The standardised coefficient (Beta) for working conditions was 0.638, demonstrating moderate power on academic employee commitment. The 11.887 t-value was statistically significant (p < .000), demonstrating that the impact of working conditions on academic employee commitment was significant.

For Model 2, the table shows that the intercept was 1.822, indicating that when working conditions and organisational culture are at zero, academic employee commitment was expected to be 1.822. The coefficient for "working conditions" was 0.046, indicating that academic employee commitment was expected to increase by 0.046 units for every one-unit increase in working conditions. The coefficient for "working conditions moderated by organisational culture" was 0.150, showing that the power of working conditions on academic employee commitment was better when the organisational culture was positive. The 0.908 standardised coefficient (Beta) shows that organisational culture had a considerable impact on academic employee commitment. Both factors were statistically significant t-values (p < .000 and p = .033, respectively). On aggregate, the findings indicate that working conditions had a significant, beneficial outcome on academic employee commitment and that this impact was even better in the vicinity of the moderating variable, organisational culture.

Table 4.42: Beta Coefficients

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.637	.157		10.450	.000
	working conditions	.568	.048	.638	11.887	.000
2	(Constant)	1.822	.101		17.983	.000
	working conditions	.046	.047	.051	.971	.033

Table 4.43 shows the Model Summary for the regression model used to analyse the relationship between perceived organisational support, organisational rewards,

academic employee commitment, and organisational culture in top public universities in Kenya. Model 1's R-value was 0.783, indicating a strong positive correlation between the predictor variable "organisational rewards" and the outcome variable "academic employee commitment." The R-square value was 0.613, which meant that approximately 61.3% of the variance in academic employee commitment was explained by organisational rewards. The Adjusted R-square value was 0.611, suggesting that the model fit the data well.

For Model 2, the R-value was 0.878, indicating a strong positive correlation between the predictor variables "organisational rewards" and "organisational culture" moderated by organisational culture, and the outcome variable "academic employee commitment." The R-square value was 0.771, which meant that approximately 77.1% of the variance in academic employee commitment was explained by the combination of organisational rewards and organisational culture. The change statistics show that the addition of the interaction term between organisational rewards and organisational culture significantly improved the model fit beyond the main effects ($F(1, 207) = 142.976$, $p < .000$). Overall, the results suggest that both organisational rewards and organisational culture had a strong positive effect on academic employee commitment and that the effect of organisational rewards was even stronger when the moderating variable, organisational culture was added.

Table 4.43: 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	.783[a]	.613	.611	.46270	.613	328.794	1	208	.000
2	.878[b]	.771	.769	.35671	.658	142.976	1	207	.000

Table 4.44 shows that, for Model 1, the regression equation including only organisational rewards as a predictor variable was statistically significant ($F(1, 208) = 328.794$, $p < .000$). The model accounted for a significant percentage of the discrepancy in academic employee commitment. The regression equation containing

organisational rewards and organisational culture moderated by organisational culture as estimators was also statistically significant (F(2, 207) = 348.098, p < .000). The model contained an even larger percentage of the variation in academic employee commitment. It demonstrates that the modelling was much better than that of Model 1. On aggregate, the findings of the ANOVA indicate that both organisational rewards and organisational culture moderated by organisational culture significantly strengthen the explanation of the discrepancy in academic employee commitment in top public universities in Kenya.

Table 4.44: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	70.392	1	70.392	328.794	.000[b]
1	Residual	44.531	208	.214		
	Total	114.923	209			
	Regression	88.584	2	44.292	348.098	.000[c]
2	Residual	26.339	207	.127		
	Total	114.923	209			

Table 4.45 provides information on the regression coefficients for model 1 and model 2. For Model 1, the coefficient for the constant term was 1.030, indicating that the expected value of academic employee commitment when organisational rewards are zero was 1.030. The coefficient for organisational rewards was 0.700, indicating that for a one-unit increase in organisational rewards, there is an expected increase in academic employee commitment of 0.700. The standardized coefficient (beta) for organisational rewards was 0.783, indicating that this variable had a strong positive relationship with academic employee commitment.

For Model 2, the coefficient for the constant term increased to 1.373, indicating that the expected level of academic employee commitment when both organisational rewards and organisational culture moderated by organisational culture are zero was 1.373. The coefficient for organisational rewards decreased to 0.250, indicating that the effect of organisational rewards on academic employee commitment was reduced when organisational culture moderated by organisational culture was considered. The

coefficient for organisational culture moderated by organisational culture was 0.106, indicating that for a one-unit increase in the interaction between organisational rewards and organisational culture moderated by organisational culture, there was an expected increase in academic employee commitment of 0.106. The standardised coefficient (beta) for organisational culture moderated by organisational culture was 0.641, indicating that this variable had a strong positive relationship with academic employee commitment. Overall, the results suggest that organisational rewards and organisational culture moderated by organisational culture are important predictors of academic employee commitment in top public universities in Kenya.

Table 4.45: Beta Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.030	.137		7.539	.000
1 organisational rewards	.700	.039	.783	18.133	.000
(Constant)	1.373	.109		12.573	.000
organisational 2 rewards	.250	.048	.280	5.217	.000
Organisational culture	.106	.009	.641	11.957	.000

In Model 1, Table 4.46, the predictor variable is organisational justice and the regression analysis shows that the model was statistically significant $(F(1,221)=326.598, p<.001)$ and made up for 59.6% of the discrepancy in academic employee commitment $(R^2=.596)$. Model 2 consists of organisational justice and organisational justice moderated by organisational culture. The version was statistically significant $(F(2,220)=361.015, p<.001)$ and made up for 84.7% of the variation in academic employee commitment $(R^2=.847)$. The change statistics show that the addition of the moderator variable significantly improved the model $(\Delta R^2=.651, F(1,220)=361.015, p<.001)$.

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The standardised coefficients for the predictor variables indicate that both organisational justice (β=.683, p<.001) and organisational justice moderated by organisational culture (β=.259, p<.001) had a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment. In Model 1, Table 4.46, the predictor variable is organisational justice and the regression analysis indicates that the model was statistically significant (F(1,221)=326.598, p<.001) and accounted for 59.6% of the variance in academic employee commitment (R^2=.596). Model 2 comprised organisational justice and organisational justice moderated by organisational culture.

The model was statistically significant (F(2,220)=361.015, p<.001) and accounts for 84.7% of the variance in academic employee commitment (R^2=.847). The change statistics show that the addition of the moderator variable significantly improved the model (ΔR^2=.651, F(1,220)=361.015, p<.001). The standardized coefficients for the predictor variables indicate that both organisational justice (β=.683, p<.001) and organisational justice moderated by organisational culture (β=.259, p<.001) had a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment.

Table 4.46: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
					Change Statistics				
1	.772[a]	.596	.595	.45546	.596	326.598	1	221	.000
2	.920[b]	.847	.846	.28090	.651	361.015	1	220	.000

The ANOVA Table 4.47 summarises the results of the analysis of variance for the two models. For the first model with organisational justice as the predictor, The F statistic was 326.598, with a significance level of .000, which indicates that the regression model was significant. For the second model with both organisational justice and organisational culture as a moderating variable, the F-statistic was 609.825, with a significance level of .000, which indicates that the regression model was significant. Therefore, the second model with both organisational justice

moderating effect of organisational culture provides a better fit to the data than the first model with only organisational justice as a predictor.

Table 4.47: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	67.750	1	67.750	326.598	.000[b]
1	Residual	45.844	221	.207		
	Total	113.594	222			
	Regression	96.235	2	48.118	609.825	.000[c]
2	Residual	17.359	220	.079		
	Total	113.594	222			

In Table 4.48, the coefficient for organisational justice was significant (B = .769, p < .001) and indicates a beneficial interconnection between organisational justice and academic employee commitment. The coefficient for organisational justice was significant (B = .042, p = .035), illustrating that its connection with academic employee commitment was fortified when considering the moderating power of organisational culture. The determinant for the relationship item between organisational justice and organisational culture was significant (B = .132, p < .001). It shows that the interconnection between organisational justice and academic employee commitment was controlled by organisational culture. Notably, the beneficial interconnection between organisational justice and academic employee commitment was better when the organisational culture was combined. These outcomes indicate that organisational culture controls the linkages between organisational justice and academic employee commitment, with a more helpful culture that reinforces the beneficial interplay between these variables.

Table 4.48: Beta Coefficients

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.872	.146		5.978	.000
	organisational justice	.769	.043	.772	18.072	.000
	(Constant)	1.672	.099		16.826	.000
	organisational justice	.042	.046	.042	.909	.035
2	organisational justice moderated by organisational culture	.132	.007	.885	19.000	.000

In Table 4.49, the first model, the predictor variable is supervisor support, and the model explained 44.2% of the discrepancy in academic employee commitment (R-squared = .442). The design was statistically significant (F(1, 239) = 189.470, p < .001). The second model interpreted 83.6% of the variation in academic employee commitment (R-squared = .836). The inclusion of the modulator culminated in a significant advancement in model fit (F(1, 238) = 570.954, p < .001).

Table 4.49: 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	.665[a]	.442	.440	.55580	.442	189.470	1	239	.000
2	.914[b]	.836	.835	.30211	.394	570.954	1	238	.000

The ANOVA Table 4.50 summarises the analysis of variance for the two models predicting academic employee commitment based on supervisors' support and moderated by organisational culture. For Model 1, which includes only supervisors' support as a predictor, the regression was significant (F(1, 239) = 189.470, p < .001), and the model explained 44.2% of the variance in academic employee commitment.

For Model 2, which includes both supervisors' support and the interaction term between supervisors' support and organisational culture, the regression was also significant (F(2, 238) = 606.131, p < .001), and the model explained 83.6% of the variance in academic employee commitment. The increase in explained variance between Model 1 and Model 2 was statistically significant (F(1, 238) = 570.954, p < .001), indicating that the interaction between supervisors' support and organisational culture significantly improved the prediction of academic employee commitment beyond the main effect of supervisors' support alone.

Table 4.50: Analysis of Variance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	58.531	1	58.531	189.470	.000[b]
1	Residual	73.831	239	.309		
	Total	132.362	240			
	Regression	110.640	2	55.320	606.131	.000[c]
2	Residual	21.722	238	.091		
	Total	132.362	240			

In Table 4.51, Model 1, the coefficient for supervisors' support was .610, with a standard error of .044 and a significance level of .000. This indicates a positive relationship between supervisors' support and academic employee commitment. For every one-unit increase in supervisors' support, academic employee commitment was predicted to increase by .610 units. The R-squared value for Model 1 was .442, indicating that approximately 44.2% of the variance in academic employee commitment was explained by supervisors' support.

In Model 2, the coefficient for supervisors' support was .064, with a standard error of .037 and a significance level of .086. The coefficient for supervisors' support moderated by organisational culture was .158, with a standard error of .007 and a significance level of .000, indicating that the interaction between supervisors' support and organisational culture had a strong positive effect on academic employee commitment. The R-squared value for Model 2 was .836, indicating that

approximately 83.6% of the variance in academic employee commitment was explained by supervisors' support and interaction with organisational culture.

Table 4.51 Beta Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.518	.144		10.511	.000
	Supervisors' support	.610	.044	.665	13.765	.000
	(Constant)	1.786	.079		22.531	.000
	Supervisors' support	.064	.037	.070	1.724	.086
2	supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture	.158	.007	.966	23.895	.000

4.8 Summary of Hypotheses

This study tested the following hypotheses namely; **H01:** Working conditions do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.**H02: O**rganisational rewards do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. The model $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_2 OR+ \varepsilon$ was fitted to determine the relationship. **H03:** Organisational justice does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. To obtain the expression, the model $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_3 OJ+ \varepsilon$ was fitted. **H04:** Supervisors' support does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. To obtain the expression, the model $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_4 SP+ \varepsilon$ was fitted, and Organisational culture has no significant moderating influence on the relationship between working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisor's support on academic employee commitment in selected Top

Public Universities in Kenya. Table 4.52 shows the summary of test statistics adopted for the research hypotheses.

**Table 4.52: Summary of Test Statistics for the Research Hypotheses**

Research Hypotheses	Hypothesis Tests	Decision rules
$Ho1$: Working conditions do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.	t-test (p-value)	If the p-value is < 0.05 reject Ho and conclude that working conditions had a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.
H_{02}: Organisational rewards do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.	t-test (p-value)	If the p-value is < 0.05 reject Ho and conclude that organisational rewards had a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.
H_{03}: Organisational justice does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.	t-test (p-value)	If the p-value is < 0.05 reject Ho and conclude that organisational justice had a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.
H_{o4}: Supervisors' support does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.	t-test (p-value)	If the p-value is < 0.05 reject Ho and conclude that Supervisors' support had a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.
H_{05}: Organisational culture has no significant moderating influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.	t-test (p-value)	If the p-value is < 0.05 reject Ho and conclude that organisational culture had a significant moderating influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

4.9 Optimal Model

The optimal model substantially contributes to knowledge because it is an offshoot of the study outcomes. It can be adopted or employed for building and sustaining academic employee commitment in public universities in Kenya. The study outcomes show that the best solution under the prevailing circumstances in managing academic employee commitment in the selected public universities in Kenya is in Figure 4.2.

The model starts with the Organisational Justice variable instead of the previously held beliefs that working conditions should precede. Implementing every human resource function and organisational justice is critical in implementing the processes, procedures, and policies affecting the workforce in public HEIs in Kenya. An organisation where the practices of fairness prevail tends to spur, maintain, and sustain commitment among the workforce. Fairness in recruitment, placement, training, reward system, workload distribution, promotion, and recognition of superior performance helps improve academic commitment. On the other hand, any human resource management process, practices, and procedures that discriminate undoubtedly lead to low commitment among the workforce. An organisation that practices tribalism and nepotism in implementing policy matters would breed an uncommitted workforce and negatively impact performance and the bottom line.

The Optimal Model
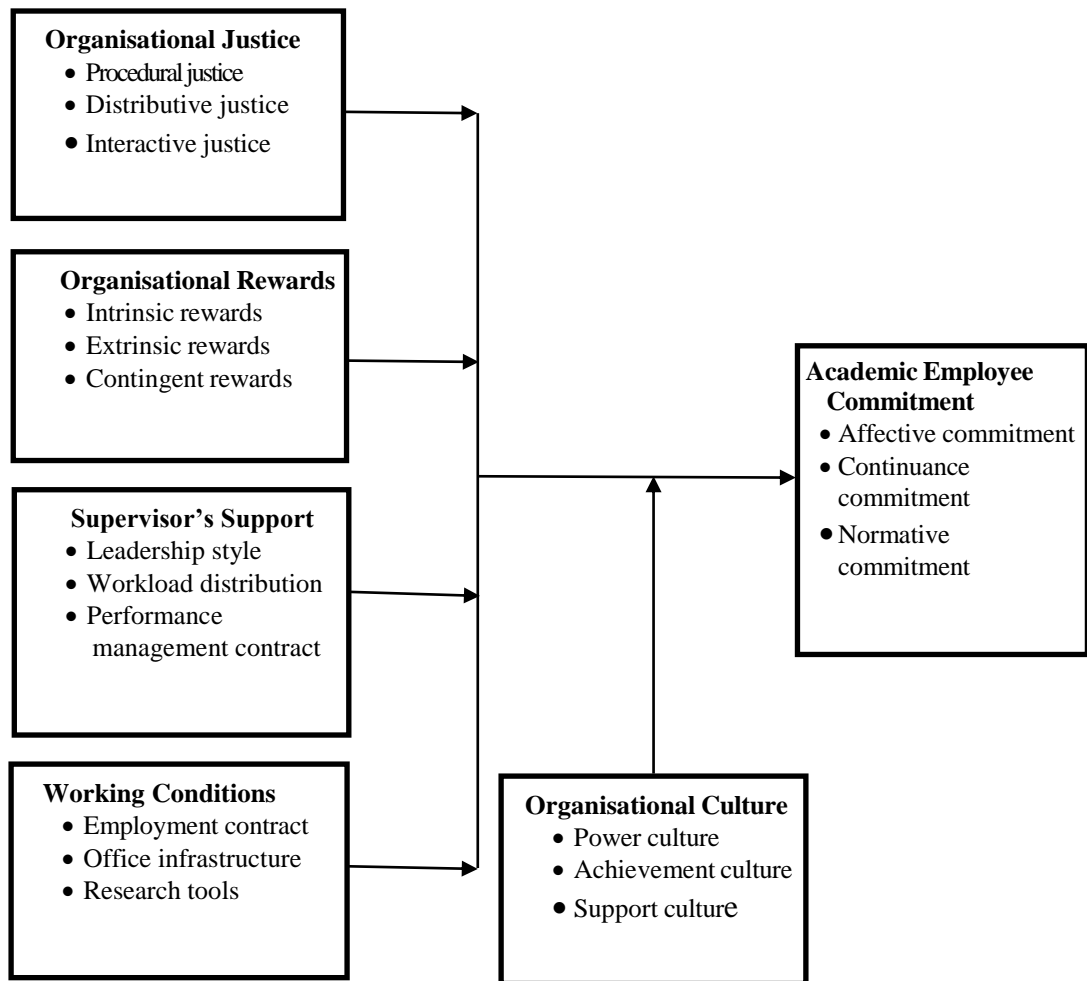
Figure 4.2: Optimal Model for Building and Sustaining Academic Employee Commitment

4.10 Comments and Suggestions on the Open-ended Section of the Questionnaire

This section of the questionnaire encourages the respondents to share their opinions on any area they believe was not covered in the closed-ended questions. This section enumerates the open-ended responses to the administered questionnaires. The quotations are stated verbatim and in italics.

There was not much pattern upon which to make analyses. It is so because they are respondents' opinions and the effects of working in the University system. Also, some of the statements corroborate the literature concerning the statement of the problem.

"University of Nairobi is a good institution just for the fact that its leadership is unorganised and uncooperative."

"University doesn't offer timely rewards especially in the self sponsored students."

"There is life beyond a working career. So I wouldn't say leaving University would disrupt my life. Your research is great. Keep up."

"What is "top public University"?"

"Notes

1. *Just like we have evaluation of academic staff by students yearly, we need to evaluate management staff*
2. *The academic staff is a rich reservoir of valuable experiences that should be sought to better management and leadership in the university.*
3. *Information touching on welfare of staff should be made available and explained to them e.g. delays in salaries, allowances, promotions, criteria for assessments etc*
4. *Teaching staff need common rooms to engage and know each other and exchange ideas*
5. *Great sensitivity is required in handling staff issues e.g. discipline."*

"Only here because of family commitment."

"My assignments have been recognised. I could have left if I did not feel satisfied working at this University. I am happy and hope to retire here."

"Have Not been long in the University. But hope for the best as I continue my academic growth."

"Qn.22. The salaries for academic staff are not based on performance as they are negotiated between the academic staff Union and Universities."

"Sometime I feel like my 3 years here has been a waste."

"This is the best University in Kenya both academically and socially and that is why I have spent years (2 decades) here."

"This University only concentrates on the supervision of work allocated and not remuneration. Payments for part-time are delayed up to a period of 8 years. I would quit immediately if I got another opportunity."

"Danwilized"

"The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University

It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution.

Thank you."

"Question No. 55 was not clear. I did not understand it clearly."

"Salary increment based on scale

Academic freedom is "loose term" What does it mean? Open to differing interpretation

Qn 6-9 may be considered intrusive as they can be combined to zero in on the respondent!"

"Your questionnaire is more based on full time staff, and one of your questions was based on part time, some questions were answered based on what full time lecturers feel about the University."

"Encourage Fairness in unit allocation for Part-time lecturers

Ensure Timely remuneration

Facilitation materials – Mark Pens, Projectors

Flexible schedules. Involvement."

"Question 9:-Not all fall in the above category. Add Part time lecturers. None academic staffs need to be included as they also form part of employees."

"Thank you for this questionnaire

It has improved my skills too"

"The University take a lot of time in paying its part time employees and thus leading low morale."

"In Ref to Q 45. Answered on aspect of basing on the benefits (my benefit) to the student, I feel attached to them, to make them shape other peoples way of life back in the society."

"Leave & responsibility allowances are not payable to part-time lecturers.

Salary increments are only for full-time employees."

Table 4.53: Selected Quotations from the Open-ended Statements on Biographical Data

Theme	Sub-themes	Selected Quotations on Biographical Data
Biographical Data	Experience	*PR16c*: "*Qn 6-9 may be considered intrusive as they can be combined to zero in on the respondent!*"
	Employment Nature	*PR16c*: "*Qn 6-9 may be considered intrusive as they can be combined to zero in on the respondent!*"
	Employment Type	*PR16c*: "*Qn 6-9 may be considered intrusive as they can be combined to zero in on the respondent!*"
		PR17: "*Your questionnaire is more based on full time staff, and one of your questions was based on part time, some questions were answered based on what full time lecturers feel about the University.*"
		PR19: "*Question 9:-Not all fall in the above category. Add Part time lecturers. None academic staffs need to be included as they also form part of employees.*"
	Current Position	*PR16c*: "*Qn 6-9 may be considered intrusive as they can be combined to zero in on the respondent!*"
		PR19: "*Question 9:-Not all fall in the above category. Add Part time lecturers. None academic staffs need to be included as they also form part of employees.*"

NB: PR means participants response

Table 4.54: Selected Quotations from the Open-ended Statements on Working Conditions

Theme	Sub-themes	Selected Quotations on Working Conditions
Working Conditions	Working Conditions	PR5d: "Teaching staff need common rooms to engage and know each other and exchange ideas"
		PR5e: "Great sensitivity is required in handling staff issues e.g. discipline."
		PR14: "The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."
		PR16b: "Academic freedom is "loose term" What does it mean? Open to differing interpretation"
		PR18c: "Facilitation materials – Mark Pens, Projectors"
	Organisational Rewards	PR2: "University doesn't offer timely rewards especially in the self sponsored students."
		PR5c: "Information touching on welfare of staff should be made available and explained to them e.g. delays in salaries, allowances, promotions, criteria for assessments etc"
		PR9: "Qn.22. The salaries for academic staff are not based on performance as they are negotiated between the academic staff Union and Universities."
		PR12: "This University only concentrates on the supervision of work allocated and not remuneration. Payments for part-time are delayed up to a period of 8 years. I would quit immediately if I got another opportunity."
		PR14: "The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."
		PR16a: "Salary increment based on scale"
		PR17c: "Ensure Timely remuneration"
		PR21: "The University take a lot of time in paying its part time employees and thus leading low morale."
		PR23a: "Leave & responsibility allowances are not payable to part-time lecturers.
		PR23b: "Salary increments are only for full-time employees."

Table 4.55: Selected Quotations from the Open-ended Statements on Organisational Justice

Theme	Sub-themes	Selected Quotations on Organisational Justice
Organisational Justice	Procedural Justice	*PR12: "This University only concentrates on the supervision of work allocated and not remuneration. Payments for part-time are delayed up to a period of 8 years. I would quit immediately if I got another opportunity."*
		PR14: "The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."
		PR18a: "Encourage Fairness in unit allocation for Part-time Lecturers"
		PR18d: "Flexible schedules. Involvement."
		PR21: "The University take a lot of time in paying its part time employees and thus leading low morale."
	Distributive Justice	*PR2: "There is life beyond a working career. So I wouldn't say leaving University would disrupt my life. Your research is great. Keep up."*
		PR9: "Qn.22. The salaries for academic staff are not based on performance as they are negotiated between the academic staff Union and Universities."
		PR14: "The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."
		PR21: "The University take a lot of time in paying its part time employees and thus leading low morale."
	Interactional Justice	*PR14: "The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."*
		PR18d: "Flexible schedules. Involvement."

Table 4.56: Selected Quotations from the Open-ended Statements on Supervisor's Support

Theme	Sub-themes	Selected Quotations on Supervisor's Support
Supervisor's Support	Leadership Styles	PR1: *"University of Nairobi is a good institution just for the fact that its leadership is unorganised and uncooperative."*
		PR5a: *"Just like we have evaluation of academic staff by students yearly, we need to evaluate management staff"*
		PR5b: *"The academic staff is a rich reservoir of valuable experiences that should be sought to better management and leadership in the university."*
	Performance Management	PR5c: *"Information touching on welfare of staff should be made available and explained to them e.g. delays in salaries, allowances, promotions, criteria for assessments etc"*
	Recognition	PR7: *"My assignments have been recognised. I could have left if I did not feel satisfied working at this University. I am happy and hope to retire here."*
	Work Supervision	PR12: *"This University only concentrates on the supervision of work allocated and not remuneration. Payments for part-time are delayed up to a period of 8 years. I would quit immediately if I got another opportunity."*
	Growth and Recognition	PR14: *"The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."*
	Sensitive, Supporting, & Participation	PR18d: *"Flexible schedules. Involvement."*

Table 4.57: Selected Quotations from the Open-ended Statements on Employee Commitment

Themes	Sub-themes	Selected Quotations on Employee Commitment
Employee Commitment	Affective Commitment	PR3: *"There is life beyond a working career. So I wouldn't say leaving University would disrupt my life. Your research is great. Keep up."*
		PR7: *"My assignments have been recognised. I could have left if I did not feel satisfied working at this University. I am happy and hope to retire here."*
		PR8: *"Have Not been long in the University. But hope for the best as I continue my academic growth."*
		PR10: *"Sometime I feel like my 3 years here has been a waste."*
		PR11: *"This is the best University in Kenya both academically and socially and that is why I have spent years (2 decades) here."*
		PR14: *"The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."*
		PR21: *"The University take a lot of time in paying its part time employees and thus leading low morale."*
	Continuance Commitment	PR6: *"Only here because of family commitment."*
		PR7: *"My assignments have been recognised. I could have left if I did not feel satisfied working at this University. I am happy and hope to retire here."*
		PR8: *"Have Not been long in the University. But hope for the best as I continue my academic growth."*
		PR10: *"Sometime I feel like my 3 years here has been a waste."*
		PR11: *"This is the best University in Kenya both academically and socially and that is why I have spent years (2 decades) here."*
		PR12: *"This University only concentrates on the supervision of work allocated and not remuneration. Payments for part-time are delayed up to a period of 8 years. I would quit immediately if I got another opportunity."*
		PR14: *"The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."*
		PR21: *"The University take a lot of time in paying its part time employees and thus leading low morale."*
		PR22: *"In Ref to Q 45. Answered on aspect of basing on the benefits (my benefit) to the student, I feel attached to them, to make them shape other peoples way of life back in the society."*
	Normative Commitment	PR11: *"This is the best University in Kenya both academically and socially and that is why I have spent years (2 decades) here."*
		PR14: *"The University has provided a good opportunity for me to grow as a person and academically and I could take a lot of thinking for me to love the University. It is an institution that respects me as a person and I got, I got them from the institution. Thank you."*

Table 4.58: Selected Quotations from the Open-ended Statements on Organisational Culture

Themes	Sub-themes	Selected Quotations on Organisational Culture
Organisational Culture	Autonomy	*PR16b: "Academic freedom is "loose term" What does it mean? Open to differing interpretation."*
	Participation	*PR18d: "Flexible schedules. Involvement."*

4.11 Summary of Results, Analysis, and Discussion

This aspect of the thesis summarises the research findings, analysis, and discussion. It considers Response Rate, Pilot Study Results, Reliability of the Research Instrument, Validity of the Research Instrument, and Demographic Information. Others comprise Descriptive Statistics Results, Diagnostic Tests, Inferential Results, Summary of Hypotheses, Optimal Model, and Comments and Suggestions in the Open-ended Section of the Questionnaire.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the thesis are presented in this section. This thesis aimed to investigate perceived organisational support on academic employee commitment in selected top public universities in Kenya. The summary was deduced from the findings and was based on each of the variables under study. The summary, conclusions, and recommendations presented in this chapter focused on the objectives of the study.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The summary of findings was presented on each specific objective of the study and each predictor variable. The specific objectives of the study were to determine the influence of working conditions on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya, assess the influence of organisational rewards on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya, establish the influence of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya, determine the influence of supervisor's support on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya, and establish the moderating influence of organisational culture on the relationship between perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya.

The R-squared value for the model with all predictor variables included was over seventy percent. It means that about seventy percent of the variance in academic employee commitment explains the combination of supervisor's support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice. The p-value for the F-test in the ANOVA table was significant. It indicates that the model with all predictor variables was a statistically significant improvement over the intercept-only model. The p-value for the t-test in the coefficients table was significant, for each predictor

variable. It indicates that each predictor variable had a statistically significant relationship with academic employee commitment.

The Beta coefficients in the coefficients table provide information about the strength and direction of the relationship between each predictor variable and academic employee commitment while controlling for the other predictor variables. The standardised Beta coefficients ranged from fifty-eight percent for working conditions to over seventy-six percent for organisational justice. It indicates that organisational justice had the predominant relationship with academic employee commitment, followed by organisational rewards, supervisor support, and working conditions.

Supervisor support was established as the most significant estimator of academic employee commitment. This finding suggests that the support provided by supervisors, including guidance, feedback, and recognition, is essential for fostering a sense of commitment among academic employees in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. Working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice are equally established significant estimators of academic employee commitment. These outcomes demonstrate that favourable working conditions, decent rewards, and impartial treatment by the organisation are pivotal to academic employees' commitment to selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

5.2.1 Working Conditions

The first objective of the thesis was to determine the power of working conditions on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. It was assumed that working conditions do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. The results indicate that academic employees perceive the overall working conditions in the institution to be favourable. Similarly, academic employees perceive their office infrastructure to be relatively up-to-date and report enjoying academic freedom indicating autonomy and independence in their work. The adherence to employment contracts is perceived positively by academic employees, indicating a level of trust and compliance within the organisation. However, the provision of research tools such as computers, laboratory equipment, and software packages is perceived to be

relatively lower, indicating potential areas for improvement in this aspect of working conditions.

These findings suggest that while the overall working conditions are favourable, there is room for enhancing the provision of research tools to support academic employees in their research and experimental work. These findings indicated favourable working conditions, including infrastructure, resources, and academic freedom, positively influenced academic employee commitment. Several previous studies provide insights that corroborate the findings regarding the power of working conditions on academic employee commitment in universities. Moreover, working conditions have been decisive in influencing employee commitment among University lecturers in HEIs in Africa and the developed countries.

5.2.2 Organisational Rewards

The second objective of the thesis was to assess the power of organisational rewards on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. It was assumed that organisational rewards do not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. From the findings, academic employees report being given the opportunity for advancement on an annual scale and promotions are based on their contributions. The findings indicate a positive perception of the organisation's recognition and reward system in these areas. Academic employees perceive the institution as assigning challenging and rewarding jobs portraying a level of fulfillment and satisfaction derived from their job responsibilities. The regular payment of annual leave allowances and responsibility allowances and claims also contribute to the perceived organisational rewards. However, the perception of academic employees regarding salary increments based on performance in the university is relatively low, indicating potential dissatisfaction with the link between performance and financial rewards. Addressing these areas would positively impact academic employee commitment in public universities in Kenya.

Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding the power of organisational rewards on academic employee commitment in universities.

The findings revealed that recognition of employees' good work and opportunities for advancement significantly influenced employee commitment. Past studies conducted in some African universities, found that promotion based on contribution, challenging job assignments, and regular payment of allowances positively influenced employee commitment. The results also indicated that fair and timely payment of allowances and salary increments based on performance positively affected employee commitment. This finding supports the present study's result that regular payment of allowances and the perception of fair salary increments contribute to academic employee commitment.

5.2.3 Organisational Justice

The third objective of the thesis was to establish the influence of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. It was assumed that organisational justice does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. The findings indicate that academic employees perceive the process of allocating their workload to be relatively fair. Similarly, academic employees perceive the process of making decisions about themselves and their work in the university to be fair. Academic employees expressed that rewards in the university are distributed based on merit and that academic staff salaries and benefits are paid according to qualifications and experience. These contribute to the perception of organisational justice. Academic employees also report being satisfied with their remuneration packages indicating a positive perception of the fairness of their compensation.

However, academic employees perceive that their supervisors do not always fairly reward them when considering the work they do. This suggests potential issues with perceived fairness in reward allocation by supervisors, there is room for improvement in this aspect of supervisor behaviour. Moreover, academic employees perceive a positive organisational justice climate in terms of cooperation and support among colleagues in their academic tasks. The perception that co-workers do not put

each other down and that academic employees support each other in their academic tasks further contributes to a sense of organisational justice.

These findings emphasise the importance of fair workload allocation, decision-making processes, reward distribution, supervisor behaviour, and positive colleague interactions in promoting organisational justice and subsequently influencing academic employee commitment in the selected Top Public Universities in Kenya.

Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding the power of organisational justice on academic employee commitment in universities. These findings revealed that perceptions of fairness in workload allocation, decision-making processes, and rewards distribution positively influenced employee commitment. This supports the present study's findings that academic employees' perception of fair workload allocation, fair decision-making processes, and merit-based rewards positively influence their commitment.

5.2.4 Supervisors' Support

The fourth objective of the thesis was to determine the power of supervisors' support on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. It was assumed that supervisors' support does not have a significant influence on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. The findings suggest that supervisors are actively involved in providing guidance and feedback to academic employees, which can contribute to their sense of support and commitment. However, the notion of the fairness and transparency of supervision and evaluation of performance in the university is relatively low suggesting that academic employees perceive room for improvement in the fairness and transparency of the performance evaluation processes conducted by their supervisors.

Academic employees report that supervisors regularly congratulate academic employees in recognition of their efforts. This suggests a positive aspect of supervisors' support, where supervisors acknowledge and appreciate the contributions and achievements of academic employees. Furthermore, academic employees observe their supervisors to be sensitive and supportive of their work

schedules. This suggests that supervisors accommodate and understand the work schedule needs of academic staff, contributing to a supportive work environment. However, University lecturers recognise that their supervisors' management and leadership styles do not entertain academic viewpoints in governance. This demonstrates a likely disadvantage in the degree to which lecturers can partake in University administration procedures, which may upset their understanding of support and commitment.

These outcomes emphasise the usefulness of supervisors furnishing enough feedback and counselling, impartial and candid evaluation processes, acknowledgment of employees' work, responsiveness to work schedules, and entertaining academic opinions in governance to improve academic employee commitment in the selected top public universities in Kenya. Several earlier types of research reinforce and authenticate the findings regarding the power of supervisors' support on academic employee commitment in universities. The findings revealed that supervisors who provided feedback, recognition, fair treatment and support significantly enhanced employee commitment. This supports the present study's finding that academic employees' perception of sufficient feedback and guidance, recognition of their efforts, and sensitivity to their work schedules positively influence their commitment.

5.2.5 Organisational Culture

The fifth objective of this thesis was to establish the moderating power of organisational culture on the interplay of perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. It was assumed that organisational culture has no significant moderating influence on the relationship between working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisors' support on academic employee commitment in selected top Public Universities in Kenya. The outcomes demonstrate that academics perceive a culture that encourages them to try new ways of doing things which suggests a positive aspect of organisational culture. This indicates that the university values

innovation and supports academic staff in exploring new approaches and methods, which can contribute to their commitment.

However, academic staff perceive that their ideas are not consistently put into practice by the university's management. This suggests that there may be room for improvement in the implementation of academic staff ideas, which can impact their commitment. Academic employees perceive that activities affecting them are largely controlled by the top management. This indicates a centralised decision-making process, which may have implications for academic employee commitment as their input and involvement in decision-making may be limited. Furthermore, academic employees perceive their university to have a bureaucratic culture. This suggests that there may be excessive rules, procedures, and hierarchy within the university, which can potentially hinder autonomy and creativity.

Additionally, academic employees perceive that autonomy is granted to some extent for them to maximise their potentials. This indicates that while there may be some level of autonomy, there is still a perceived need for greater freedom to fully utilise their skills and capabilities. These findings highlight the role of organisational culture as a moderating factor in the interconnection between perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment. The synergistic characteristics of organisational culture can favour creativity, permit independence of thought, and equally improve the productive properties of anticipated organisational support on commitment. However, the presence of bureaucratic tendencies and limited implementation of academic staff ideas may weaken this relationship. Universities must foster a culture that encourages innovation, values the input of academic staff, provides opportunities for shared decision-making, and grants sufficient autonomy to maximise academic employees' potential. This can contribute to creating a supportive and committed work environment.

General insights from previous research align with the findings regarding the modulating power of organisational culture on the interplay between anticipated organisational support and employee commitment. These studies found that organisations with cultures that promote innovation, autonomy, and employee

involvement tend to have higher levels of employee commitment. This finding supports the present study's result that academic employees' perception of a culture that encourages trying new ways of doing things positively influences their commitment.

The study shows that academic employee commitment can be characterised by combining organisational justice, organisational rewards, supervisors' support, and working conditions. The study established that organisational justice was the most predominant factor in enhancing academic employee commitment, followed by organisational rewards, supervisors' support, and working conditions. On aggregate, the outcomes demonstrate that supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice were all important determinants influencing employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya. Consequently, organisational justice had the preeminent position for enhancing academic employee commitment, demonstrating that perceptions of fairness and equity in the workplace are vital for fostering commitment among lecturers.

5.3 Conclusions

5.3.1 Working Conditions

The thesis presents a reasonably balanced parallel between working conditions and academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya. The thesis also established that the influence of working conditions on academic employee commitment was statistically significant. It was also established that the working conditions estimator had a considerable productive outcome on academic employee commitment. On aggregate, the outcomes demonstrate that working conditions had a considerably beneficial impact on academic employee commitment and that this effect was even stronger in the presence of moderating variable, organisational culture. The study therefore concludes that the overall working conditions in the institution are favourable.

5.3.2 Organisational Rewards

The study established evidence of a strong positive correlation between organisational rewards and academic employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya. It was also a model good fit for the data, as it explains a high proportion of the variance in the dependent variable while not overfitting the data. The study established that the estimator: organisational rewards had a considerable effect on academic employee commitment, and the predictor was highly substantial. On aggregate, the outcomes imply that organisational payments had a compelling beneficial power on employee commitment in the chosen public universities in Kenya, even when adjusting for other determinants.

5.3.3 Organisational Justice

The study established that organisational justice had a compelling beneficial power on academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya. It was also established that the predictor variable of organisational justice had a statistically significant correlation with academic employee commitment.

5.3.4 Supervisors' Support

The study established that the estimator variable (supervisor's support) had a beneficial and compelling power on academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. On aggregate, the research established that supervisor support was a reasonably great estimator of employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya.

5.3.5 Organisational Culture

The study established that each estimator had a compelling power on academic employee commitment. The interconnection conditions using organisational culture as a modulator ensured that working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, and supervisor support had a compelling beneficial power on academic employee commitment. The next model with synergy constraints used organisational culture as a modulator. It furnished a superior interpretation of the

interconnection between the estimators and academic employee commitment. The outcomes demonstrate that progressive working conditions, decent organisational rewards, safeguarding organisational justice, and exceptional supervisor support systems can upgrade employee commitment, especially when these determinants are modulated by an enduring organisational culture.

The multiple regression analysis demonstrates that working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice, supervisors' support, and their interactions with organisational culture were pivotal determinants of academic employee commitment. Conclusively, the study established combining supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice were compelling estimators of employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The research establishes that supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational payments, and organisational justice are all compelling estimators of academic employee commitment in the chosen Public Universities in Kenya. Categorically, the outcomes demonstrate that lecturers who receive higher levels of supervisors' support, superior working conditions, exceptional organisational payments, and safeguarded organisational justice are more likely to exhibit higher levels of commitment to their institutions.

Of all the estimators, organisational justice has the most preeminent interconnection with academic employee commitment. It demonstrates that perceptions of fairness and equity in the workplace are vital for fostering commitment among lecturers. These outcomes demonstrate that institutions in Kenya can enhance employee commitment by prioritising factors such as supervisors' support, working conditions, organisational rewards, and organisational justice. By doing so, these institutions can create a more positive and supportive work environment that encourages employee commitment and promotes institutional success.

5.3.6 Hypotheses Tested

The hypotheses tested in the thesis suggest that working conditions considerably influence academic employee commitment in selected top public universities in Kenya. Organisational rewards are vitally effective on academic employee

commitment in selected top public universities in Kenya. Organisational justice has significant power over academic employee commitment in selected top public universities in Kenya. Supervisors' support has compelling authority over academic employee commitment in selected top public universities in Kenya, and organisational culture has an eminent moderating influence on academic employee commitment in selected top public universities in Kenya.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the study offers the following recommendations for improving academic employee commitment.

5.4.1 The Republic of Kenya and the Ministry of Education

Improve working conditions: The study also shows that better working conditions have a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment. Therefore, academic institutions in Kenya should prioritize efforts to improve the physical work environment, such as by investing in comfortable and functional furniture, adequate lighting, and proper ventilation. Additionally, institutions should also consider employee well-being initiatives such as wellness programs, flexible work arrangements, and adequate leave policies.

5.4.2 Higher Education Institutions (HEI) Practitioners

Enhance supervisors' support: The study shows that supervisors' support has a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment. Thus, it is recommended that academic institutions in Kenya should provide more training and development opportunities for supervisors to enhance their leadership and management skills, as well as establish regular communication channels between supervisors and their employees.

5.4.3 Leaders and Managers in HEI

Provide organisational rewards: The study reveals that organisational rewards have a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment. Therefore, academic

institutions in Kenya should consider offering various types of rewards and recognition, such as merit-based promotions, bonuses, and awards, to employees who demonstrate high levels of commitment and outstanding performance. Such incentives can stimulate workers to aim for perfection and deepen their commitment to the institution.

5.4.4 Human Resource Practitioners in HEI

Foster organisational justice: The study shows that organisational justice has a significant positive effect on academic employee commitment. Therefore, academic institutions in Kenya should ensure that their policies and practices are fair, transparent, and equitable to all employees. This can be achieved by establishing clear policies and procedures for decision-making, ensuring equal opportunities for career development and advancement, and providing effective communication and feedback mechanisms for employees. Additionally, institutions should establish effective channels for resolving conflicts and addressing grievances in a fair and just manner.

5.5 Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

The findings in this study point out some valuable theoretical and practical implications.

First, contributions are made regarding the knowledge of the connection between perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment distinguished from other extensive studies.

Second, the inquiry adds to academic knowledge on perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment research.

Third, this study also contributes to the bulk of material on employee commitment, mainly in the African setting. Even though diverse work has been carried out on employee commitment in advanced countries, some investigations have focused on the African scene. Thus, this investigation's outcomes contribute to the literature on employee commitment in Africa and provide a basis for future research in the region.

Fourth, this study can guide universities in Kenya in developing strategies that enhance employee commitment, leading to better organisational performance and student outcomes.

Fifth, the study has further expounded on the theories underpinning perceived organisational support and academic employee commitment such as Handy and Harrison's theories of culture and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory.

Sixth, the study has further bridged the gaps in the body of knowledge on the power of perceived organisational support on academic commitment in the African setting.

This investigation's addition to the understanding of academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya has practical implications for universities in the region and adds to the limited literature on employee commitment and perceived organisational support in Africa.

5.6 Areas for Further Research

Based on the findings of this study, there are several areas for further research on academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. The following are the key suggested areas:

5.6.1 The Role of Organisational Culture

This thesis did not consider the influence of organisational culture on academic employee commitment. Therefore, future research could explore how organisational culture affects employee commitment in academic institutions in Kenya. Other areas could consider private, industrial, and service industries besides the higher educational sector, where organisational culture could be expounded for optimal performance.

5.6.2 The Impact of Job Satisfaction

The current study did not investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and academic employee commitment. Future research could explore how job satisfaction

impacts academic employee commitment in chosen Public Universities in Kenya. Other areas for further research could focus on private higher education institutions in Kenya and the East African community. Other service industries apart from the higher educational sector could be harnessed for better and improved human resource performance.

5.6.3 The Effect of Demographic Factors

The current study did not consider the impact of demographic factors such as age, gender, and tenure on academic employee commitment. Future research could examine how these demographic factors affect employee commitment in institutions in Kenya and East Africa. Both public and private higher educational institutions could be examined alongside other secular service industries.

5.6.4 Comparative Analysis and Generalisability of Findings

The current study focused only on selected Top Public Universities in Kenya. Future research could compare academic employee commitment between public and private universities in Kenya or between different countries in the East Africa region. By so doing, it could enhance the generalisablity of findings across the region and thus expound the horizon of knowledge and constitute value-adding to research in the area of academic employee commitment and employee commitment in general.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Introduction Letter to Respondents

I am Olukemi Asemota, a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT), and I earnestly request your assistance.

Please, I am not seeking for funds, but a few minutes of your very valuable and precious time as an academic. It would also be to your benefit and advantage if you can help me to conduct credible academic research by wholeheartedly completing this questionnaire that has been designed to investigate the: **"Perceived organisational support on academic employee   commitment in top public universities in Kenya".**

Additionally, your input to this study would be most valuable to the human resource practice of managing both public and private universities in Kenya and beyond.

I would be grateful if you could kindly, respond to these questions as honestly and precisely as possible. Also, the responses will be treated as confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

Please tick where appropriate or fill in the required information on the spaces provided. You may please use the back of the questionnaire for more information on any of the questions asked.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance at enabling me conduct credible research by providing me with valuable data for analyses.

Yours cordially,

Olukemi Asemota

Appendix II: Questionnaire

Section A: Respondent's Biographic Information (Please, tick and/or fill appropriately as the question applies to you)

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Marital status: Single [ ] Married [ ] Separated [ ] Widow(er) [ ] Divorced [ ]
3. Write the name of your Institution:……………………………………………..
4. Your age in years: 20 - 24 [ ] 25 - 29 [ ] 30 - 34 [ ] 35 – 39 [ ] 40 - 44 [ ]

    45 - 49 [ ] 50 and above [ ].

5. Highest academic degree: PhD [ ] Masters [ ] Bachelors [ ].
6. How many years have you worked in this University? 0 - 5 [ ] 6 - 10 [ ] 11 - 15 [ ] 16 - 20 [ ] 21 - 25 [ ] Above 25 years [ ]
7. Full time Lecturer [ ]   Part Time Lecturer [ ]
8. Employment Type: Permanent contract [ ] Non Permanent contract [ ]
9. Your current position (Please tick as appropriate): Professor [   ] Associate Professor [ ] Senior Lecturer [ ] Lecturer [ ] Assistant Lecturer [ ] Tutorial fellow [ ] Teaching Assistant [ ]

Instructions for Sections B, C, and D

Tick (√) your level of agreement from the following statements concerning your feeling of attachment to your university. A 5-point Likert-type response format is used from 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Undecided; 4 = Agree; to 5 = Strongly Agree. The scale is based on the degree to which the respondent agreed, disagreed or undecided with the following statements.

Section B

	Working Conditions	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Working conditions in this Institution are generally favourable to academic staff					
11.	Office infrastructure is an example of the state-of-the art					
12.	Academic employees enjoy academic freedom					
13.	Employment contracts are adhered to					

14.	Research tools are provided like: computers, laboratory for experiments, software packages for analysis and simulation					
15.	Research grants and research publications fees are provided					
	Organisational Rewards	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
16.	This University recognises my good work					
17.	I am given opportunity for advancement on annual scale					
18.	I am given promotion based on my contribution					
19.	This Institution assigns me challenging and rewarding jobs					
20.	Annual leave allowances are paid regularly					
21.	Responsibility allowances and claims (acting allowance and other benefits attached to the position) are paid on time					
22.	Salary increment is based on performance in this University					
	Organisational Justice **Procedural Justice**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
23.	Decisions on jobs in this Institution are usually made without consulting the people who perform the jobs					
24.	The process of allocating my workload is fair					
25.	The process of making decisions about me and my work in this University is fair					
	Distributive Justice					
26.	Rewards in this University are distributed based on merit					

		1	2	3	4	5
27.	Academic staff salaries and benefits are paid according to qualifications and experience					
28.	Academic staff are satisfied with their remuneration packages					
29.	My supervisor has fairly rewarded me when I consider the work I do					
	Interactional Justice	1	2	3	4	5
30.	When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration					
31.	Academic staff cooperate with each other and support each other in their academic tasks					
32.	My co-workers do not put each other down					
33.	Academic staff support each other in their academic tasks					
	Supervisor's Support	1	2	3	4	5
34.	My supervisor provides sufficient feedback and guidance on evaluation and performance					
35.	Supervision and evaluation of performance in this University are fair and transparent					
36.	Supervisors regularly congratulate employees in recognition of their efforts					
37.	Supervisor is sensitive and supportive of academic staff work schedules					
38.	Supervisor's management and leadership styles do not allow for academic input in decision making					
	Section C: Academic Employee Commitment					
	Affective Commitment	1	2	3	4	5
39.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this University					
40.	I really feel as if this University's problems are mine					

		1	2	2	4	5
41.	I do not feel like "part of the family" at this University					
42.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this University					
	Continuance Commitment	**1**	**2**	**2**	**4**	**5**
43.	It would be very hard for me to leave the University right now, even if I wanted to					
44.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this University now					
45.	It would not be too costly for me to leave this University now					
46.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up					
	Normative Commitment	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
47.	One of the major reasons I continue to work in this University is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore I feel a sense of moral obligation to remain					
48.	I was taught to believe in the value of this University					
49.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my University					
50.	I do not think that to be a University man/ woman is sensible anymore					
	Section D: Organisational Culture	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
51.	Academics are encouraged to try new ways of doing things					
52.	Academic staff ideas are put into practice by the University's management					
53.	Activities that affect academics are controlled from the top management					
54.	My University is bureaucratic					

55.	Autonomy is granted academics to maximize their potentials to the fullest					

Kindly use the space below and back of this questionnaire (if possible) to write any additional information and comments you may wish to provide, which may not have been covered adequately or more explanation on any of the questions. I thank you most sincerely for completing this questionnaire and helping me obtain valuable information that would enhance the study.

Appendix III: List of Public Universities in Kenya

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

Appendix IV: Statistic Tables

Table IV.1 Cronbach's Alpha for Working Conditions

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.833	6

Table IV.2 Cronbach's Alpha for Organisational Rewards

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.867	7

Table IV.3 Cronbach's Alpha for Organisational Justice

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.879	11

Table IV.4 Cronbach's Alpha for Supervisor's Support

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.610	5

Table IV.5 Cronbach's Alpha for Employee Commitment

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.707	12

Table IV.6 Cronbach's Alpha for Organisational Culture

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.773	5

Table IV.7 Cronbach's Alpha for all items on the questionnaire

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.926	55

Appendix V: Statistic Tables

Table V. 1 Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	supervisors support, working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice[b]		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

b. All requested variables entered.

Table V. 2 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.838[a]	.702	.696	.40743

a. Predictors: (Constant), supervisors support, working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice

Table V. 3 ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	75.384	4	18.846	113.531	.000[b]
	Residual	32.037	193	.166		
	Total	107.421	197			

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), supervisors support, working conditions, organisational rewards, organisational justice

Table V. 4 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.551	.142		3.885	.000		
	working conditions	.106	.049	.117	2.160	.032	.525	1.904
	organisational rewards	.298	.066	.332	4.516	.000	.286	3.498
	organisational justice	.332	.081	.335	4.076	.000	.229	4.358
	supervisors support	.137	.057	.153	2.408	.017	.381	2.623

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

Table V. 5 Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.65590	4.90070	3.4596	.61859	198
Residual	-1.37845	1.45476	.00000	.40327	198
Std. Predicted Value	-2.91600	2.32900	.00000	1.00000	198
Std. Residual	-3.38300	3.57100	.00000	.99000	198

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

Table V. 6 Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	X2M, supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture, working conditions moderated by organisational culture, organisational justice moderated by organisational culture^b	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

b. All requested variables entered.

Table V. 7 Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.939[a]	.881	.879	.25514	1.695

a. Predictors: (Constant), X2M, supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture, working conditions moderated by organisational culture, organisational justice moderated by organisational culture
b. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

Table V. 8 ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	88.015	4	22.004	338.026	.000[b]
	Residual	11.847	182	.065		
	Total	99.862	186			

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment
b. Predictors: (Constant), X2M, supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture, working conditions moderated by organisational culture, organisational justice moderated by organisational culture

Table V. 9 Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.623	.055		29.734	.000		
	Organisational justice Moderated by organisational culture	.045	.012	.306	3.608	.000	.092	10.836
	Supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture	.063	.012	.395	5.408	.000	.122	8.201
	Working conditions moderated by organisational culture	.022	.010	.131	2.114	.036	.169	5.932
	X2M	.023	.010	.146	2.352	.020	.169	5.905

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

Table V. 10 Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	(Constant)	Organisational justice moderated by organisational culture	Supervisor's support moderated by organisational culture	Working conditions moderated by organisational culture	X2M
					Variance Proportions			
	1	4.853	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.098	7.027	.96	.01	.01	.01	.01
1	3	.026	13.590	.00	.07	.22	.14	.28
	4	.014	18.318	.02	.01	.00	.85	.64
	5	.008	24.732	.02	.92	.78	.00	.06

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

Table V. 11 Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.82760	5.33300	3.46430	.68789	187
Residual	-.84753	.96771	.00000	.25238	187
Std. Predicted Value	-2.37900	2.71700	.00000	1.00000	187
Std. Residual	-3.32200	3.79300	.00000	.98900	187

a. Dependent Variable: academic employee commitment

Appendix VI: NACOSTI Research License

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Date of Issue: 05/November/2019

Ref No: 524067

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Ms. Olukemi Asemota of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, has been licensed to conduct research in Nairobi on the topic: Influence of Perceived Organizational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya for the period ending : 05/November/2020.

License No: NACOSTI/P/19/2511

524067

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

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Appendix VII: Letter of Introduction: Director Nairobi CBD Campus

JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY

NAIROBI CBD CAMPUS
JKUAT Towers, City Square, Kenyatta Avenue
P.O. Box 62000 - 00200, Nairobi, KENYA Tel: +254705- 950712
Email Address: *infonbicbd@jkuat.ac.ke*
Office of the Director

REF: JKU/6/2/0038/2016   DATE: 4th OCTOBER, 2019

TO: WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

SUBJECT: INTRODUCTION LETTER- OLUKEMI ASEMOTA HDE412-C004-0038/2016

The above mentioned is a student of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Nairobi CBD Campus, pursuing a Doctoral (PhD) Programme in Human Resource Management.

She has successfully completed course work, presented the proposal and first seminar which is part of thesis writing. She is at data collection stage.

Any assistance accorded to her will be appreciated. For any further clarification, kindly contact the undersigned

DR. PETER K. NJENGA

DIRECTOR NAIROBI CBD CAMPUS

JKUAT is ISO 9001:2015Certified and 14001:2015 Certified

Setting Trends in Higher Education, Research, Innovation and Entrepreneurship

Appendix VIII: Letter of introduction:Departmental Chair

JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY

NAIROBI CBD CAMPUS
Department of Entrepreneurship and Procurement

P.O. Box 62000
NAIROBI – 00200
KENYA

TEL: 020-221306
Email: epdnchd@jkuat.ac.ke

Our Ref : JKU/6/3/17a

9th October 2019

TO: Whom It May Concern;

SUBJECT: OLUKEMI ASEMOTA HDE412-C004-0038/16

This is to confirm that Ms.Olukemi Asemota is a bona fide student pursuing Doctor of Philosophy in Human Resource Management Programme at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, NCBD Campus. The student is currently undertaking research project entitled "**Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya**" in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree program.

The purpose of this letter is to request you to give the student the necessary support and assistance to enable him obtain necessary data for the project. Please note that the information given is purely for academic purpose and will be treated with strict confidence.

Thanks

Yours faithfully,

Dr. Samson Nyang'au (Ph.D)
ASSOCIATE CHAIRPERSON, EPD

Setting Trends in Higher Education, Research and Innovation

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Appendix IX: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: University of Nairobi

<div align="right">

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

</div>

The Vice Chancellor,

University of Nairobi,

P. O. Box 30197,

GPO, Nairobi,

Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed University of Nairobi (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.

Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix X: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: Moi University

<div align="right">

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

</div>

The Vice Chancellor,

Moi University,

P. O. Box 3900-30100,

Kesses, Eldoret,

Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT MOI UNIVERSITY, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed Moi University (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.

Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix XI: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: Kenyatta University

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

The Vice Chancellor,

Kenyatta University,

P. O. Box 43844-00100,

Nairobi, Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT KENYATTA UNIVERSITY, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed Kenyatta University (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.

Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix XII: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: Egerton Univeristy

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

The Vice Chancellor,

EGERTON University,

P. O. Box 536,

Egerton, Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT EGERTON UNIVERSITY, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed Egerton University (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.

Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix XIII: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: Jomo Kenyatta Universtiy of Agriculture and Technology

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

The Vice Chancellor,

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology,

P. O. Box 62000-00200,

Nairobi, Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.

Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix XIV: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

The Vice Chancellor,

MASINDE-MULIRO University of Science and Technology,

P. O. Box 190-50100, Kakamega,

Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT MASINDE-MULIRO UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed Masinde-Muliro University of Science and Technology (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.

Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix XV: Letter of Request for Collection of Data: Maseno University of Technology

P. O. Box 7053-01000,

Thika.

12th November, 2019.

The Vice Chancellor,

MASENO University of Technology,

P. O. Box 790, Kisumu,-40100

Kenya.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA FOR PHD ACADEMIC RESEARCH AT MASENO UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, NAIROBI CAMPUS

I hereby respectfully request your permission to obtain data for PhD academic research at your highly esteemed Maseno University of Technology (Nairobi Campus). This request is made because it is one of the University requirements for my PhD thesis research.

Currently, I am a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) who is presently at data collection stage.

For ease of reference, kindly find attached letters of introduction from my University (JKUAT) and NACOSTI Research License (NACOSTI/P/19/2511).

My research topic is entitled:

"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"

I shall be very glad if my request is favourably considered, approved and letter of permission released to enable me obtain data for my PhD research, shortly.

I thank you most sincerely for your willingness, help and assistance to enable me conduct credible research by allowing me obtain data from your University.
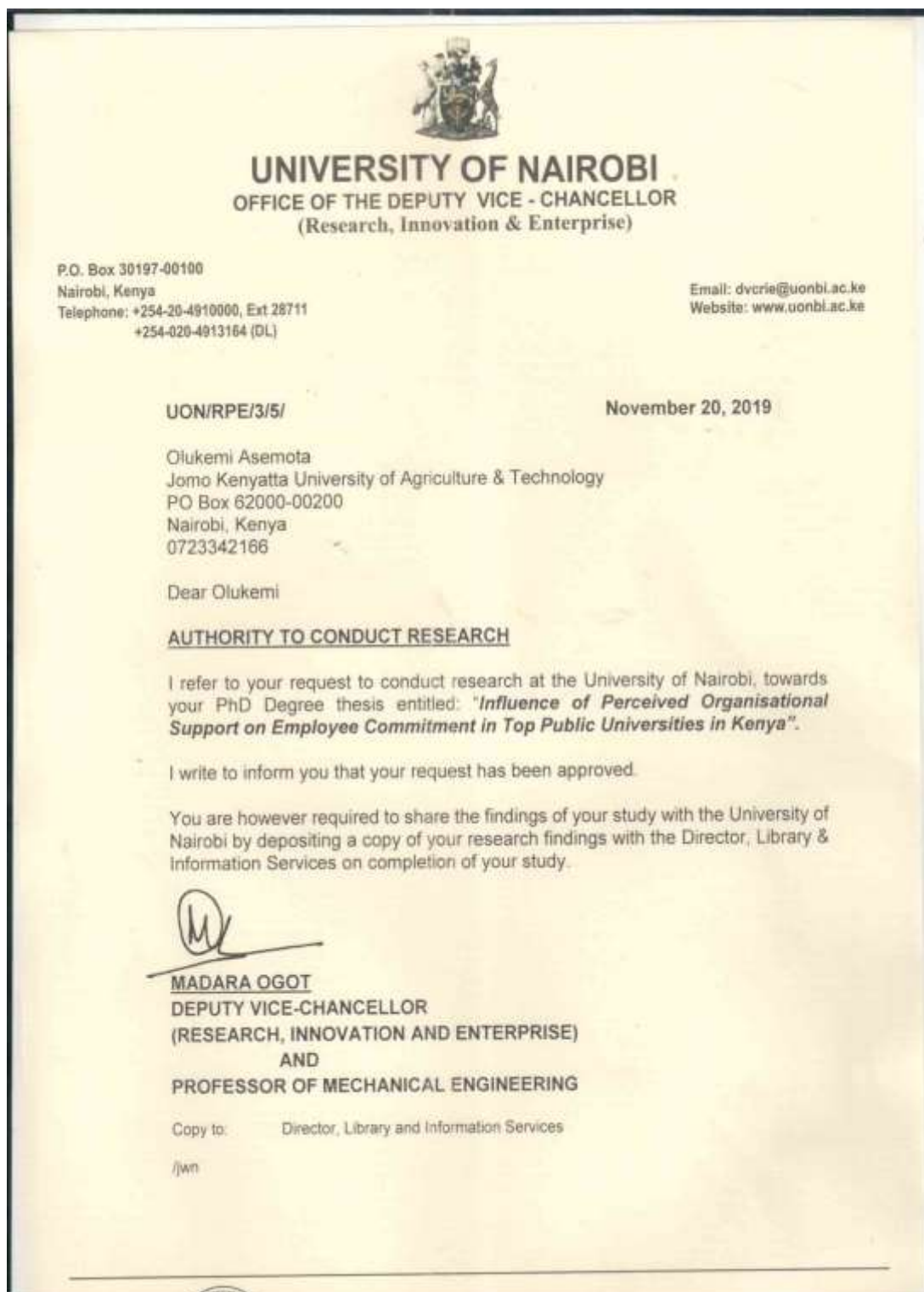
Yours Cordially,

Olukemi ASEMOTA

E-mail:ooasemota@gmail.com, mobile numbers: 0743114007, 0746942809

Appendix XVI: Letter of Approval to Collect Data: Univeristy of Naiorbi

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE - CHANCELLOR
(Research, Innovation & Enterprise)

P.O. Box 30197-00100
Nairobi, Kenya
Telephone: +254-20-4910000, Ext 28711
+254-020-4913164 (DL)

Email: dvcrie@uonbi.ac.ke
Website: www.uonbi.ac.ke

UON/RPE/3/5/

November 20, 2019

Olukemi Asemota
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology
PO Box 62000-00200
Nairobi, Kenya
0723342166

Dear Olukemi

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I refer to your request to conduct research at the University of Nairobi, towards your PhD Degree thesis entitled: *"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"*.

I write to inform you that your request has been approved.

You are however required to share the findings of your study with the University of Nairobi by depositing a copy of your research findings with the Director, Library & Information Services on completion of your study.

MADARA OGOT
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
(RESEARCH, INNOVATION AND ENTERPRISE)
AND
PROFESSOR OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

Copy to: Director, Library and Information Services

/jwn

Appendix XVII: Letter of Approval to Collect Data: Moi Univeristy

MOI UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR
(ACADEMICS, RESEARCH AND EXTENSION)

Tel: (053) 43355
(053) 43620
Fax: (053) 43412
Email: dvc_are@mu.ac.ke or dvcaremoi@gmail.com

P.O. Box 3900
Eldoret - 30100
Kenya.

REF: MU/DVC/REP/27B

Date: 18th November, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA – OLUKEMI ASEMOTA

The above subject matter refers.

Ms. Olukemi Asemota who is a Doctoral Student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) has applied for authority to collect data at Moi University (Nairobi Campus). We would be grateful if she is permitted to collect data on research topic *"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"*.

By a copy of this letter authority is hereby granted to her to conduct the research.

After the completion of the research, a complete report both on hard and soft copy will be handed over to the office of Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Academics, Research & Extension.

Any assistance accorded to her will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

PROF. I. N. KIMENGI, Ph.D.
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
(ACADEMICS, RESEARCH & EXTENSION)

(ISO 9001: 2015 Certified Institution)

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Appendix XVIII : Letter of Approval to Collect Data: Kenyatta Univeristy

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR, RESEARCH, INNOVATION AND OUTREACH

Ref: KU/DVCR/RCR/VOL.3/306

P. O. Box 43844 – 00100
Nairobi. Kenya
Tel. 254-20-810901 Ext. 026
E-mail: dvc-rio@ku.ac.ke

Ms. Olukemi Asemota
Dept. of Entrepreneurship and Procurement,
College of Human Resource Development,
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology,
JUJA

1st December, 2020

Dear Ms. Asemota,

RE: **REQUEST TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA AT KENYATTA UNIVERSITY**

This is in reference to your letter dated 20th July, 2020 requesting for authorization to collect research data at Kenyatta University on the topic **"Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya"** *towards the award of a PhD* of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology.

I am happy to inform you that the Vice-Chancellor has approved your request to collect data. It has been noted that your data will be collected from academic and senior administrative staff.

The University requires that, upon completion of your research, you submit a hard copy of your thesis to the Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Research who shall forward it to the University Library. Kindly therefore download, complete and

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sign Form RIO3 and return it to my office prior to the commencement of collection of data. This form can be accessed and downloaded from the research webpage.

Yours Sincerely,

Prof. F. Q. Gravenir
Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Research, Innovation & Outreach

cc. Vice-Chancellor
    DVC, Academic

Appendix XIX: Letter of Approval to Collect Data: Egerton Univeristy

EGERTON UNIVERSITY
NAIROBI CITY CAMPUS
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

Tel: (020) 2247269
Mobile: 0736309390
E-mail: ncc@egerton.ac.ke

Stanbank House
Moi Avenue
P O Box 20075 - 00200
NAIROBI

TO:

Ms. OLUKEMI ASEMOTA

DATE: 4ᵗʰ December 2019

Dear Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FOR PhD RESEARCH AT EGERTON UNIVERSITY, NAIROBI CITY CAMPUS (NCC)

The above captioned matter refers. Your request to carry out a PhD research entitled "Influence of Perceived Organizational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya" has been granted. Thank

Dr. Panuel Mwacke (PHD)
Director, Nairobi Campus

Appendix XX: Letter of Approval to Collect Data: Jomo Kenyatta Univeristy of Science and Technology

JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY

P. O. Box 62000 - 00200, City Square, Nairobi. Tel: +254-67- 5870001- 4, Email:dvc@aa.jkuat.ac.ke

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (ACADEMIC AFFAIRS)

Ref: JKU/2/003/072

28th November 2019

Olukemi Asemota
P.O. Box 7053 – 01000
THIKA

Dear Ms. Asemota,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

Your letter on the above subject refers.

On behalf of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, I wish to inform you that your request to collect data from Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology – Nairobi CBD Campus for your PhD Thesis has been granted on condition that the research findings shall be used solely for academic purposes.

Your research topic is and should remain *"Influence of Perceived Organizational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya."*

I wish you all the best as you embark on your research.

Yours faithfully

PROF. ROBERT KINYUA, PhD.
AG. DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (ACADEMIC AFFAIRS)

Copy to:
Director – Nairobi CBD Campus

RK/es

JKUAT IS ISO 9001:2015 and 14001: 2005 Certified

Setting Trends in Higher Education, Research, Innovation and Entrepreneurship

Appendix XXI: Letter of rejection for pilot study: The Technical University Kenya

THE TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY OF KENYA

Haile Selassie Avenue, P. O. Box 52428, Nairobi, 00200, Tel: +254 (020) 3343672, 2219929, 0732388765,
E-mail: vc@tukenya.ac.ke, Website: www.tukenya.ac.ke

Office of the Vice-Chancellor
Prof. Dr.-Ing. Francis W. O. Aduol

16th December 2019

Our Ref: TUK/UNISEC-VC/RESEARCH/026/VOL. II

Olukemi Asemota,   "BY HAND DELIVERY"
P. O. Box 7053-01000,
THIKA.

Cell Phone: 0743114007, 0746942809

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A PILOT STUDY

We are in receipt of your letter dated 9th December, 2019 on the above-captioned matter and note the contents thereof.

It is indeed a great opportunity to be requested by you to conduct research in our University in the area of "Influence of Perceived Organisational Support on Employee Commitment in Top Public Universities in Kenya". Nevertheless, we regret that our institution will not be able to participate in the said research *albeit* we would be keen to collaborate with you in the future if and when another opportunity arises.

Ruth Kirwa (Mrs.)
University Secretary
FOR: VICE-CHANCELLOR

RK/Leah

Education and training for the real world

ISO 9001:2015 Certified

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