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Examining the Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Organisational Commitment: A Case Study of the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka

C. Katongo[1]; Dr. K. Chibomba[2]; Chita Kalumba[3]

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Advisor:

Mr. C. Katongo

&

Dr. K. Chibomba

By

Chita Kalumba

School of Humanities and Social Sciences

Information and Communications University

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Approved by

(Signed)

Major Advisor

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Chita Kalumba

We certify that this work has passed the scholastic standards requested by Information and Communication University as a final year project for the bachelor's degree.

APPROVED

Chairman of the committee: Mr. C. Katongo

School of Humanities and Social Sciences

……..

Committee member

……

Committee member

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DEDICATION

This research is lovingly dedicated to my family whose unwavering support, encouragement, and sacrifices have inspired me throughout this academic journey.

To my parents, who instilled in me the value of education and to everyone who believed in my potential when I doubted myself, this is for you.

I also dedicate this work to all the hardworking public servants in Zambia who, through commitment and integrity, continue to make a difference in the lives of others.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment among employees of the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka, Zambia. It considered transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and bureaucratic leadership in relation to affective, normative and continuance commitment, and also explored the role of selected demographic characteristics. A descriptive correlational design was adopted, using quantitative and qualitative approaches. Data were collected from 60 respondents drawn from senior, middle and junior management levels through structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Analysis was conducted in SPSS using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, regression analysis and ANOVA. The findings indicate a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and affective and normative commitment. Transactional leadership showed a moderate relationship, particularly with continuance commitment, while laissez-faire leadership was negatively associated with the three forms of commitment. Bureaucratic leadership had a more limited relationship. The results also indicate differences in commitment categories across the sample. In the cross-tabulation, 22 respondents (36.7%) were classified as having high commitment, 26 (43.3%) as having moderate commitment and 12 (20.0%) as having low commitment. The reported chi-square test for the association between gender and commitment category was $\chi^2 = 33.077$, $p = .000$. The study concludes that leadership practices and employee characteristics are relevant to understanding commitment in the Ministry. It recommends leadership approaches that communicate a shared vision, support employees and respond fairly to differences in workplace experience. Leadership is a critical element in effective management of public institutions and resources. However, a number of factors have been associated with ineffective leadership that ends up hurting service delivery to the public. In their study on the role of external factors on public organizational performance in Kenya, Machuki and Aosa (2021) revealed a significant influence of top management leadership on the general performance of those institutions. In focusing on the leadership dynamics and how business institutions were affected due to failure of leadership in South Africa, the findings by Jooste and Fourie (2019) indicated that performance of government and private organizations was dependent on leadership competence and style. This study aimed to examine the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment, with a specific focus on employees at the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka, Zambia. The general objective was to assess how different leadership approaches—transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and bureaucratic—influence the levels and types of employee commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. Additionally, the study investigated the role of demographic factors such as age, gender, and education in shaping commitment levels. A descriptive correlational research design was adopted, employing both quantitative and qualitative methods. Data were collected from a stratified purposive sample of 60 respondents across top, middle, and lower management levels using structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The data were analysed using SPSS, applying descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, regression analysis, and ANOVA. The findings revealed a strong positive correlation between transformational leadership and both affective and normative commitment. The cross-tabulation results reveal clear gender-based variations in overall organizational commitment among employees in the Ministry. Of the 22 employees who reported high commitment (representing 36.7% of the total sample), 100% were male, with no female employees falling into this category. Male respondents in this group often expressed sentiments such as, "I see myself growing here, so I give my best," reflecting a strong sense of attachment and willingness to remain invested in the Ministry's goals. In contrast, commitment among female employees was more evenly distributed across the moderate and low levels. Of the 26 employees who reported moderate commitment (43.3%), 53.8% were male (14 individuals) and 46.2% were female (12 individuals). Respondents in this category tended to describe their relationship with the Ministry as conditional or dependent on workplace experiences, with comments such as, "I am committed, but sometimes the environment makes it difficult." A notable pattern emerges among those with low commitment (20.0%, or 12 employees), where 100% were female. This suggests a gendered disparity in perceived organizational support or satisfaction. Female respondents in this category often shared concerns that hinted at disengagement, with one noting, "I just do what I need to; there isn't much motivation anymore." The Chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 33.077$, $p = .000$) confirms a statistically significant association between gender and commitment level, indicating that these differences are unlikely to have occurred by chance. Transactional leadership showed moderate influence, particularly on continuance commitment, while laissez-faire leadership had a negative effect**

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on all forms of commitment. Bureaucratic leadership showed limited impact. Furthermore, age and education level significantly influenced commitment levels, whereas gender did not.The study concludes that both leadership styles and demographic characteristics play a critical role in shaping employee commitment within public sector organisations. The cross-tabulation results reveal clear gender-based variations in overall organizational commitment among employees in the Ministry. The recommendation is that there is a need for balance leadership across gender. The results reveal noticeable variations in employees' commitment levels across the Ministry, suggesting that demographic differences play a meaningful role in shaping how individuals connect with their organisation. This means that commitment has to be derived from well shared vision based on influence.

Keywords: *Leadership Styles, Organisational Commitment, Transformational Leadership, Public Sector, Employee Engagement, Zambia.*

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background, the problem statement, research objectives, research questions, the conceptual framework, the theoretical framework, the significance of the study, ethical considerations and operation definitions. Key terms are also defined.

➢ *Background of the Study*

Leadership in public institutions is consequential because government priorities are translated into services through the decisions and conduct of public employees. Surya (2015) argues that public-sector leaders need to provide direction while remaining responsive to the interests and circumstances of the people they supervise. The wider governance environment also shapes how leadership is practised. In discussing public-sector organisations in Europe, Marjanova and Fotov (2024) identify organisational culture, the nature of the sector, leaders' qualifications and competencies, and relationships with other organisations as relevant considerations. These factors illustrate that leadership does not operate in isolation: its influence is conditioned by institutional arrangements, available resources and the expectations placed on public agencies. In countries such as Kenya, as in other public administrations, leadership decisions can affect how policies are interpreted and how services are delivered at national and local levels. A leadership approach that does not fit the institution's circumstances may therefore obstruct the achievement of organisational objectives.

Evidence discussed in the literature also points to leadership capacity as one factor associated with the quality of public services. Breevaart et al. (2014) link shortcomings in leadership practice with weaknesses in staff development and in the systems used to strengthen the capabilities of people holding supervisory responsibilities. Where employees are not adequately supported or equipped, public agencies may struggle to respond effectively to citizens' needs; Lankshear et al. (2013) similarly discuss the consequences that ineffective public-service arrangements can have for service users. These concerns are relevant in settings where administrative procedures are extensive and decision-making can be slow. At the same time, institutional reforms and the redistribution of government responsibilities create opportunities to reconsider how public organisations are led. In Uganda, Awan, Qureshi and Arif (2022) identify leadership practice as relevant to organisational outputs, while Ahmed (2023) reports an association between leadership approach and organisational performance. Such findings do not imply that one model will work in every public institution. They instead underline the need to consider leadership alongside the operational and governance conditions in which public employees work.

Leadership can influence an organisation through the priorities leaders establish, the standards they reinforce and the way they engage employees. These influences are not confined to senior executives; supervisors and managers at different levels can shape workplace norms and the implementation of strategy. Donkin (2024) emphasises the role of leaders in influencing people and mobilising organisational resources. For a public institution, this makes the relationship between leadership behaviour and employees' willingness to contribute an important issue for investigation.

➢ *Statement of the Problem*

The effective administration of public resources depends partly on the ability of leaders to guide employees and sustain their commitment to institutional responsibilities. When leadership is poorly matched to organisational needs, staff coordination and the delivery of services may be affected. Research in Kenya by Machuki and Aosa (2021) identifies top-management leadership as an important factor in public organisational performance. Jooste and Fourie (2019), examining leadership challenges in South Africa, likewise discuss the relationship between leadership competence and the performance of public and private organisations. Miring'u (2021) reports that leadership and management capacity can support innovation and the development of ideas, although that study's emphasis on the private sector leaves questions about how

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similar relationships operate in public administration. This distinction is important because public institutions work within specific mandates, accountability arrangements and service obligations. The present study addresses this contextual concern by examining the association between leadership styles and organisational commitment among employees of the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka. It focuses on whether the leadership approaches experienced by employees correspond with differences in their attachment to, obligation towards and perceived need to remain with the organisation.

➢ *Objectives of the Study*

- *General Objective*

The overall aim of this study is to investigate the relationship of leadership styles and organisational commitment at the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka. To achieve this aim, the specific objectives of this study are:

✓ *Specific Objectives*

- To investigate the commitment levels of employees towards their organisations
- To explore the demographic factors related to commitment levels of employees
- To analyse the variations in commitment levels due to the differences in demographic factors

➢ *Research Questions*

The following questions will be used in this study;

- Are there different commitment levels of employees towards their organisations
- Does demographic factors have any relationship to commitment levels of employees
- Are there any variations in commitment levels due to the differences in demographic factors

➢ *Hypotheses*

- Ho: Leadership style is not a strong predictor of staff commitment
- Hi: Leadership style is a strong predictor of staff commitment

➢ *Theoretical Framework*

Leadership research examines how leaders influence collective work, coordinate the efforts of employees and contribute to the achievement of organisational purposes. The theoretical perspectives relevant to this study offer different explanations of that influence. Some focus on personal attributes, others on observable behaviour, the conditions surrounding a leadership situation, or the relationship between leaders and followers. These perspectives are useful because leadership outcomes are unlikely to be explained by a single characteristic in every organisational setting. As Rollinson et al. (2001) observe, leadership involves achieving results through the coordinated efforts of other people; the way those efforts are directed can therefore have implications for employee behaviour and performance.

The trait perspective is among the earlier explanations of leadership. It proposes that certain personal characteristics may distinguish people who emerge as leaders. Stogdill's (1948) review, however, drew attention to the fact that leadership situations differ and place different demands on those responsible for leading. This observation challenged the idea that a fixed set of traits can explain leadership effectiveness in all circumstances. Behavioural approaches consequently shifted attention towards what leaders do. Rather than treating leadership as an outcome of personality alone, these approaches consider patterns of action, including the extent to which a leader gives attention to tasks, production and employees. Research associated with the University of Michigan and Ohio State University identified employee-centred and production-

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centred behaviour as important dimensions of leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). For this study, the distinction is relevant because employees may respond differently depending on whether their leaders prioritise task completion, staff needs or a combination of both.

Situational and contingency perspectives propose that leadership effectiveness depends on the fit between a leader's approach and the circumstances in which the leader operates. Cheng and Chan (2002) explain that contextual conditions can influence the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes. The models commonly associated with this perspective include Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, House's (1971) path-goal theory and the situational leadership model attributed to Hersey and Blanchard (1969). Taken together, these approaches reject the assumption that one leadership style is universally effective. The suitability of an approach may depend on the working relationship between a leader and employees, the clarity and structure of tasks, employees' capabilities and the authority available to the leader. This perspective is pertinent to a ministry setting, where responsibilities, procedures and employee experience may differ across departments and management levels.

Transformational and transactional leadership theories explain two different ways in which leaders can shape employee effort. Transactional leadership is based on an exchange: expectations are specified and performance may be linked to rewards or corrective action. Bass (1985, as cited by Chan, 2005) associates this approach with employees' interests and the negotiated expectations between supervisors and staff. Transformational leadership, by contrast, places greater emphasis on the relationship between leaders and followers and on encouraging employees to identify with broader organisational purposes. Bass (1985, 1996, as cited by Murphy and Drodge, 2004) describes this approach as encouraging people to look beyond immediate personal interests. The four behaviours commonly associated with transformational leadership are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. These distinctions provide a basis for examining whether employees' experiences of leadership correspond with affective, normative and continuance commitment.

In this study, leadership style refers to the recurring way in which a leader directs work, makes decisions, communicates expectations and relates to employees. The literature uses several classifications, including democratic, autocratic, charismatic, transactional, transformational and laissez-faire approaches. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) discuss a range of decision-making approaches, while Bass and Avolio (1993) distinguish transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership as major patterns for analysis. The styles considered in the present research are discussed below in relation to the way they may shape employees' work experiences and commitment.

Transactional leadership is organised around clearly stated expectations and exchanges between a supervisor and an employee. A leader may recognise the achievement of agreed targets through rewards and respond to performance shortfalls through corrective measures (Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003). This approach can make responsibilities and performance standards more explicit, particularly where tasks and outputs can be measured. However, an emphasis on compliance and external rewards may not, by itself, encourage employees to contribute beyond the minimum requirements. Bass (1990) discusses the possibility that transactional arrangements may limit motivation when they do not provide a broader source of inspiration. The effectiveness of the approach also depends on whether promised rewards and agreed standards are applied consistently; Howell and Avolio (1993) identify inconsistency in contingent-reward practices as a concern. The literature therefore suggests that transactional leadership may provide structure, but its relationship with commitment can depend on how fairly and reliably the exchange is managed.

Transformational leadership seeks to connect employees' daily work with a wider organisational purpose. It involves communicating a meaningful direction, encouraging employees to reconsider established practices and recognising that individuals may need different forms of support. Ismail et al. (2009) associate this approach with the development of employees' values, motivation and capabilities. Bass (1994) similarly

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describes leaders who encourage followers to move beyond narrow self-interest and consider collective goals. A leader who explains a shared vision and demonstrates the behaviours expected of others may strengthen morale and willingness to participate (Stewart, 2006). Research by Howell and Avolio (1993), as discussed by Judge and Piccolo (2004), links dimensions such as charisma, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration with business-unit performance. In the context of this study, the central question is whether employees who experience these behaviours also report stronger emotional attachment or a greater sense of obligation towards the Ministry.

Bureaucratic leadership places considerable weight on formal rules, established procedures and defined lines of authority. Such an approach can support consistency, accountability and compliance, particularly where decisions involve public funds, safety or regulated processes. Michael (2010), however, notes that a strong procedural orientation may leave less room for employee development and motivation if rules take precedence over engagement with people. Its value is therefore context-dependent. Standardised procedures may be necessary for routine or high-risk activities, while excessive rigidity may constrain initiative in work that requires adaptation, creativity or collaboration. In a public institution, the relevant issue is not simply whether rules exist, but how leaders balance procedural obligations with the need to support employees.

Democratic leadership involves allowing employees to contribute to decisions that affect their work. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) associate this approach with the sharing of decision-making authority between leaders and subordinates. Participation can help leaders obtain information from staff and may strengthen employees' sense that their views are considered. Nevertheless, consultation can take time, and not every decision can be made collectively. Differences in experience, technical knowledge and responsibility may also mean that employees do not have identical roles in every decision. The usefulness of democratic leadership therefore depends on the nature and urgency of the issue, as well as the capacity of the group to reach and implement a decision.

Autocratic leadership concentrates decision-making authority in the leader. Employees are generally expected to follow instructions, with limited participation in determining how work is organised. A directive approach may enable rapid decisions in situations requiring immediate coordination, but sustained reliance on it can restrict communication and employee discretion. Michael (2010) associates highly controlling leadership with risks to shared purpose, commitment and innovation. Where employees have little opportunity to contribute ideas or understand the reasons for decisions, their involvement may become primarily compliance-based. This makes the approach important to consider when assessing how leadership practices relate to employees' willingness to identify with organisational goals.

Charismatic leadership relies substantially on the leader's ability to communicate an appealing vision and inspire confidence in others. The personal influence of such a leader may encourage enthusiasm and support for organisational initiatives. Michael (2010), however, draws attention to a potential weakness: when influence is concentrated in one individual and successors are not developed, the organisation may find it difficult to sustain direction after that person leaves. Charisma may therefore mobilise employees, but its longer-term value also depends on whether the leader builds shared capacity, institutional systems and other sources of leadership within the organisation.

Laissez-faire leadership is characterised by limited direct involvement from the person formally responsible for leading. Employees may be given considerable discretion, while guidance, monitoring and timely decisions are reduced. Delegation can be appropriate when staff are experienced, motivated and clear about their responsibilities. Dubrin (1998) notes that this approach may work with capable and self-directed employees. Where direction or support is needed, however, a lack of leadership involvement can leave employees uncertain about priorities and standards. Deluga (1992) associates laissez-faire leadership with dissatisfaction and ineffective organisational functioning. The effect of this style is therefore likely to depend on employees' readiness and the extent to which the organisation provides clear systems of accountability.

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- *Organizational Performance*

Organisational performance is a broad concept used to describe how well an institution or enterprise fulfils its intended purposes. Richard et al. (2008) note that it is a central outcome in management research, although its meaning varies across studies and settings. Earlier work considered performance in relation to the achievement of organisational objectives (Tannenbaum, 1957). Later approaches have also distinguished effectiveness—whether intended results are achieved—from efficiency—the resources required to achieve them (Lusthaus and Adrien, 1998, drawing on Campbell, 1970). Performance may consequently be assessed through several indicators rather than one measure. Depending on the organisation, these may include service outcomes, productivity, quality, resource use, employee outcomes or financial results. The relevance of each indicator depends on the organisation's mandate; for a public ministry, service delivery and fulfilment of institutional responsibilities are important considerations alongside internal efficiency.

- *Key Measurements of Organizational Performance*

Because organisational performance has several dimensions, researchers have argued for using more than one indicator when assessing it (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). In commercial settings, growth and profitability are frequently considered, since sustained expansion may be difficult without adequate financial returns (Markman and Gartner, 2002; Fitzsimmons et al., 2005). Leadership effectiveness may also be assessed by considering whether organisational objectives are achieved and whether employees' work-related needs are addressed (Furnham, 2002). These measures should not be transferred uncritically to public institutions. In this research, performance literature provides context for understanding leadership, while the main outcome under examination is organisational commitment among Ministry employees.

- *Leadership Style and Organizational Performance*

Studies of leadership and organisational performance generally indicate that the relationship is influenced by the particular leadership behaviours and outcomes being examined. Fu-Jin et al. (2010) report that leadership styles may be associated with either positive or negative performance relationships, depending on the variables and context. McGrath and MacMillan (2000) discuss the contribution of managerial leadership to organisational performance and competitive advantage. Sun (2002), comparing schools and enterprises, reports positive associations between leadership style and performance in both settings. Fu-Jin et al. (2010) further suggest that employees may show greater interest in their work when leaders demonstrate concern and respect. Other work also treats leadership as one influence on organisational improvement (Avolio, 1999; Lado, Boyd and Wright, 1992; Rowe, 2001). These studies provide a rationale for examining leadership in the Ministry, but their findings should be interpreted in light of the present study's specific focus on employee commitment rather than assumed to establish a direct effect on the Ministry's performance.

➢ *Significance of the Study*

The study is significant because it provides evidence about how employees of the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka experience leadership and how those experiences relate to organisational commitment. The findings may help the Ministry identify leadership practices that support employees' attachment to institutional goals and highlight areas where management development or workplace support may be needed. The study also adds a Zambia-based public-sector case to the wider discussion of leadership and commitment and may provide a useful point of comparison for subsequent research.

➢ *Operational Definition of Key Terms*

- Chief Executive Officer is responsible for the operations of the firm; reports to the board of directors.
- A leadership style is a leader's smartness of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. There are many different leadership styles proposed by various authors that can be exhibited by leaders in the political, business or other fields (Griffin R. 2002).
- An employee is a person who is paid to work for an organization or for another person (Giddens, 2012).

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CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

This Chapter begins by explaining what Literature Review is and its importance in the research process. The chapter also brings to the fore the themes that that will be covered in the review. The chapter will logically and critically analyse literature written by others in the subject under review Creswell (2007) postulates that a literature review is important because enables one to discuss relevant research carried out in the same topic, provides means for discussing variables that are relevant to the topic, identifies relationships between ideas, places each work in the context of its contribution to understanding the research problem being studied, describes the relationship of each work to the others under consideration, identifies new ways to interpret prior research, reveals any gaps that exist in the literature, resolves conflicts amongst seemingly contradictory previous studies, identifies areas of prior scholarship to prevent duplication of effort and points the way in fulfilling a need for additional research. To be discussed are;

- Commitment levels of employees towards their organisations
- Demographic factors related to commitment levels of employees
- Variations in commitment levels due to the differences in demographic factors

➢ *Commitment Levels of Employees Towards their Organisations*

Studies have proven that leadership directly influences success or failure of institutions both in the private and public sectors (Mavin, Gandy & Williams, 2017). Leaders or managers directly determine work values, culture, change direction, and employee motivation among other aspects which are critical. This implies that it is the prerogative of the leader or manager to shape the institutional structures and give directions on how to effectively execute the visions of an organization. Despite the bureaucracies in government institutions such as at national government level, leadership plays an instrumental role in policy direction as well as day to day practices in public service delivery (Riccucci & Van Ryzin, 2016). In Abuja Nigeria, Ibrahim & Daniel (2019) used mixed method approach to reveal that managers' leadership style significantly influenced organizational performance. Furthermore, leaders played a critical role in motivation of the staffs which eventually determined the extent of their willingness to effectively perform in their duties. Ibrahim and Daniel (2019) further established that participatory leadership approach enhanced the aspect of delegation which further improved staff performance. Leadership style also influenced the direction of the employees' efforts at corporate and personal levels. The study concluded that organizations should strive to have the right individuals at leadership positions in order to effectively excel in organizational goals.

Hatmaker and Hassan (2014) surveyed staff and management of a big company to understand how managerial styles affected outputs of public institutions. It was revealed that when there is visionary and focused control at the top of an organization, employees perform better. The researchers recommended that effective public management requires proactive managers who are able to put into consideration the needs of their employees as they make key decisions in an organization. Regarding constituency approach, Ali et al (2010) argue that organizations are mostly considered as effectively performing when majority of the stakeholders appears to have such views. That means that organizational performance is also a function of public opinion, especially when considered in the context of customer satisfaction. However, this argument could be debatable since it is not possible to always get the views of all stakeholders of an organization in order to analyze their level of satisfaction about how the institution is serving its intended service recipients. By addressing the aspect of accountability of the leadership as a factor of organizational performance, the current study stands a better chance of highlighting critical determining leadership factors of organizational performance. Accountability and Performance in Government Organizations Accountability promotes organizational performance and delivery of service especially in the public sector. Studies indicate that accountability enhances employee commitment to work and engenders a high sense of creativity and innovation (Laegreid, 2014). Empirical evidence further shows that accountability in organizational operations

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increases morale and satisfaction levels among the workforce hence translating into better outcomes for the entire organization (Vermeeren, Kuipers & Steijn, 2014). Vermeeren et al (2014) define accountability as the fundamental precondition for prevention of misuse of power and privileges by those at the helm of the organization. It makes leaders to be answerable to their actions or omissions such that their privileged positions can instead be directed towards enhancing efficiency, effectiveness, and responsiveness in the organizations they work for.

In the Kenyan context, the devolved government units are often being accused of corruption, mismanagement of resources and lack of transparency and accountability among top government officials (Machuki and Aosa, 2011). Yet at the same time, there is very high public expectation from the county governments, especially given the main objective of devolution where services are supposed to be brought closer to the people (Yang, 2012). Therefore, the current study was critical in addressing crucial leadership practices that are likely to influence performance of a public organization with specific reference to Nyeri County Headquarters. Leadership development practices in public organizations and government cannot be overemphasized when it comes to determining the outcome of the organizations (Liao, 2010). Yet, often organizational culture in some government offices tend to hamper performance by public servants hence derailing the government's overarching objective of serving its citizens in a fair, equitable and effective manner (Mathew et al, 2016). In another study by Halim and Agustiawan (2019) regarding accountability in organizations in Indonesia, it emerged that performance, financial, hierarchical, professional, and legal accountability were the common constituents of accountability that determined public sector organizations. Using a mixed method approach and conducted specifically in Yogyakarta region of Indonesia where 114 respondents were interviewed using a questionnaire, the study further noted that hierarchical and professional accountability did not matter as much as the rest of the categories of accountability in as far as their influence on organizational performance was concerned. However, although accountability in general significantly influenced performance of public organizations, the study by Halim and Agustiawan (2019) was conducted in a different study environment, thereby calling for an update on this subject in a different study context

Similarly, Choi and Chun (2020) conducted a study where it focused on the relationship between many aspects of accountability in a private company in Korea. The outcome of the research indicated that generally higher accountability generates more desirable outcomes for government institutions. More specifically, legal and hierarchical accountability present better performance especially when it comes to student satisfaction. The study concluded that accountability is an important element for organizational performance in public institutions. However, different aspects of accountability have different effects on the performance. Yet, the study by Choi and Chun (2020) was done in a different context from the current study which will be imperative for highlighting the study subject in the Kenya's situation. Delegation and Performance in Government Organizations Delegation is the act of managers sharing some of their responsibilities and authority with their immediate juniors. This process motivates the subordinates to develop a greater sense of belonging and appreciation by their bosses hence boosting their self-esteem and subsequently their performance at the workplace (Inuwa, 2016). To the managers, delegation gives them an opportunity to focus on higher-level tasks while at the same time allowing those delegated to, to learn new skills. Empirical evidence shows that delegation is more practical where the leader or manager has created trust and improved communication between workers (Olesia, Namusonge and Iravo, 2013). Ultimately, delegation improves productivity, efficiency, and time management by all employees who are involved. However, different dynamics and circumstances determine effect of delegation in an organization.

According to Makori (2014), like many other countries, in Kenya several government and private organizations have been linked to corruption and mismanagement, thereby leading to poor performance. Yet, despite the general consensus that devolution has brought government services closer to the people, there have been numerous complaints regarding favouritism and corruption when it comes to offering various services to the members of the public. Notably, despite devolved government units which were intended to be aligned with the essential needs of the citizens, there are still doubts if the strategy is achieving its intended propose in terms

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of effective management of public institutions. Despite the widespread celebration of devolution in Kenya which has been found to have remarkable impact on government's performance related to services to people, numerous complaints are still raised from various public quarters with regards to the manner in which various social or interest groups of members of the public are served. In this respect, government organizations' leadership may become a subject of debate since the top management is always expected to provide a lead on things that are organized and managed in as far as better performance outcome is concerned (Murad & Gill, 2016).

Organizational commitment is not only important in private sector but also in local authorities. The local authorities, whose decision-making organs are directly elected by people and whose executive organs are partly elected by people, are in intense interaction with them. For this reason, societal change and development affect directly the local authorities. Important legal reforms have been realized in 2003-2008 in the field of local government. The local authorities, with growing powers, financial resources and activity areas, are supposed to meet the service needs of people in effective way. One of the main conditions of fulfilling this task is to keep the organizational commitment of workers at higher level.

However, when employees are highly motivated then they showed organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (Koehler and Rainey, 2008). When job is properly designed in terms of relationship collection of tasks and reorganization of employees then it create satisfaction, motivation and finally leads to organization commitment. (Grant, 2007). Purvanova, Bono, and Dzieweczynski (2006) explained that transformational leadership played a very important role in creating job commitment .when job is challenging and meaningful that is it is properly designed then it leads to creating positive behaviour of employees towards the job. Akinboye (2005) explained that positive behavior of leaders help in creating motivation and employee commitment. Job satisfaction and commitment finally leads to lower the employee turnover (Lee, 1999). When time is properly managed in the organization people are more motivated to work as well designed procedures create role clarity and finally commitment (Webb, 2006).

The organizational commitment of employees can be summarized in three indicators, such as having faith in organizational values and sharing its aims, making efforts beyond expectations in the name of the organization and willingness to maintain membership of the organization (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979: 226). Organizational commitment goes beyond the classical concept of commitment. It implies a more active commitment. Employees are willing to give their personal contribution to the well-being of the organization. Therefore, the organizational commitment reflects not only on their expressions and statements but also appears in their acts and deeds (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979: 226). Different commitment types have been identified through scientific studies on organizational commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman speak of "attitudinal commitment" approach which implies that person's goals and interests coincide with the organizational goals and interests. In the attitudinal commitment, the organization – employee relationship is based on reciprocal (mutual) exchange.

The employees expect a return for their contribution to the organization and remain committed to the organization as long as their rewarded for the services (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986: 492-499). Becker emphasizes the behavioral commitment approach. In this case, employees make an endeavor beyond expected performance level. (Becker, 1960: 32-40; Kacmar et al., 1999: 976-994) The classification applied by Allen and Meyer has been broadly accepted in the literature on organizational commitment. According to them, there are three different types of commitment in practice: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990: 1-18).

A research conducted by Sabir (2011) noted that If the management of the organization tries to satisfy the needs of its employees the commitment of the employee will also increase and employee will prefer to remain the part of the organization (Hamdia and Phadett, 2011). If Leadership style has greater importance for the organization in context of increasing commitment (Blau, 1985) and leadership style is considered as antecedent

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of commitment (Willims and Hazer, 1986). Riaz and Haider (2010) concluded that transformational and transactional leadership positively correlated with the job success and satisfaction while transformational leadership found more significant and strong relationship with job success and career satisfaction as compared to transactional leadership.

To bring the organization commitment Transformational leaders has strong influence on employees as compare to transactional leaders. Sub elements of transformational leadership such as intellectual stimulation, inspiration, idealized influence are significantly correlated with the organizational affective and normative commitment. Inspirational motivation and idealized consideration are not correlated significantly with continuous commitment while inspirational motivation and individual consideration has significant and positive relationship with organizational continuous commitment (Lo, Ramayah, Min & Songan, 2010). Most recent researches on the leadership style and organizational commitment (Marmaya, Torsiman and Balakrishnan, 2011) shows that transformational and transactional leadership have positive relationship with employees' organizational commitment while employees of Malaysian organization are more influenced by transformational than transactional.

➢ *Demographic Factors Related to Commitment Levels of Employees*

Many factors affect organizational commitment, such as: demographic variables, indi vidual differences, work experiences and alternatives/investments (Avci & Erdem, 2017). Demographic variables or personal characteristics are the most studied antece dents of organizational commitment. 2.2.1. Gender and organizational commitment Exploration of the relationship between gender and organizational commitment is usually based on two theories or models: the job model and the gender model (Aven et al., 1993; Marsden et al., 1993). The job model indicates that employees, regardless of sex, who are working in a similar working environment, demonstrate the compar able levels of organizational commitment (Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Rajesh & Li-Ping Tang, 2015). On the contrary, the gender model states that men and women have dif ferent levels of organizational commitment (Eagly et al., 2000; Sheikh, 2017). Despite an extensive amount of research, the relationship between gender and organizational commitment remains unclear. Some studies are in line with the job model, and have not discovered any relation between gender and organizational commitment (Ajayi, 2017; Aven et al., 1993; Mahanta, 2012; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Rabindarang et al., 2014). Therefore, another set of studies sug gests the presence of the correlation between gender and organizational commitment. Some of them report greater commitment expressed by women (Marsden et al., 1993; Messner, 2017; Mowday et al., 1982; Opayemi, 2004), while some others observed higher organizational commitment in the case of men (Aydin et al., 2011; Jena, 2015; Kumasey et al., 2014; Marsden et al., 1993). Based on job model and due to increasing equality between men and women at the workplace the hypothesis 1 of this paper is defined as: There are no differences in organizational commitment between men and women. 2.2.2. Age and organizational commitment Empirical research has uncovered contradicting results for the age and organizational commitment connection. Much research has discovered a positive correlation between age and organizational commitment (Affum-Osei et al., 2015; Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1993; Amangala, 2013; Elkhdr & Kanbur, 2018; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Nifadkar & Dongre, 2014; Sheikh, 2017). Possible explanations for these results are that older employees have better positions and higher satisfaction with their jobs (Khan & 3554 D. BAKOTIĆ Zafar, 2013), they have lower number of available employment options (Mowday et al., 1982) and they observe high cost of leaving the company. Additionally, older people lower their expectations to more realistic levels and adjust themselves better to their work situations (Newstrom, 2007). However, several research studies have not discovered a significant correlation between age and organizational commitment (Akinyemi, 2014; Booth-Kewley et al., 2017; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). In line with above reasoning, it is anticipated that older employees have higher level of organizational commitment. Therefore, the hypothesis 2 is: The oldest employ ees demonstrate the highest level of organizational commitment. 2.2.3. Tenure and organizational commitment Tenure is a reliable organizational commitment predictor. Longer an employee works in an organization more likely s/he is to develop emotions and loyalty towards the organization; s/he may experience promotions and advancements, gain increased sal ary and other benefits. Furthermore, all of that develops a

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sense of belonging. Additionally, a positive relationship between tenure and organizational commitment might be a result of the fact that employees with the low level of organizational com mitment leave an organization, while employees with a high level of organizational commitment stay (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Research results mainly confirm this by reporting a positive correlation between tenure and organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Amangala, 2013; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Newstrom, 2007; Nifadkar & Dongre, 2014; Sheikh, 2017). On the other hand, there are some research studies that have not found any correlation between tenure and organizational commitment (Avci & Erdem, 2017; Booth-Kewley et al., 2017; Mahanta, 2012), while Liou and Nyhan (1994) and Boon and Safa (2006) determined a significant negative correlation between tenure and organiza tional commitment. Based on the reasons stated above, the hypothesis 3 is: Employees with the longest tenure report the highest level of organizational commitment. 2.2.4. Education and organizational commitment In today's environment characterized by lifelong learning, clarifying the connection between education and organizational commitment is especially important. Some research studies have discovered a positive correlation between education and organ izational commitment (Akintayo et al., 2010; Amangala, 2013). This means that higher educated employees report a greater level of organizational commitment. However, the majority of research suggests a negative relationship between education and organizational commitment, which means that higher employee educational qual ifications leads to lower organizational commitment (Khan et al., 2013; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Newstrom, 2007). Kwon and Banks (2004) explained this by fact that the employees with the higher education have the higher number of job possibilities. Additional explanation is that highly educated people may have greater expectations from their organization which the organization might not be able to satisfy (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Mowday et al., 1982).

Moreover, people with low educational qualifications find it difficult to find new jobs and because of that, they are more committed to their organizations (Khan et al., 2013). In addition, employees with low educational qualifications usually do not have skills needed for engagement in other organizations (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). However, there are research that have not found any correlation between organiza tional commitment and employees' education (Booth-Kewley et al., 2017; Rabindarang et al., 2014). Based on the results of the majority of research regarding the relationship between education and organizational commitment, the hypothesis 4 proposes: The higher employee's education means lower organizational commitment.

It is reasonable to state that marital status is logical determinant of organizational commitment. Married people have additional family responsibilities and obligations, which requires certain security of their jobs. Consequently, they invest more in their jobs in every respect; they are more motivated, hard and overtime working, and finally, more loyal to their organizations (Khan et al., 2013). Research results mainly confirm these considerations (Elkhdr & Kanbur, 2018; Jena, 2015; Mrinali, 2015; Nifadkar & Dongre, 2014; Sheikh, 2017). However, some studies have not found cor relation between marital status and organizational commitment (Avci & Erdem, 2017; Mahanta, 2012; Rabindarang et al., 2014; Shah et al., 2020). The hypothesis of this paper is grounded in the last-mentioned research results and due to the need of all employees to realize themselves in working environment and to fit in some organization, regardless of marital status. So, hypothesis 5 proposes: There are no differences in organizational commitment regarding employees' marital status.

Organizations get their work accomplished through employees who perform different tasks. Therefore in order to improve the performance of organizations, employee commitment is necessary as it promotes level of individual employee performance. An employee who is committed in the work place is of great value to the organization as they may need little or no supervision to accomplish the tasks assigned to them (Brow & Taylor, 2011). John & Elyse (2010) asserted that there is no firm that can achieve peak performance in the current competitive business environment unless it makes optimal use of its employees. Every employee needs to be committed to the company's goals and objectives, performs their duties as effectively as a member of the team in order to realize organizational objectives. Employees need to partner with the entrepreneurs as they

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rely on the efforts of the entrepreneur to deliver on the organizational objectives. This is due to the fact employees want to be part of an organization that is successful, which pays well and offers opportunities for development and security of tenure (John & Elyse, 2010). Brow & Taylor (2011) argued that committed employees remain within the organization therefore saving the organization of the costs required to recruit, train and develop new staff. In addition, high staff turnover increases customer satisfaction due to discontinued service delivery (Scott, 2007). Jaw and Liu (2004), argue that commitment is a human relation idea as well as a generator of energy that activates the human brain.

When employees are not committed, the implementation of new ideas and initiatives will not be easy. John and Elyse (2010) define commitment as a psychological state that holds the employees to the organization. It is binding force that is felt in different ways including: an affective attachment and sense of involvement with the object, a felt duty to the target, and an knowledge of the costs that will be incureed if involvement with the target is discontinued (Conway and Monks, 2002). In general, employee commitment can be conceptualized into three components including: normative commitment, affective commitment and continuance commitment (Hurter, 2008). Normative commitment reflects an employee's feeling of obligation to continue working with the 1 organization because they believe it is right to be loyal to, and to continue staying in the organization (Conway and Monks, 2002).Staff dedication to the work place is linked with an employees obligation to their work though it is closely related to that afectionate an employee feels about their work. (Coyle-Shapiro, 2006). Affective commitment revolves around an individual employee's connection with the company in terms of how well they evaluate their interaction and involvement in company affairs. High commitment among employees has been found to be inversely related to employee turnover in an organization. The result of these is improved performance among employees indicating that strong commitment is directly related to improved organizational performance (Wang, 2010). Committed employees are willing and likely to work with the involved organizations for a longer period. Because of their level of committment, experience and expertise, their output is phenomenon meaning that they increase customer satisfaction (Conway and Monks, 2002). Among the parameters for their commitment could be things like salary, pensions, tenure, benefits and family commitment, among other things involved with exiting the organization (Loi , 2006). However, several researchers outline that employees may display each of the three different commitments at different degrees. Committed workers are one of the most important assets any organization can have as they play an important role in influencing organizational performance (Hurter, 2008). Research shows that higher levels of employee commitment most of the time benefits organisations in terms of continuous improvement, efficiency and cost improvements. Such staff are normally actively involved in the activities of an organization. As a result of this commmittment, such employees have been found to be well trained, feel secure, feel as part of trhe wider team and are proud of and enjoy performing their duties (Conway and Monks, 2002).

Employee commitment is a very important factor to any growth of the organization. It is the degree of identification, involvement, participation and loyalty to an organization. It has an influence on how well an organization performs and delivers its services (Newstrom, 2002). No organization in today's' competitive world can perform at peak levels unless each employee is committed to the organizations' objectives and works as an effective team member. The work place is changing dramatically and demands for highest quality of products are increasing. Appointment of good workers is critical but of greater significance is the organizations ability to create a committed workforce. According to Hancock et al, (2013) commitment is the main predictor of turnover and performance; hence organizations that are concerned about employees and want to keep high performing employees should consider increasing commitment. The literature suggests that positive work-related behavior and attitudes largely depends on employee perceptions on how their employer values their contribution and cares about their wellbeing (Allen et al, 2003). To remain competitive in the face of these pressures Page | 66 Paper Publications ISSN 2349-7807 International Journal of Recent Research in Commerce Economics and Management (IJRRCEM) Vol. 7, Issue 2, pp: (66-79), Month: April - June 2020, Available at: www.paperpublications.org employee commitment is crucial. Without employee commitment there can be no improvement in any business area. To succeed in the face of increasing competition

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organizations need improved productivity at all levels. This requires commitment on the part of all employees which can only be achieved through better management practices in the areas of managing training programmes, competitive and equitable rewards and compensation system, developmental appraisal and career growth (Coetzee, 2005). Chen, et al. [2006] who studied the relationship between organizational commitment, and job performance found that there was a positive relationship between organizational commitment and job performance. Their study suggested that companies needed to strengthen their employees' commitment towards organization in order to enhance organizational performance.

According to Ogunjinmi et al (2013), every individual within an organization is important to the fulfillment of organizational goals and objectives, consequently employee's commitment plays a significant role in the effectiveness and stability of organizations. In the past organizations secured the loyalty of their employees by guaranteeing job security. However, many organizations have responded to competitive pressures by downsizing, restructuring and actualization, thus creating a less secure environment and broken employment psychological contract. To realize the critical importance of people in the organization is to recognize that human element and the organization are synonymous (Yaser, 2012). A growing number of employees feel they are victims of broken promises. One of the challenges facing modern organizations involves maintaining employee commitment in the current competitive pressures. With no assurance of continued employment, employees have now raised their expectations in other areas. For instance employees expect employers to demonstrate their commitment in terms of pleasant and safe working environment, where organization policies such as developmental appraisal, competitive and equitable compensation, having access to comprehensive training and development for career growth, provides employees with the baseline requirements met to go for higher things like job satisfaction and fulfillment hence enhancing organizational commitment (Harter, 2002). According to Coetzee, (2005), committed employees do better work than uncommitted and organizations with committed employees do better financially than the others. Employers need to determine what is responsible for this disparity. Furthermore, organizational effectiveness depends on more than maintaining a stable workforce; employees must perform assigned duties dependably and be willing to engage in activities beyond role requirements. It thus seems that employees' willingness to contribute to organization effectiveness will be influenced by their level of commitment. Vance, (2006), noted that commitment predicts work outcomes, extra role behavior, withdrawal, performance, absenteeism and turnover. Based on this employee behavior can be predicted far into the future. Employees feel encouraged and motivated when they perceive their contributions are valued and their organization care about their material, emotional and intellectual needs.

When employees are not committed this manifest in lateness, absenteeism, turnover and inefficiency This view is supported by (Silverthorne,2004) who notes that committed employees are inclined to stay in organization, participate, put extra effort in their performance and show reduced absenteeism, lateness and turnover intent. Bragg, (2002) argued that companies with committed employees will outperform companies with uncommitted workforce, and contents that demonstrating commitment to employees will generate a reciprocal commitment by employees. As organizations are faced with ever increasing competition and as they prepare for new challenges, one of the key components of survival is maintaining and upgrading human resource management practices. Owens, (2006) stressed the vitals of training for continual updating and improvement, identifying one source of human motivation at work as intrinsic motivation: the desire to grow; learn, and to develop oneself. This view supports Bartlett, (2001) cited in Brum (2007) study who found that training was a current investment that may offer a greater pay off at a later date through reciprocity. Lawson et al (2003) argued that barriers to elicit employee commitment to organization arise from lack of a work environment that fosters opportunities for growth and advancement through training. Absence of training for updating job performance skills as well as encouraging a sense of belonging, lower efficiency and reduce productivity. Compensation is the glue that binds employees and employers together while reward and compensation management is key component of survival in attracting, motivating and retaining the best employees which ultimately lead to organizational efficiency and effectiveness, thus realizing high productivity and profitability. However (Milkovich et al, 2004) argue that a poorly designed compensation

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package is a source of dissatisfaction and employee turnover. A reward and compensation package fails to secure employee commitment when it is viewed as not being fair, inequitable and Page | 67 Paper Publications ISSN 2349-7807 International Journal of Recent Research in Commerce Economics and Management (IJRRCEM) Vol. 7, Issue 2, pp: (66-79), Month: April - June 2020, Available at: www.paperpublications.org inconsistent. Such compensation fails to attract, retain and motivate employees. Employees who quit companies give inadequate or skewed compensation as the reason for exiting. This indicates that compensation management must be taken seriously to achieve a competitive advantage(Dessler, 2005).This view is held by (Harter, 2002) who noted that if a fair and just compensation is provided employees have the baseline requirements met to go for higher things like job satisfaction and fulfillment hence enhancing organizational commitment.

According to Meyer & Allen [1997] commitment "is a psychological state that characterizes the employees' relationship with the organization and has implication for the decision to continue membership in the organization. "This represents the individual's emotional attachment to the organization. According to Meyer and Allen [1997] affective commitment is "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization". Organizational members, who are committed to an organization on an affective basis, continue working for the organization because they want to link closely with the same organization [Meyer and Allen [1997]]. Members who are committed on an affective level stay with the organization because they view their personal employment relationship as congruent to the goals and values of the organization [Beck K, Wilson C. (2000)]. The organizational commitment model of Meyer and Allen [1997] indicates that affective commitment is influenced by factors such as job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, and goal difficulty, receptiveness by management, peer cohesion, equity, personal importance, feedback, participation, and dependability. Affective commitment development involves identification and internalization Lee et al. (2013). The second dimension of the tri-dimensional model of organizational commitment is continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen [1997] define continuance commitment as "awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization". It is calculative in nature because of the individual's perception or weighing of costs and risks associated with leaving the current organization (Meyer and Allen 1997). Meyer and Allen further state that "employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to doso". This indicates the difference between continuance and affective commitment. The latter entails that individual's stay in the organization because they want to. Continuance commitment can be regarded as an instrumental attachment to the organization, where the individual's association with the organization is based on an assessment of economic benefits gained (Beck K, Wilson C. (2000). Organizational members develop commitment to an organization because of the positive extrinsic rewards obtained through the effort-bargain without identifying with the organization's goals and values.

- *To Analyse the Variations in Commitment Levels Due to the Differences in Demographic Factors*

Organisational commitment has been examined as an attitude that connects employees to the organisation in which they work. Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) relate commitment to employees' identification with the organisation and its objectives. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) describe it in terms of employees' involvement, their intention to maintain membership and their willingness to contribute towards organisational goals. Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) similarly emphasise acceptance of organisational values and a desire to remain a member. Robbins and Judge (2013) discuss commitment as an employee's identification with organisational goals and intention to continue the employment relationship. These perspectives indicate that commitment is more than simply remaining in a job: it can involve emotional attachment, a sense of obligation and an assessment of the costs associated with leaving.

Meyer and Allen (1997) distinguish three components of organisational commitment. Affective commitment concerns an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation and identification with its goals; employees remain because they want to. Continuance commitment reflects an assessment of the costs or losses that may accompany leaving, so an employee stays because departure is perceived to be difficult or

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costly. Normative commitment refers to a felt obligation to remain, which may arise from personal values or a sense of responsibility towards the organisation. The three components describe different reasons for maintaining an employment relationship and should not be treated as interchangeable. In this study, the distinction provides the basis for considering whether leadership styles relate differently to employees' emotional attachment, perceived costs of leaving and sense of obligation.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is one statistical approach used to examine whether observed indicators represent the dimensions of a proposed construct. Latan (2012) explains that CFA can be applied to assess the measurement structure and to examine evidence relating to construct validity and reliability. In a second-order CFA model, the analysis considers relationships at two levels: indicators are associated with their respective dimensions, and those dimensions are then related to a broader latent construct. The discussion is relevant to the measurement of organisational commitment because the construct is represented in this study through its affective, continuance and normative components. The use of CFA should, however, be reported only if it was actually conducted in the study; the statistical procedures described in the methodology and results must remain consistent.

The literature reviewed reports different patterns in the relationships between leadership styles and the components of employee commitment. The study discussed in this section found positive associations between transformational leadership and affective and continuance commitment, while transactional leadership was positively associated with normative commitment. It also reported a negative association between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment. The absence of recommendations in that earlier work leaves a practical question for subsequent research: what leadership responses may be appropriate in the setting being studied? The present research addresses this by examining leadership and commitment in the Ministry of Community and Development and by considering implications grounded in its own findings.

Mohammed (2014) examined leadership style and employee performance in the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja, using questionnaires and interviews and analysing the resulting data through correlation analysis in SPSS. The study reported a significant relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. This finding supports the broader relevance of leadership as a subject of organisational research, although performance and commitment are distinct outcomes and should not be treated as equivalent. Employee commitment may also vary with personal and work-related circumstances. Avci and Erdem (2017) identify demographic characteristics, individual differences, work experiences and perceived employment alternatives or investments as factors considered in research on organisational commitment. The present study therefore considers demographic characteristics alongside leadership styles rather than assuming that leadership alone explains employees' commitment.

Theoretical Foundation Globally, leadership has become the most widely studied aspect of organizational behavior and a number of theories have emerged focusing on the strategies, traits, styles and the situational approach to leadership. As a result of ever-growing interest in the field of leadership, behavioral scientists and sociologists began to analyze the possible consequences of leadership behaviors and the variables that are used to predict the leader's behaviors. Since it is the duty of leaders to get things done through the coordinated efforts of others, it is assumed therefore that leadership skills and strategies will translate into the subordinates' performance (Rollinson et. al, 2001).

Traits and Behavioral Theory The trait perspective was one of the earliest theories of leadership in the 1940's which assumes that great leaders are born with distinguished personality traits that make them better suited for leadership and make them different from other people or their followers. Stogdill's (1948) survey of the leadership literature came up with the most comprehensive list of traits. Stogdill's observation that leadership situations vary significantly and place different demands on leaders, destroyed trait theory, leading to the emergence of situational and behavioral approaches. 10 Behavioral theories of leadership state that it is the behavior of leaders that distinguishes them from their followers. It focuses on the actions of leaders rather

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than on mental qualities or internal states with the belief that great leaders are made, not born. According to this theory, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation. Behavior theories examine whether the leader is task oriented, people oriented, or both. Studies conducted at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University in 1945, established two major forms of leader behavior namely: employee-centered and production-centered (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Situational and Contingency Theory Contingency theory is an approach to leadership in which leadership effectiveness is determined by the interaction between the leader's personal characteristics and aspects of the situation. Contingency theories are based on the assumption that the relationship between leadership style and organizational outcomes is moderated by situational factors related to the environment, and therefore the outcomes cannot be predicted by leadership style, unless the situational variables are known (Cheng and Chan, 2002) Three models exist in this leadership approach: Fiedler's (1967) co-worker theory, House's (1971) path-goal theory, and Heresy and Blanchard (1969) situational leadership theory. From this approach and the three models no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of the followers, and aspects of the situation. Effective leadership requires adapting one's style of leadership to situational factors, and control is contingent on three factors namely the relationship between the leader and followers, the degree of the task structure and the leaders' authority, position or power.

Transformational and Transactional Theory Over the past twenty five years, a large body of research has emerged around transformational – transactional leadership theory. Transactional theories focus on the role of supervision, organization and group performance and they base leadership on a system of rewards and punishments for meeting particular objectives. The type of transaction, whether a reward or discipline, depends on the performance of the employee. Bass (1985) as cited by Chan (2005) theorized the transactional leaders appeal to the subordinates' self-interests. Transactional leaders attempt to meet the current needs of their subordinates through bargaining and exchanging. Both leaders and followers focus on achieving the negotiated performance level. Transformational theories focus upon the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leadership is the leader's ability to motivate followers to rise above their own personal goals for the greater good of the organization (Bass, 1985, 1996 as cited by Murphy & Drodge, 2004). Bass (1985) theorized the transformational style of leadership comes from deeply held personal values which cannot be negotiated and appeals to the subordinates' sense of moral obligation and values. Bass declared there were four types of transformational leadership behavior, namely idealized influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation.

Leadership Styles Every leader in every organization performs certain roles/tasks for the smooth operation of the organization and improvement of organizational performance. The manner in 12 which the leader performs these roles and directs the affairs of the organization is referred to as his or her leadership style. Leadership style therefore is the way a leader leads (Oyetunyi, 2006) Leadership styles are as many and diverse as there are definitions and concepts of leadership. Different researchers and academicians alike have come up with different leadership styles. Leadership theories present various leadership styles including charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. Tannenbanum and Schmidt (1958) also identify four widely accepted and used leadership styles: democratic, autocratic, dictatorial, and laissez faire leadership. One of the most prominent formats for classifying and studying leadership includes three leadership styles – laissez-faire (non leadership), transactional (based on reward system and punishments) and transformational (based on inspiration and behavioral charisma) (Bass and Avolio, 1993). Below is a brief examination of some common leadership style dimensions listed above and their potential impact on organizational performance.

Transactional Leadership Effective transactional leadership style is characterized by transactions or exchanges – the promise of reward for good performance, and discipline for poor performance (Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003) Transactional leadership, present in many businesses, may help clarify everyone's

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roles and responsibilities, and because team members are judged on performance, ambitious people motivated by external rewards often thrive. Some of its measures can also de-motivate employees. For example, itdoesn't offer much in terms of inspiration, to motivate people to go beyond the basics; therefore employees might get complacent and develop a tendency to achieve minimal expectations that only 13 would help them avoid penalties (Bass, 1990). Howell and Avolio (1993) observe that if managers do not effectively follow-up on the contingent reward promises, they display behavioral inconsistency and are therefore viewed as ineffective leaders. Bass, et al. (2003) mention that transactional leaders are counterproductive in an evolving work environment. Likewise, Howell and Avolio's (1993) study suggests that transactional leadership style is negatively related to unit performance.

Transformational Leadership Transformational leadership style focuses on the development of value system of employees, their motivational level and moralities with the development of their skills (Ismail et al., 2009). It basically helps follower's achieve their goals working in the organizational setting; it encourages followers to be expressive and adaptive to new and improved practices and changes in the environment (Bass, 1994). Bass further explains that such leadership motivates followers; it moves people beyond self-interests and allows them to focus on the good of the group or society. Transformational leaders are able to articulate an appealing vision of the future by communicating ideologies and leading through example. This leadership tends to improve the team's morale and motivates the team members (Stewart, 2006). The study conducted by Howell and Avolio (1993) concluded that the degree of transformational leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) in a branch manager had a direct impact on the business unit's performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, Howell and Avolio (1993)).

Bureaucratic Leadership Bureaucratic leaders create, and rely on, policy to meet organizational goals. Policies drive execution, strategy, objectives and outcomes. Bureaucratic leaders are most comfortable relying on a stated policy in order to convince followers to get on board. In doing so they send a very direct message that policy dictates direction. Bureaucratic leaders are usually strongly committed to procedures and processes instead of people, and as a result they may appear aloof and highly change adverse. The specific problem or problems associated with using policies to lead are not always obvious until the damage is done. The danger here is that leadership's greatest benefits, motivating and developing people, are ignored by bureaucratic leaders (Michael, 2010). This leadership style is appropriate for work involving serious safety risks or with large sums of money such as banks or when managing employees who perform routine tasks. This style is much less effective in teams and organizations that rely on flexibility, creativity, or innovation.

Democratic Leadership Tannenbanum and Schmidt (1958) describe democratic leadership as one where decision making is decentralized and shared by subordinates. The potential for poor decision making and weak execution is, however, significant here. The biggest problem with democratic leadership is its underlying assumption that everyone has an equal stake in an outcome as well as shared levels of expertise with regard to decisions. That is rarely the case. While democratic leadership sounds good in theory, it often is bogged down in its own slow process, and workable results usually require an enormous amount of effort.

Autocratic Leadership Autocratic leaders are classic "do as I say" types. Typically, these leaders are inexperienced with leadership thrust upon them in the form of a new position or assignment that involves people management. Autocratic leaders retain for themselves the decision- making rights. They can damage an organization irreparably as they force their 'followers' to execute strategies and services in a very narrow way, based upon a subjective idea of what success looks like. There is no shared vision and little motivation beyond coercion. Commitment, creativity and innovation are typically eliminated by autocratic leadership. In fact, most followers of autocratic leaders can be described as biding their time, waiting for the inevitable failure this leadership produces and the removal of the leader that follows (Michael, 2010).

Charismatic Leadership Charismatic leadership style is considered to be the most successful and valued trait driven leadership style. Charismatic leaders have a vision, as well as a personality that motivates followers

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to execute that vision. This style provides fertile ground for creativity and innovation, and is often highly motivational. However, a problem arises when they leave the organization – it can appear rudderless and without direction for long because charismatic leaders rarely develop replacements. Their leadership is based upon strength of personality. As a result, charismatic leadership usually eliminates other competing, strong personalities (Michael, 2010)

Laissez-faire Leadership The manager delegates almost all authority and control to subordinates. There is no person of authority in the organization. The manager leads the organization indirectly, he/she does not make decisions; rather he/she abides by popular decisions. There is no setting of goals and objectives by the manager. Tasks are done the way the manager thinks it should be done, but he/she gets involved on request and this may lead to the digression from broad organizational policy. Thus, this style of leadership may be effective with well-motivated and experienced employees (Dubrin, 1998:111), but could lead to failure when subordinates are deceptive, unreliable and untrustworthy. Laissez faire style is associated with managers with dissatisfaction, unproductiveness and ineffectiveness (Deluga, 1992).

- *Organizational Performance*

The concept of organizational performance is one of the most important dependent variable of interests for researchers concerned with just about any area of management (Richard et al., 2008). Although the concept of organizational performance is very common in the academic literature, its definition is difficult because of its many meanings. For this reason, there isn't a universally accepted definition of this concept. In the 1950s organizational performance was defined as the extent to which organizations, viewed as a social system fulfilled their objectives (Tannenbaum, 1957). Performance evaluation during this time was focused on work, people and organizational structure. Managers began to understand that an organization is successful if it accomplishes its goals (effectiveness) using a minimum of resources (efficiency). Thus, organizational 17 theories that followed supported the idea of an organization that achieves its performance objectives based on the constraints imposed by the limited resources (Lusthaus & Adrien, 1998 after Campbell, 1970). In this context, profit became one of the many indicators of performance. Performance is organizational ability in producing something related to desired targets (Kaithen, 2002). Performance is work results achieved by someone or a group of people in an organization, in accordance with their respective authority and responsibility to reach the organizational goal legally, without breaking laws, and in accordance with moral and ethics (Prawirosentono, 2000). The style of leadership affects performance since performance cannot be achieved in the absence of a leadership that can adapt to the changes and challenges of the environment, that knows how to motivate the employees and that encourages them to take more ownership for their work. Madrid et al. (2007) opine that high performing firms are able to generate a variety of company and society benefits like attracting resources, wealth creation and jobs generation. They further observe that an accurate measure of performance can provide reliable insight into what affects performance and how firms can develop good strategies, arrange resources, meet consumer expectations and compete. Profit is the ultimate goal of commercial banks. All the strategies designed and activities performed thereof are meant to realize this grand objective. However, this does not mean that commercial banks have no other goals. Commercial banks could also have additional social and economic goals (Alexandru et al., 2008)

- *Key Measurements of Organizational Performance*

Performance is a multidimensional construct and therefore multiple measures of performance should be used (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). Growth has been argued as an essential element to the attainment of sustainable competitive advantages and profitability (Markman and Gartner, 2002) and it is hard to associate sustained growth without profitability (Fitzsimmonset al., 2005) Profitability is also another important measure of organizational performance that must be considered as it is unlikely that firm growth can be sustained without profit contributions (Fitzsimmons et al 2005). Furnham (2002) assert that the appropriate measurement outcome from leadership quality is effectiveness (reflecting the leader's efficacy in achieving organizational outcomes, objectives, goals and subordinates‟ needs in their job). Therefore, the measure of

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organizational performance in this study is represented by the degree to which a company achieves its business objectives.

- *Leadership Style and Organizational Performance*

The body of research on the relationship between leadership style and organization performance continues to grow. Most research show that leadership style has a significant relation with organizational performance, and different leadership styles may have a positive correlation or negative correlation with the organizational performance, depending on the variables used by researchers (Fu-Jin et al., 2010). McGrath and MacMillan (2000) are of the view that there is a significant relationship between leadership styles adopted by managers and performance of the organizations. Effective leadership style is seen as a potent source of management development and 19 sustained competitive advantage, leadership style helps organization to achieve their current objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and by ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done. Sun (2002) compared leadership style with the leadership performance in schools and enterprises, and found that leadership style had a significantly positive correlation with the organizational performance in both schools and enterprises. Fu-Jin et al. (2010) opine that when executives use their leadership style to demonstrate concern, care and respect for employees, it would increase interest of employees in their work and enable them to put up better performance, thereby affecting their job satisfaction positively. Understanding the effects of leadership on performance is also important because leadership is viewed by some researchers as one of the key driving forces for improving a firm's performance. Effective leadership is seen as a potent source of management development and sustained competitive advantage for organizational performance improvement (Avolio, 1999; Lado, Boyd and Wright, 1992; Rowe, 2001).

This study aims at generating knowledge that gives the correct feedback on leadership styles and organizational at the Ministry of Community and Development in Lusaka.. The finding also adds to the already existing literature in the fields of leadership and organizational commitment in public institutions in Zambia and may prompt further research.

➢ *Research Gaps and Personal Critique*

Meyer and Allen's (1997) three-component model provides a useful basis for comparing findings on employee commitment. Research on gender and commitment has not produced a single consistent pattern. Zarina (2013), studying lecturers at Bandar Penawar Community College, reported no statistically significant gender difference in commitment. By contrast, Nacar and Demirtas (2017) and Palta (2019), whose work examined school teachers, reported gender-related differences and considered the possible role of leadership practices. Billy and Taat (2020) also reported differences in teachers' perceptions of commitment between male and female respondents in the interior of Sabah. These studies were conducted in educational settings, so their results cannot automatically be generalised to employees in a Zambian ministry. They do, however, show why gender may be examined as a contextual variable. A fair workplace, access to development and consistent treatment are relevant considerations when seeking to support affective commitment across employee groups. The current study contributes a different institutional context by examining commitment among Ministry employees in Lusaka.

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CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Mouly (2003:45) states that research is best conceived as the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through a planned and systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data. Therefore, this chapter presents and discusses the methods that will be applied in carrying out the research study as a basis for inference and interpretation. The chapter is organized under the following headings: research design, sampling techniques, sample size, target population, instruments for data collection and procedure for data collection, validity and reliability of instruments, data analysis techniques, scope of the study, limitation of the study, triangulation and ethical consideration.

➢ *Research Design*

A research design is the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data in that it maximizes control over factors that could interfere with the validity of the findings. It is a strategic framework that is used to generate answers to the research problem in a manner that combines relevance with research purpose (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Bearing this in mind, this study will adopt a mixed method using a case study.

Firstly, the descriptive case study design enabled the description of the study unity in whole, in context and holistically. As a result, a great deal will be learned from the phenomena under study. A case study will also allow an in-depth investigation of the problem at hand bringing about deeper in-sights and better understanding leadership and its perceptions on organizational commitment. Secondly, to compile a good study there is a need to use descriptive design also. Being descriptive, the research will help in understanding the phenomenon from the participants' perspective and not from the researcher's perspective. In addition, descriptive design will also enhance the validity of the research results in that the method will allow the researcher to stay close to the empirical world and state the affairs as it exist. By observing people in their everyday lives, listening to them talk about what is on their minds and looking at the documents they produce, the researcher will obtain first-hand knowledge of social life unfiltered through concepts, operational definitions and rating scales more especially that the researcher will be the primary instrument for data collection and analysis.

Thus the combination of caste study and descriptive design will not only be appropriate in assessing leadership and its perceptions on organizational commitment but also will have the goals of making the management more effective and efficient, empowering those who will participate in the study and help in developing scientific knowledge. It is also hoped that the chosen mixed research design will help in minimizing the interference of the researcher's beliefs, perspectives and predispositions on the results.

➢ *Sampling Technique*

Sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather places or things to study. It is a process of selecting a number of individual or objects from a population such that selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group. Therefore, a probability sampling method will be adopted in this study which is according to LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (1998:249), will allow non-zero probability of being incorporated into the sample. Probability will also allow the selection of the sample in such a way as to be representative of the population. It will provide the most valid or credible results because they reflect the characteristics of the target population from which they will be selected from.

In selecting respondents, the researcher will use a stratified purposeful sample to facilitate comparisons and triangulation during data analysis. Patton (2002) described stratified samples as samples within a sample, allowing the researcher to capture variations of the larger sample represented within its layers or tiers. In this study, the tiers will be levels of management which are top management, middle management and lower management level. While 5 will be top management and 5 from middle management and 5 from lower

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management using the following formula:

ni =N1 (nt)/Nt Where:

ni = Sample size per management level

N1 = Population per management level nt =Total sample size

Nt = total population

All respondents will be Zambians, representing a relatively balanced mix of gender and top management and middle level. In summary, based on the criteria discussed above, the researcher selected a sample as outline below:

Table 1 Sample Size Determination Table Category

Category	Population (N1)	Sample size (ni)	Sampling techniques
Officials–Top management	30	10	Stratified Purposive sampling
Officials-Middle Management	50	20	
Officials-lower Management	70	30	Stratified Purposive sampling
Total	(Nt)150	(nt) 60	

➢ *Sample Size*

A sample (n) is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Webster, 1985). When dealing with people, it can be defined as a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of the study. Research conclusion and generalization are only good as the sample they are based on. Hence in this study, a sample of 60 respondents will be obtained. There are many factors that will be considered when choosing the sample size. The sample size will be obtained from a relatively simplistic calculation, based on achieving an approximately 90% confidence level in the results, +/- 6 margin of error, 95% confidence interval and a standard deviation (Std.Dev) of 0.1. Therefore, the sample size (n) will be determined using the Slovin's formula:

$n = N/ 1 + Ne^2$

Where:

N= population size N = sample size

e = margin of error

Therefore $n= 130/ 1 + 130 X (0.06)^2$ n = 130/1 + 130 X 0.0036

n = 130/1 + 0.468 n = 130/1.468

n = 87

It will be unnecessary to collect data from the entire population of local government organization officials since the challenges of accountability will be understood by securing information from chosen sample. It is hope that by interviewing 67% of the population the researcher will be able to reach a saturation level and no new data will be found to develop new categories and relationships.

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➢ *Target Population*

Polit and Hungler (1999,37) refer to the population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications. This, study will have two layers of target population to which the results of this study intend to generalize; the organization and individual participants as key informants. The eligibility criteria will be:

- Area of operation at ministry
- Officials working in department
- Period of employment: Officers who have been working at ministry for 2 years or more
- Gender balance

While the exclusion criteria will be;

- Refusal to give informed consent
- Officials who are less than 2 years in services
- Officials who have retired and are on contract

➢ *Techniques for Data Collection*

The study draws on both quantitative and qualitative evidence. Questionnaires provide a structured way to collect comparable responses from employees, while interviews allow participants to explain their experiences and views in greater depth. Observation is included to record relevant features of the workplace context. Using more than one method is intended to provide a fuller account of leadership and commitment than any single instrument could offer. Interviews are particularly useful where the researcher needs clarification, examples or explanations that cannot be captured adequately through fixed-response questions (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009).

➢ *Instruments for Data Collection*

The instruments are the practical means through which information is gathered and recorded. For this study, they comprise a questionnaire, an interview guide, an observation approach and the researcher's role as the principal qualitative instrument. Each has a different purpose: the questionnaire supports consistent data collection across respondents, the interview guide keeps discussions aligned with the research questions, and observation records relevant workplace interactions and conditions.

➢ *Questionnaire*

The questionnaire contains a set of written questions through which respondents provide information in a consistent format. It is useful for collecting comparable responses from a number of employees and can be administered and analysed efficiently. Its limitations include the possibility that respondents interpret an item differently, provide socially desirable answers or omit feelings that are difficult to express through fixed questions. In this study, the questionnaire is used alongside interviews and observation so that its structured responses can be considered with other forms of evidence.

- *Interview Schedule*

The interview guide is a prepared sequence of topics and questions used to keep conversations focused on the study objectives. The researcher uses it to record participants' responses during individual, face-to-face interviews. The planned interviews are semi-structured and in-depth, with an expected duration of approximately 40 minutes (usually between 30 and 50 minutes). This format allows the researcher to cover common topics while asking follow-up questions when a response requires clarification or further explanation. To promote consistency in the process, one research assistant will be engaged.

The purpose for using the interview guide in the study are: it will facilitate in the conducting of an

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interview, will increase the likelihood of collecting accurate data, it will allow the researcher to get more information, it will increase the amount and rate of responses, it offers flexibility and high customization despite having the shortfall being time consuming and having variability when used by multiple interviewers. To address this challenge, the researcher will only engage one research assistant.

- *Participant Observation*

Observation involves systematically attending to and recording relevant actions, interactions and features of the setting in which the study takes place. In this research it is intended to provide contextual information about workplace practices and relationships that may help interpret questionnaire and interview responses. The researcher will record observations as accurately as possible and distinguish direct observations from personal interpretations. Particular care is required to minimise the influence of the researcher's expectations and to respect the privacy of employees.

- *Human Instrument*

In qualitative research, the researcher is actively involved in gathering and interpreting information. This role requires attention to the context in which responses are given and to the possibility that the researcher's own assumptions may influence interpretation. The researcher will therefore act as the principal human instrument, supported by one research assistant, and will use the study questions and agreed procedures to maintain consistency during data collection.

➢ *Procedure for Data Collection*

Information for the study is obtained from primary and secondary sources. Primary information is collected directly from participating employees for the purpose of answering the research questions. It includes responses to the questionnaire, interview accounts and relevant observations. Secondary information consists of material produced previously for other purposes, such as institutional documents and published literature. These sources provide background and a basis for comparing the accounts gathered from participants. Using both types of information allows the researcher to examine whether different sources support, qualify or contradict one another.

Secondary information can provide useful context where collecting new information would be costly or where historical or institutional records are relevant. It can also help the researcher understand the issue before interpreting the primary evidence. However, secondary sources were not necessarily created for this particular study, so their relevance, accuracy and date must be considered when they are used.

The case-study approach can draw on interviews, documentary material, observation, questionnaires and physical evidence (Welman, 2005). This research uses interviews, document or record review, questionnaires and direct observation. The methods are combined to broaden the evidence available and to compare information obtained in different ways. Agreement across sources may strengthen an interpretation, while differences between sources need to be examined rather than ignored.

- *Interviews*

Interviews are used to obtain first-hand accounts from selected participants in the Ministry. The researcher will conduct face-to-face discussions using open-ended questions organised around the interview themes. The guide provides a common structure across interviews while allowing follow-up questions where participants raise issues relevant to the research. This approach is intended to capture employees' experiences and explanations in their own words.

- *Document Review*

Document review involves examining relevant records and written materials that already exist. The materials may include institutional reports, administrative statistics, published books and other documents

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relevant to public-sector management and the study topic. Such material can provide information without requiring direct interaction with the people who produced it. The researcher will consider the source, purpose, date and relevance of each document and will avoid treating a document as conclusive evidence where its coverage or reliability is uncertain.

- *Participant Observation*

During fieldwork, the researcher will observe relevant aspects of the workplace in their usual setting. Brief notes will be made on interactions and contextual features that relate to leadership practice and employee commitment. The researcher will seek to minimise disruption and avoid recording unnecessary personal information. Observational notes will be used as contextual evidence and considered alongside questionnaire responses, interviews and documentary material.

➢ *Data Collection Plan*

The data collection plan links the methods to the study's objectives. The main areas of inquiry are the leadership approaches experienced by employees, employees' perceptions of those approaches, and the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment. The questionnaire, interviews, document review and observation will be used as appropriate to each area. The resulting information will be organised under themes corresponding to the research questions so that evidence from different sources can be compared.

- *To Identify the Dominant Leadership Style at the Ministry*

To understand which leadership approaches are most evident in the Ministry, the study considers the way work is organised and supervised. Relevant issues include reporting arrangements, workload allocation, staff capacity, access to resources, performance expectations and the policies that guide departmental work. Information about collaboration with other departments or partners may also help explain the conditions in which leadership is exercised.

- *To Ascertain Employees' Perceptions About Leadership Styles*

This theme examines how employees interpret the conduct of their leaders and whether those perceptions are associated with their work experience. Areas of interest include the way managers communicate, support staff, allocate responsibilities, encourage performance and apply workplace rules. The study also considers whether employees believe that decisions and opportunities are handled consistently.

- *To Determine the Level and Type of Commitment*

This area of inquiry focuses on the forms of commitment employees demonstrate towards the Ministry. The analysis distinguishes emotional attachment to the organisation, a sense of obligation to remain and the perceived costs of leaving. Evidence from the different instruments will be considered to understand how these dimensions are reflected in employees' responses and accounts.

- *To Examine the Relationship between Different Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment*

The final theme brings together evidence about leadership practices and employee commitment. It considers how communication, reporting relationships, clarity of responsibility, coordination and performance-management arrangements may shape employees' experiences. These organisational features provide context for interpreting the relationship between leadership style and commitment; they are not assumed, in themselves, to prove causation.

➢ *Data Analysis Techniques*

After gathering data, there is need to process the data before it is analyzed. This will involve data organization in line with the above themes set to capture the research's specific objectives. Data organization in this study will involve 4 stages as follows:

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Data preparation involves checking the collected material for completeness, consistency and responses that cannot be interpreted reliably. Where an answer is unclear or contradictory, it will be reviewed against the relevant questionnaire item or other available information. Records that cannot be used will be identified before analysis, and any exclusions will be documented.

After checking the data, responses will be assigned codes that allow them to be grouped and analysed systematically. The coding scheme will reflect the questionnaire structure and the themes derived from the research objectives. Where information is missing, it will be recorded as missing rather than being treated as a substantive response. This will make the handling of incomplete records transparent during analysis.

The study requires secure and organised storage of both paper-based and electronic records. Paper materials will be kept in an orderly and appropriately secure location, while electronic files will be stored in a form that supports retrieval and analysis. The storage approach will take account of confidentiality, access restrictions and the need to preserve the original records. Data should not be altered simply to make analysis easier; any cleaning or recoding decisions will be recorded.

The choice of software should match the type of information and analysis required. Word-processing and spreadsheet applications can support document preparation and data organisation, while a database may be useful for structured storage. SPSS is identified for the statistical analysis, with graphical tools used where appropriate to present the results. The final report should name only the software that was actually used and should describe its role accurately.

Analysis will involve examining the prepared data in relation to the research questions. Quantitative responses will be summarised and, where appropriate, examined using the statistical procedures specified for the study. Qualitative material from interviews and observations will be reviewed, coded and organised into themes. The researcher will consider patterns, differences and exceptions in the evidence and will relate the interpretation to the study objectives. Conclusions will be limited to what the data and research design can reasonably support.

Documentary evidence will be reviewed alongside information collected directly from participants. This comparison is intended to provide context for the findings and to identify where accounts are consistent or differ. Initial document review can also help the researcher refine areas requiring clarification during interviews. Where institutional records contain statistics, tables or other quantitative information, these will be used only when their source and relevance can be established.

Interview material will be transcribed or summarised in a way that preserves the meaning of participants' accounts. The researcher will organise the material under themes and sub-themes linked to the specific objectives, then compare responses to identify recurring ideas and meaningful differences. The analysis will also consider comments that do not fit the dominant pattern, since these may reveal important qualifications or alternative experiences.

➢ *Limitation of the Study*

The study is limited by its focus on a single ministry and by the resources available to conduct the research. The findings should therefore be interpreted as evidence from the selected institutional setting rather than as a representation of every public organisation in Zambia. A future study involving more institutions or repeated data collection over time could examine whether the relationships identified here are also evident in other settings and whether they change over time.

The use of secondary material presents a further limitation. Relevant institutional reports may not be publicly available, may contain incomplete information or may be accessible only to authorised personnel. These constraints can affect the amount of documentary evidence available for comparison. The researcher

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will address this by recording the sources consulted, assessing their relevance and reliability, and interpreting the findings with appropriate caution.

To reduce these limitations, the researcher will come up the risk mitigation plan which will involve:

- *Triangulation*

Triangulation refers to the use of more than one source, method or theoretical perspective when examining a research question. In this study it is intended to reduce dependence on any single form of evidence and to provide a more considered interpretation of leadership and commitment. Differences between sources will be treated as findings requiring examination, rather than automatically being regarded as errors. The study uses the following forms of triangulation:

Data-source triangulation involves comparing information obtained from participants with relevant documentary and published sources. The researcher will examine whether factual details and recurring themes are supported across the available sources. Where the accounts differ, the reasons may relate to differences in perspective, timing or access to information and will be considered during interpretation.

Methodological triangulation is achieved by bringing together quantitative and qualitative evidence. Questionnaire responses provide structured information that can be compared across respondents, while interviews and observations offer explanations and context. Considering these forms of evidence together may help clarify patterns that would be difficult to interpret using only one method.

Theory triangulation involves interpreting the findings through more than one relevant theoretical perspective. The study draws on the leadership and organisational-commitment frameworks outlined earlier to consider different explanations of the relationships observed. The purpose is to assess how well each perspective helps explain the evidence, rather than to assume that all theories will produce the same interpretation.

- *Ethical Consideration*

Ethical practice is required throughout the research process because the study involves people and information about their workplace experiences. The researcher will seek informed consent, explain the purpose of participation and respect an individual's decision not to take part or to withdraw, subject to the procedures approved for the study. Personal responses will be handled confidentially, and information will be presented in a way that avoids unnecessary identification of participants. Welman (2005, p. 201) identifies consent, privacy, protection from harm and avoidance of deception as important ethical considerations. These principles will guide the collection, storage, analysis and reporting of the study information.

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CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION ON THE RESULTS OF FINDINGS

➢ *Demographics*

Table 2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency (n=60)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	36	60.0
	Female	24	40.0
Age Group	20-29 years	10	16.7
	30-39 years	22	36.7
	40-49 years	18	30
	>50 years	10	16.7
Education Level	Diploma / Certificate	20	33.3
	Bachelor's Degree	28	46.7
	Master's Degree	8	13.3
	Other (Short Courses)	4	6.7
Department	Community Development	12	20
	Finance	8	13.3
	Human Resources	6	10.0
	Programmes	14	23.3
	Monitoring & Evaluation	10	16.7
	Administration / Logistics	10	16.7
Position Level	Junior Officer	24	40.0
	Middle Management	20	33.3
	Senior Management	16	26.7
Years in Service	2-4 years	20	33.3
	5-9 years	18	30.0
	10-14 years	12	20.0
	>15 years	10	16.7

The findings show that the study sample was predominantly male, making up 60% of respondents, while females represented 40%. This suggests that more men than women occupy roles within the sampled institutions, a pattern consistent with respondents' remarks such as "most of our departments still have more men than women."

Age distribution indicates that the majority of respondents were in the 30–39 age group (36.7%), followed by those aged 40–49 years (30%). Younger respondents aged 20–29 years and older staff above 50 years each accounted for 16.7%. This mixture reflects a workforce that is largely in its active mid-career stage, with one respondent noting that "most of us are in our thirties and forties, which are the busy years of service."

Regarding education, nearly half (46.7%) reported holding a bachelor's degree, and 33.3% had diplomas or certificates. A smaller proportion had master's degrees (13.3%) or short-course qualifications (6.7%). This suggests a fairly well-qualified workforce, supported by a teacher's observation that "many of us have upgraded to degree level to match the demands of our roles."

Distribution across departments showed the highest representation from the Programmes department (23.3%), followed closely by Community Development at 20%. Monitoring & Evaluation, Administration/Logistics, and Finance each contributed between 13.3% and 16.7%, while Human Resources

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accounted for 10%. This spread illustrates a diverse set of professional backgrounds within the sample.

In terms of job ranking, junior officers formed the largest group at 40%, while middle management constituted 33.3%, and senior management 26.7%. This pattern indicates that perspectives were drawn from both operational and decision-making levels.

Finally, years of service revealed that one-third (33.3%) had worked for 2–4 years, while 30% had served for 5–9 years. Those with 10–14 years constituted 20%, and the most experienced group (above 15 years) represented 16.7%. This mix suggests a workforce combining both fresh and seasoned institutional experience, echoed in a respondent's statement: "we have a blend of new staff and long-serving officers."

Objective 1: To investigate the commitment levels of employees towards their organizations

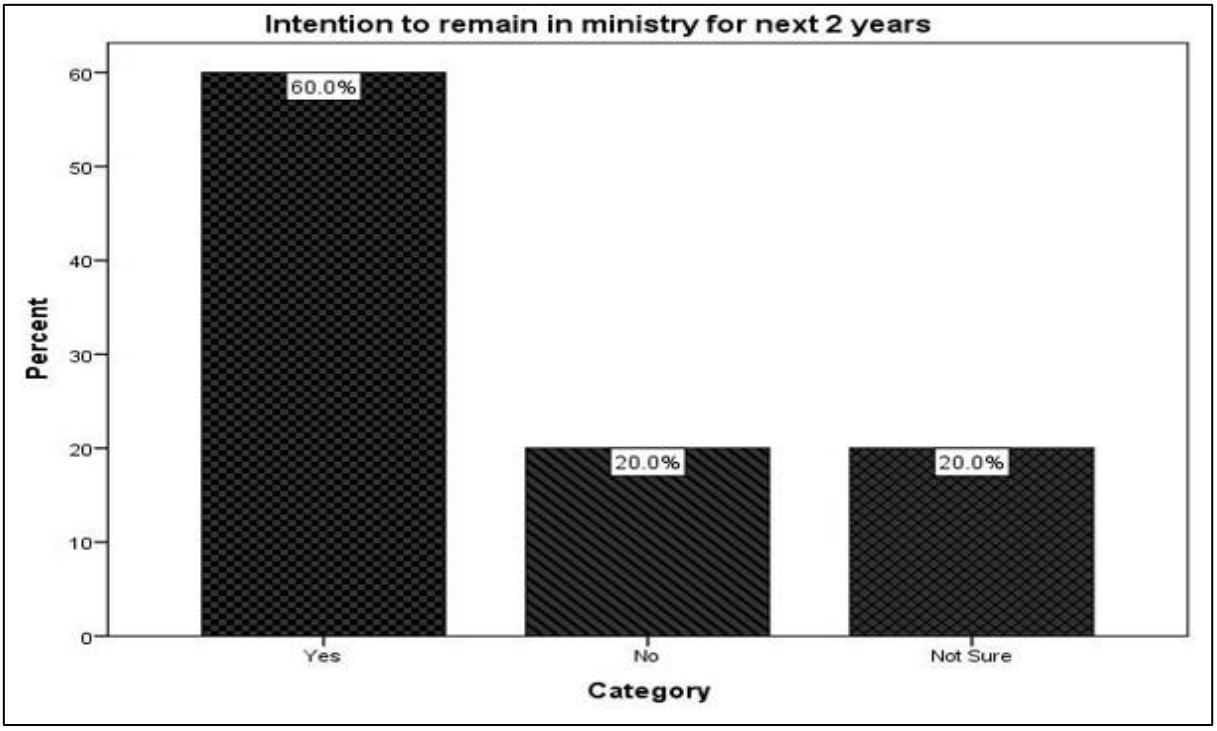


Fig 1 Indicators of Employee Commitment and Future Retention Intentions

The results reveal varied levels of commitment among employees toward remaining within the Ministry over the next two years. A majority of respondents (60%) indicated that they intend to stay, suggesting that more than half of the workforce expresses a sense of stability and attachment to the organisation. This group reflected sentiments such as "I still see myself here because the work is meaningful" and "the ministry has become familiar, so leaving is not something I'm considering soon," pointing to a degree of emotional and normative commitment.

Conversely, 20% reported that they do not intend to remain with the Ministry. Although a smaller proportion, this group represents a notable segment of staff who appear disengaged or possibly dissatisfied. Their views echoed sentiments such as "I am exploring opportunities elsewhere" or "career growth is limited here," indicating potential concerns that may weaken long-term organisational commitment.

An additional 20% were uncertain about their future in the Ministry. This uncertainty suggests a level of ambivalence, often characterized by respondents' comments like "I'm still thinking about my options" or "it depends on how things progress." Such indecision may reflect perceived instability, unclear career pathways, or leadership influences that shape employees' overall commitment.

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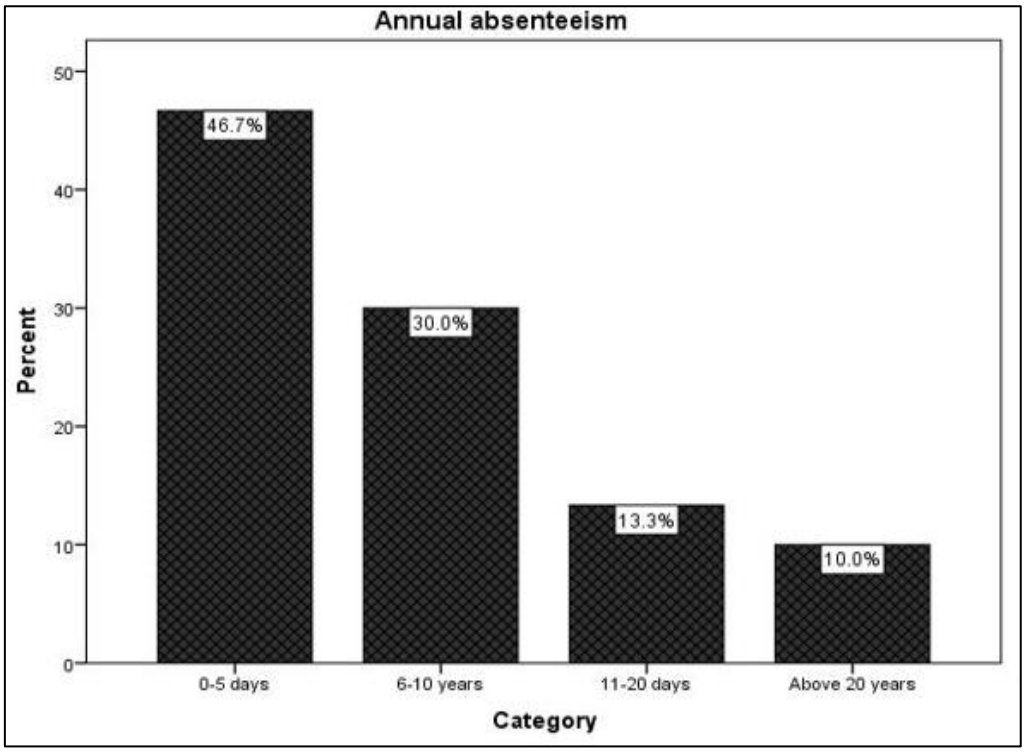


Fig 2 Absenteeism Patterns as Indicators of Employee Commitment

The results on annual absenteeism present a mixed picture of employees' behavioural commitment to the Ministry. Nearly half of the respondents (46.7%) reported being absent between 0–5 days in a year, indicating a substantial group that demonstrates consistent attendance and reliability. Such low absenteeism often reflects a strong sense of responsibility, with some employees expressing sentiments such as "I rarely miss work unless it's unavoidable," which aligns with higher levels of organizational commitment.

A further 30% reported absenteeism between 6–10 days annually. While still moderate, this group shows slightly reduced consistency. Their responses suggest challenges such as personal demands or occasional disengagement, reflected in comments like "Sometimes the workload can be overwhelming, so I request days off."

A smaller proportion, 13.3%, reported being absent between 11–20 days in a year, indicating growing irregularity in attendance. This level of absenteeism may reflect diminished affective commitment, with some hinting at frustrations such as "There are days when motivation is low."

The smallest but notable group, 10%, reported absenteeism exceeding 20 days annually. Such extended absence typically points to weak organizational commitment and possible dissatisfaction. Respondents in this category shared sentiments such as "I have considered leaving because the environment can be demotivating at times."

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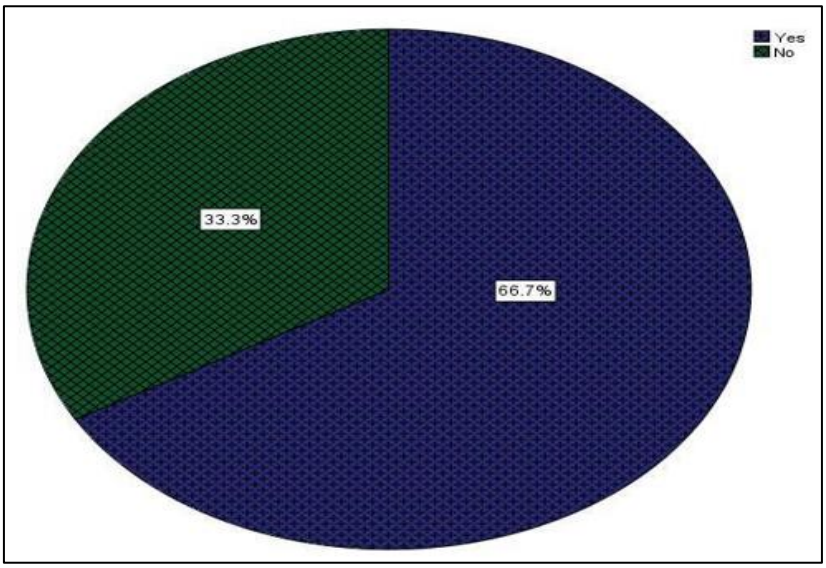


Fig 3 Training Participation as a Reflection of Employee Commitment

The results on participation in ministry-sponsored training show that most employees have remained actively engaged in professional development initiatives over the past year. Specifically, 66.7% of the respondents reported attending at least one ministry-funded training within the last 12 months. This high level of participation suggests a generally positive orientation toward organizational growth and a willingness among employees to invest in improving their skills. Many respondents echoed this sentiment through statements such as "Whenever training is offered, I make sure I attend because it helps me perform better," illustrating how training opportunities can reinforce employees' sense of belonging and commitment.

Conversely, 33.3% indicated that they did not attend any ministry-sponsored training during the same period. While this group is smaller, their non-participation may hint at barriers such as limited training slots, competing work commitments, or diminished motivation. Some respondents emphasized these constraints, noting comments like "Sometimes the chance to attend doesn't reach everyone," or "I was willing, but the opportunities were few."

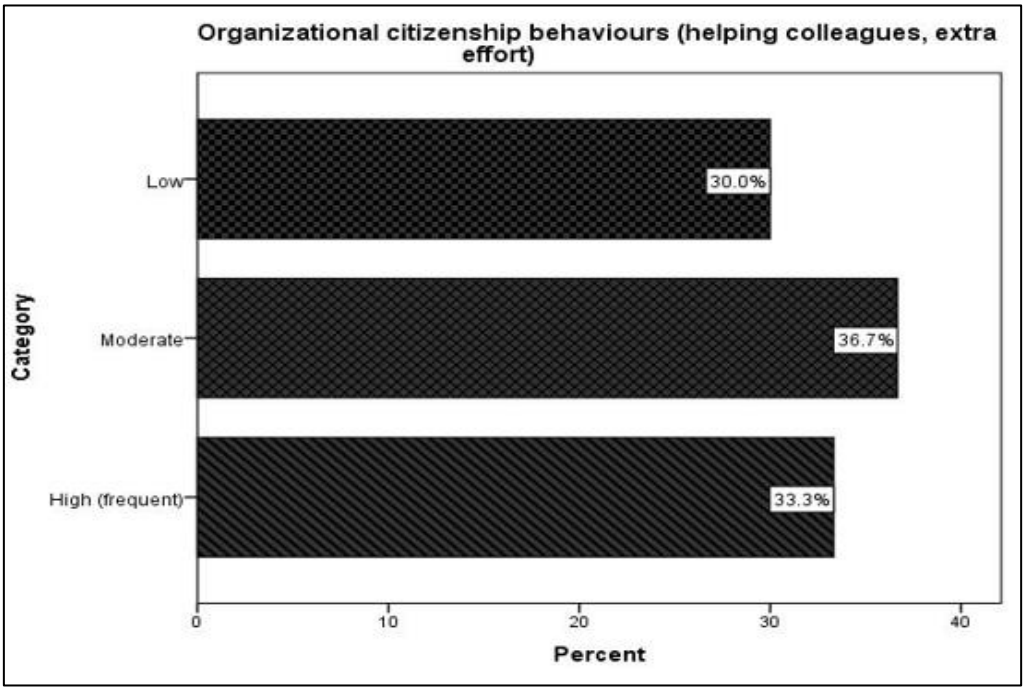


Fig 4 Expression of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour as a Marker of Employee Commitment

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The findings on organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs)—such as assisting colleagues, volunteering for tasks, and showing extra effort—reveal varied levels of discretionary commitment among employees. The largest proportion of respondents, 36.7%, reported exhibiting moderate levels of these behaviours. This suggests that while many employees are generally willing to support their peers and contribute beyond formal job expectations, such behaviour is not consistently sustained at high levels. Some respondents captured this sentiment with remarks like "I help where I can, but the workload sometimes limits how much extra I can do."

A notable 33.3% indicated high engagement in OCBs, demonstrating a strong inclination to go beyond basic job requirements. These employees often framed their effort as part of their dedication to the ministry, with comments such as "If my colleague is struggling, I step in because the work must go on." This group reflects employees with strong affective commitment, who view their contributions as integral to overall organizational performance.

However, 30.0% reported low levels of such behaviours. For this segment, limited extra-role engagement may signal reduced commitment or competing pressures that hinder voluntary support. A few respondents alluded to constraints like "I focus on my tasks because the workload is already heavy," illustrating how contextual factors can shape participation in non-mandatory roles.

Table 3 Intention to Stay as an Indicator of Differentiated Commitment Across Position Levels

Intention to remain in ministry for next 2 years * Position Level Crosstabulation					
Count					
		Position Level			
		Junior officer	**Middle management**	**Senior management**	**Total**
Intention to remain in ministry for next 2 years	Yes	24	12	0	36
	No	0	8	4	12
	Not Sure	0	0	12	12
Total		24	20	16	60

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	**df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	58.000[a]	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	69.117	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	42.457	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60		
A 6 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.20.			

The cross-tabulated results reveal clear variations in employees' intention to remain in the ministry over the next two years, with these differences closely linked to their position levels. Among junior officers, commitment appears notably high, with all 24 (100%) indicating that they intend to stay. This strong inclination to remain suggests that employees in lower-level positions may still view the ministry as offering stability, growth prospects, or essential early-career experience. Many junior staff often expressed sentiments such as "I am still learning and building my path here," reflecting a sense of optimism and attachment.

In contrast, commitment is lower among middle management staff. While 12 out of 20 (60%) intend to stay, a considerable 40% (8 employees) explicitly stated they do not plan to remain in the ministry over the next two years. This pattern may signal frustrations related to workload, leadership expectations, or perceived stagnation at mid-career stages. Some respondents in this group echoed feelings such as "I am considering other opportunities if things do not improve," hinting at conditional commitment.

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Among senior management, commitment is more uncertain than affirmative. Notably, none indicated a definite intention to remain, while 12 out of 16 (75%) reported being "not sure". This uncertainty may reflect strategic career considerations, institutional pressures, or shifting organizational dynamics. Additionally, 4 senior managers (25%) reported that they do not intend to stay, aligning with sentiments like "The environment is changing, and I am weighing my options."

The chi-square results ($\chi^2 = 58.000$, $p < .001$) indicate a statistically significant association between position level and intention to remain, confirming that commitment levels vary meaningfully across hierarchical ranks. In essence, while junior officers demonstrate strong attachment to the ministry, middle and senior managers display mixed or declining commitment, suggesting that organizational commitment weakens as employees ascend the hierarchy.

Table 4 Training Participation as a Driver of Employee Commitment and Prosocial Behaviour

Attended ministry-sponsored training last 12 months * Organizational citizenship behaviours (helping colleagues, extra effort) Crosstabulation					
Count					
		Organizational citizenship behaviours (helping colleagues, extra effort)			
		High (frequent)	**Moderate**	**Low**	**Total**
Attended ministry-sponsored training last 12 months	Yes	20	20	0	40
	No	0	2	18	20
Total		20	22	18	60

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	51.818[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	62.978	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	40.647	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.00.

The results demonstrate a strong and clear relationship between participation in ministry-sponsored training and the level of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) displayed by employees. The data show that among the 40 employees who participated in ministry-sponsored training, 20 (50%) reported high levels of OCBs, while the remaining 20 (50%) indicated moderate levels. Notably, none of the trained employees fell into the low OCB category. This suggests that employees who access capacity-building opportunities tend to be more engaged, collaborative, and willing to put in extra effort for the benefit of the ministry. In qualitative terms, these respondents often expressed that training "motivated me to help others more" or "made me feel valued and part of the organization," reflecting a deeper sense of organizational attachment.

In contrast, the 20 employees who did not receive training displayed noticeably lower levels of organizational citizenship. Of these, 18 (90%) reported low OCBs, while only 2 (10%) fell within the moderate category. There were no cases of high OCBs among employees without training exposure. This trend implies that lack of training may contribute to disengagement, reduced willingness to support colleagues, and minimal extra-role behaviour. Some respondents in this group shared sentiments such as, "We are left out, so we just do our part and go home," pointing to weaker organizational commitment.

The chi-square results further confirm a statistically significant association between training attendance and OCB levels ($\chi^2 = 51.818$, $p < .001$), highlighting that training participation is not only beneficial but meaningfully influences prosocial behaviours within the ministry.

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Objective 2: To explore the demographic factors related to commitment levels of employees

Table 5 Gendered Patterns of Organizational Commitment

Gender * Intention to remain in ministry for next 2 years Crosstabulation					
Count					
		Intention to remain in ministry for next 2 years			Total
		Yes	No	Not Sure	
Gender	Male	36	0	0	36
	Female	0	12	12	24
Total		36	12	12	60

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	60.000[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	80.761	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	49.781	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60		
A 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.80.			

The findings reveal a distinct gendered pattern in employees' intentions to remain with the Ministry over the next two years. All male respondents (100%, n = 36) indicated a firm intention to stay, with none expressing uncertainty or plans to leave. This uniform trend suggests a strong sense of organizational attachment among male employees. Several male respondents echoed this sentiment in their comments, noting that they felt "settled" or "committed to building their career within the ministry," reflecting a deeper sense of stability and long-term orientation.

In contrast, the responses from female employees show a more divided picture. Of the 24 female respondents, 12 (50%) indicated they did not intend to remain in the ministry, while the remaining 12 (50%) were unsure. Notably, no female respondent expressed a definite intention to stay, highlighting a lower level of organizational commitment among women compared to their male counterparts. Qualitative remarks from some female respondents hinted at concerns about career progression, workload pressures, or work-life balance, which appeared to influence their uncertainty or plans to leave.

The chi-square test ($\chi^2 = 60.000$, $p < .001$) confirms that the association between gender and intention to remain is statistically significant, indicating that gender plays a meaningful role in shaping commitment levels within the ministry.

Table 6 Demographic Positioning as a Driver of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Position Level * Organizational citizenship behaviours (helping colleagues, extra effort) Crosstabulation					
Count					
		Organizational citizenship behaviours (helping colleagues, extra effort)			Total
		High (frequent)	Moderate	Low	
Position Level	Junior officer	20	4	0	24
	Middle management	0	18	2	20
	Senior management	0	0	16	16
Total		20	22	18	60

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	90.000[a]	4	.000

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Likelihood Ratio	96.803	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	51.010	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60		
A1 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.80.			

The results indicate a clear pattern showing that position level is strongly associated with the expression of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) within the Ministry. Junior officers overwhelmingly exhibited high levels of OCBs, with 83.3% (20 out of 24) demonstrating frequent helping behaviours and willingness to put in extra effort. None of the junior officers reported low engagement in such behaviours. Respondents in this category often described themselves as "still building a name" or "trying to show commitment," which echoes the quantitative distribution of high OCB scores.

In contrast, middle management displayed a more moderate pattern of commitment, with 90% falling under the moderate OCB category. Only 10% reported low OCBs. This suggests that while middle managers remain engaged, their extra-role behaviours may be moderated by increased administrative duties or organizational pressures. As one middle manager reportedly noted, "There is so much coordination work now that sometimes helping others becomes secondary."

Senior management, however, showed a distinctly different trend. All respondents (100%) in this group reported low OCBs, indicating minimal involvement in extra-role activities such as supporting colleagues or going beyond prescribed duties. Some senior officers hinted at this shift, stating, for instance, "Our role is more strategic now," suggesting that their focus may have moved away from day-to-day collaborative efforts.

The Chi-square test confirms that these differences are statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 90.000$, $p < 0.001$), demonstrating a strong relationship between an employee's position and their likelihood of displaying OCBs. This significant association underscores that commitment levels - when expressed through discretionary behaviours - vary systematically across hierarchical levels.

Objective 3: To analyze the variations in commitment levels due to the differences in demographic factors.

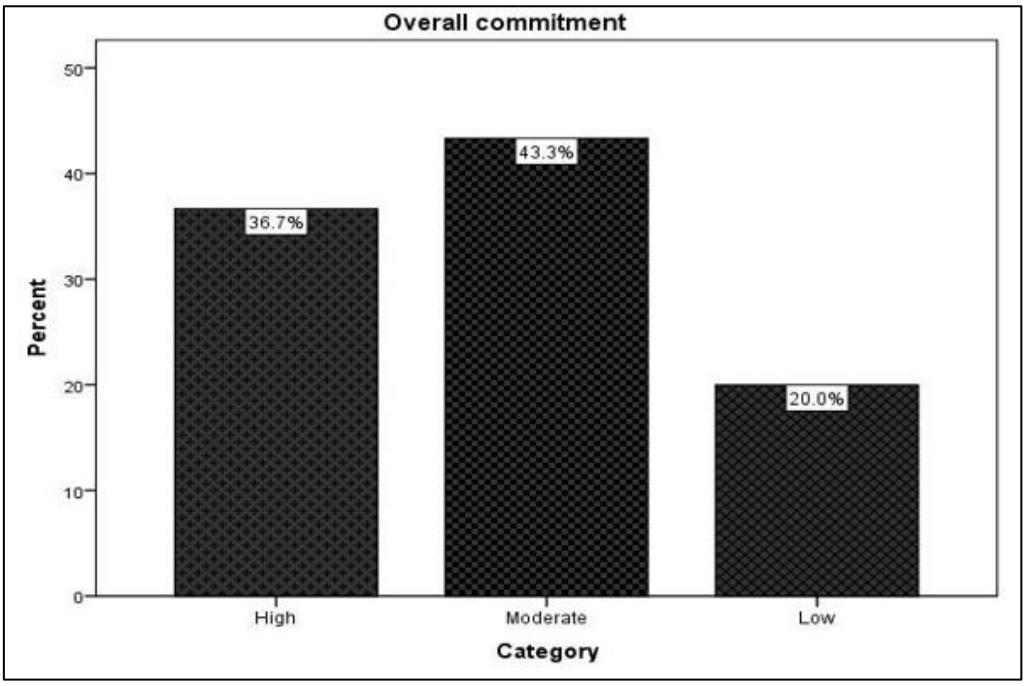


Fig 5 Differentiated Commitment Levels Shaped by Demographic Diversity

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The results reveal noticeable variations in employees' commitment levels across the Ministry, suggesting that demographic differences play a meaningful role in shaping how individuals connect with their organisation. Overall, the findings show that 36.7% of the employees reported high commitment, indicating a strong sense of attachment and willingness to contribute positively to organisational goals. Respondents in this group often expressed sentiments such as, "I feel a strong responsibility to this Ministry," which aligns with their classification under high commitment.

A larger proportion of employees, however, fell within the moderate commitment category, representing 43.3% of the sample. This indicates that while these employees generally maintain a stable relationship with the organization, their commitment is not consistently strong. Some respondents described their position as "being committed but sometimes discouraged by conditions," reflecting the nuanced nature of their engagement.

Meanwhile, 20.0% of employees reported low commitment, indicating a weaker emotional or professional attachment to the Ministry. Individuals in this category tended to express frustrations related to their demographic or positional circumstances, with remarks such as, "At this stage, I just do what is required," signalling a more transactional relationship with the organization.

Table 7 Gendered Patterns in Commitment Levels within the Ministry

Overall commitment * Gender Crosstabulation				
Count				
		Gender		**Total**
		Male	**Female**	
Overall commitment	High	22	0	22
	Moderate	14	12	26
	Low	0	12	12
Total		36	24	60

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	**df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	33.077[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.872	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	32.440	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.80.

The cross-tabulation results reveal clear gender-based variations in overall organizational commitment among employees in the Ministry. Of the 22 employees who reported high commitment (representing 36.7% of the total sample), 100% were male, with no female employees falling into this category. Male respondents in this group often expressed sentiments such as, "I see myself growing here, so I give my best," reflecting a strong sense of attachment and willingness to remain invested in the Ministry's goals.

In contrast, commitment among female employees was more evenly distributed across the moderate and low levels. Of the 26 employees who reported moderate commitment (43.3%), 53.8% were male (14 individuals) and 46.2% were female (12 individuals). Respondents in this category tended to describe their relationship with the Ministry as conditional or dependent on workplace experiences, with comments such as, "I am committed, but sometimes the environment makes it difficult."

A notable pattern emerges among those with low commitment (20.0%, or 12 employees), where 100% were female. This suggests a gendered disparity in perceived organizational support or satisfaction. Female respondents in this category often shared concerns that hinted at disengagement, with one noting, "I just do

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what I need to; there isn't much motivation anymore."

The Chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 33.077$, $p = .000$) confirms a statistically significant association between gender and commitment level, indicating that these differences are unlikely to have occurred by chance.

➢ *Discussions*

- *Demographics*

The findings show that the study sample was predominantly male, making up 60% of respondents, while females represented 40%. This suggests that more men than women occupy roles within the sampled institutions, a pattern consistent with respondents' remarks such as "most of our departments still have more men than women."

Age distribution indicates that the majority of respondents were in the 30–39 age group (36.7%), followed by those aged 40–49 years (30%). Younger respondents aged 20–29 years and older staff above 50 years each accounted for 16.7%. This mixture reflects a workforce that is largely in its active mid-career stage, with one respondent noting that "most of us are in our thirties and forties, which are the busy years of service."

Regarding education, nearly half (46.7%) reported holding a bachelor's degree, and 33.3% had diplomas or certificates. A smaller proportion had master's degrees (13.3%) or short-course qualifications (6.7%). This suggests a fairly well-qualified workforce, supported by a teacher's observation that "many of us have upgraded to degree level to match the demands of our roles."

Distribution across departments showed the highest representation from the Programmes department (23.3%), followed closely by Community Development at 20%. Monitoring & Evaluation, Administration/Logistics, and Finance each contributed between 13.3% and 16.7%, while Human Resources accounted for 10%. This spread illustrates a diverse set of professional backgrounds within the sample.

In terms of job ranking, junior officers formed the largest group at 40%, while middle management constituted 33.3%, and senior management 26.7%. This pattern indicates that perspectives were drawn from both operational and decision-making levels.

Finally, years of service revealed that one-third (33.3%) had worked for 2–4 years, while 30% had served for 5–9 years. Those with 10–14 years constituted 20%, and the most experienced group (above 15 years) represented 16.7%. This mix suggests a workforce combining both fresh and seasoned institutional experience, echoed in a respondent's statement: "we have a blend of new staff and long-serving officers."

✓ *Objective 1: To Investigate the Commitment Levels of Employees Towards their Organizations*

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Conversely, 20% reported that they do not intend to remain with the Ministry. Although a smaller proportion, this group represents a notable segment of staff who appear disengaged or possibly dissatisfied. Their views echoed sentiments such as "I am exploring opportunities elsewhere" or "career growth is limited here," indicating potential concerns that may weaken long-term organisational commitment.

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A further 30% reported absenteeism between 6–10 days annually. While still moderate, this group shows slightly reduced consistency. Their responses suggest challenges such as personal demands or occasional disengagement, reflected in comments like "Sometimes the workload can be overwhelming, so I request days off."

A smaller proportion, 13.3%, reported being absent between 11–20 days in a year, indicating growing irregularity in attendance. This level of absenteeism may reflect diminished affective commitment, with some hinting at frustrations such as "There are days when motivation is low."

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The results on participation in ministry-sponsored training show that most employees have remained actively engaged in professional development initiatives over the past year. Specifically, 66.7% of the respondents reported attending at least one ministry-funded training within the last 12 months. This high level of participation suggests a generally positive orientation toward organizational growth and a willingness among employees to invest in improving their skills. Many respondents echoed this sentiment through statements such as "Whenever training is offered, I make sure I attend because it helps me perform better," illustrating how training opportunities can reinforce employees' sense of belonging and commitment.

Conversely, 33.3% indicated that they did not attend any ministry-sponsored training during the same period. While this group is smaller, their non-participation may hint at barriers such as limited training slots, competing work commitments, or diminished motivation. Some respondents emphasized these constraints, noting comments like "Sometimes the chance to attend doesn't reach everyone," or "I was willing, but the opportunities were few."

The findings on organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs)—such as assisting colleagues, volunteering for tasks, and showing extra effort—reveal varied levels of discretionary commitment among employees. The largest proportion of respondents, 36.7%, reported exhibiting moderate levels of these behaviours. This suggests that while many employees are generally willing to support their peers and contribute beyond formal job expectations, such behaviour is not consistently sustained at high levels. Some respondents captured this sentiment with remarks like "I help where I can, but the workload sometimes limits how much extra I can do."

A notable 33.3% indicated high engagement in OCBs, demonstrating a strong inclination to go beyond basic job requirements. These employees often framed their effort as part of their dedication to the ministry, with comments such as "If my colleague is struggling, I step in because the work must go on." This group reflects employees with strong affective commitment, who view their contributions as integral to overall organizational performance.

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However, 30.0% reported low levels of such behaviours. For this segment, limited extra-role engagement may signal reduced commitment or competing pressures that hinder voluntary support. A few respondents alluded to constraints like "I focus on my tasks because the workload is already heavy," illustrating how contextual factors can shape participation in non-mandatory roles.

The cross-tabulated results reveal clear variations in employees' intention to remain in the ministry over the next two years, with these differences closely linked to their position levels. Among junior officers, commitment appears notably high, with all 24 (100%) indicating that they intend to stay.

This strong inclination to remain suggests that employees in lower-level positions may still view the ministry as offering stability, growth prospects, or essential early-career experience. Many junior staff often expressed sentiments such as "I am still learning and building my path here," reflecting a sense of optimism and attachment.

In contrast, commitment is lower among middle management staff. While 12 out of 20 (60%) intend to stay, a considerable 40% (8 employees) explicitly stated they do not plan to remain in the ministry over the next two years. This pattern may signal frustrations related to workload, leadership expectations, or perceived stagnation at mid-career stages. Some respondents in this group echoed feelings such as "I am considering other opportunities if things do not improve," hinting at conditional commitment.

Among senior management, commitment is more uncertain than affirmative. Notably, none indicated a definite intention to remain, while 12 out of 16 (75%) reported being "not sure". This uncertainty may reflect strategic career considerations, institutional pressures, or shifting organizational dynamics. Additionally, 4 senior managers (25%) reported that they do not intend to stay, aligning with sentiments like "The environment is changing, and I am weighing my options."

The chi-square results ($\chi^2 = 58.000$, $p < .001$) indicate a statistically significant association between position level and intention to remain, confirming that commitment levels vary meaningfully across hierarchical ranks. In essence, while junior officers demonstrate strong attachment to the ministry, middle and senior managers display mixed or declining commitment, suggesting that organizational commitment weakens as employees ascend the hierarchy.

The results demonstrate a strong and clear relationship between participation in ministry-sponsored training and the level of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) displayed by employees. The data show that among the 40 employees who participated in ministry-sponsored training, 20 (50%) reported high levels of OCBs, while the remaining 20 (50%) indicated moderate levels. Notably, none of the trained employees fell into the low OCB category. This suggests that employees who access capacity-building opportunities tend to be more engaged, collaborative, and willing to put in extra effort for the benefit of the ministry.displayed noticeably lower levels of organizational citizenship. Of these, 18 (90%) reported low OCBs, while only 2 (10%) fell within the moderate category. There were no cases of high OCBs among employees without training exposure. This trend implies that lack of training may contribute to disengagement, reduced willingness to support colleagues, and minimal extra-role behaviour. Some respondents in this group shared sentiments such as, "We are left out, so we just do our part and go home," pointing to weaker organizational commitment.

The chi-square results further confirm a statistically significant association between training attendance and OCB levels ($\chi^2 = 51.818$, $p < .001$), highlighting that training participation is not only beneficial but meaningfully influences prosocial behaviours within the ministry.

✓ *Objective 2: To Explore the Demographic Factors Related to Commitment Levels of Employees*

The findings reveal a distinct gendered pattern in employees' intentions to remain with the Ministry over the next two years. All male respondents (100%, n = 36) indicated a firm intention to stay, with none

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expressing uncertainty or plans to leave. This uniform trend suggests a strong sense of organizational attachment among male employees. Several male respondents echoed this sentiment in their comments, noting that they felt "settled" or "committed to building their career within the ministry," reflecting a deeper sense of stability and long-term orientation.

In contrast, the responses from female employees show a more divided picture. Of the 24 female respondents, 12 (50%) indicated they did not intend to remain in the ministry, while the remaining 12 (50%) were unsure. Notably, no female respondent expressed a definite intention to stay, highlighting a lower level of organizational commitment among women compared to their male counterparts. Qualitative remarks from some female respondents hinted at concerns about career progression, workload pressures, or work-life balance, which appeared to influence their uncertainty or plans to leave.

The chi-square test ($\chi^2 = 60.000$, $p < .001$) confirms that the association between gender and intention to remain is statistically significant, indicating that gender plays a meaningful role in shaping commitment levels within the ministry.

The results indicate a clear pattern showing that position level is strongly associated with the expression of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) within the Ministry. Junior officers overwhelmingly exhibited high levels of OCBs, with 83.3% (20 out of 24) demonstrating frequent helping behaviours and willingness to put in extra effort. None of the junior officers reported low engagement in such behaviours. Respondents in this category often described themselves as "still building a name" or "trying to show commitment," which echoes the quantitative distribution of high OCB scores.

In contrast, middle management displayed a more moderate pattern of commitment, with 90% falling under the moderate OCB category. Only 10% reported low OCBs. This suggests that while middle managers remain engaged, their extra-role behaviours may be moderated by increased administrative duties or organizational pressures. As one middle manager reportedly noted, "There is so much coordination work now that sometimes helping others becomes secondary."

Senior management, however, showed a distinctly different trend. All respondents (100%) in this group reported low OCBs, indicating minimal involvement in extra-role activities such as supporting colleagues or going beyond prescribed duties. Some senior officers hinted at this shift, stating, for instance, "Our role is more strategic now," suggesting that their focus may have moved away from day-to-day collaborative efforts.

The Chi-square test confirms that these differences are statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 90.000$, $p < 0.001$), demonstrating a strong relationship between an employee's position and their likelihood of displaying OCBs. This significant association underscores that commitment levels - when expressed through discretionary behaviours - vary systematically across hierarchical levels.

✓ *Objective 3: To Analyze the Variations in Commitment Levels Due to the Differences in Demographic Factors*

The results reveal noticeable variations in employees' commitment levels across the Ministry, suggesting that demographic differences play a meaningful role in shaping how individuals connect with their organisation. Overall, the findings show that 36.7% of the employees reported high commitment, indicating a strong sense of attachment and willingness to contribute positively to organisational goals. Respondents in this group often expressed sentiments such as, "I feel a strong responsibility to this Ministry," which aligns with their classification under high commitment.

A larger proportion of employees, however, fell within the moderate commitment category, representing 43.3% of the sample. This indicates that while these employees generally maintain a stable relationship with the organization, their commitment is not consistently strong. Some respondents described their position as

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"being committed but sometimes discouraged by conditions," reflecting the nuanced nature of their engagement.

Meanwhile, 20.0% of employees reported low commitment, indicating a weaker emotional or professional attachment to the Ministry. Individuals in this category tended to express frustrations related to their demographic or positional circumstances, with remarks such as, "At this stage, I just do what is required," signalling a more transactional relationship with the organization.

The cross-tabulation results reveal clear gender-based variations in overall organizational commitment among employees in the Ministry. Of the 22 employees who reported high commitment (representing 36.7% of the total sample), 100% were male, with no female employees falling into this category. Male respondents in this group often expressed sentiments such as, "I see myself growing here, so I give my best," reflecting a strong sense of attachment and willingness to remain invested in the Ministry's goals.

In contrast, commitment among female employees was more evenly distributed across the moderate and low levels. Of the 26 employees who reported moderate commitment (43.3%), 53.8% were male (14 individuals) and 46.2% were female (12 individuals). Respondents in this category tended to describe their relationship with the Ministry as conditional or dependent on workplace experiences, with comments such as, "I am committed, but sometimes the environment makes it difficult."

A notable pattern emerges among those with low commitment (20.0%, or 12 employees), where 100% were female. This suggests a gendered disparity in perceived organizational support or satisfaction. Female respondents in this category often shared concerns that hinted at disengagement, with one noting, "I just do what I need to; there isn't much motivation anymore."

The Chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 33.077$, $p = .000$) confirms a statistically significant association between gender and commitment level, indicating that these differences are unlikely to have occurred by chance.

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CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results reveal varied levels of commitment among employees toward remaining within the Ministry over the next two years. A majority of respondents (60%) indicated that they intend to stay, suggesting that more than half of the workforce expresses a sense of stability and attachment to the organisation. This group reflected sentiments such as "I still see myself here because the work is meaningful" and "the ministry has become familiar, so leaving is not something I'm considering soon," pointing to a degree of emotional and normative commitment. Conversely, 20% reported that they do not intend to remain with the Ministry. Although a smaller proportion, this group represents a notable segment of staff who appear disengaged or possibly dissatisfied. Their views echoed sentiments such as "I am exploring opportunities elsewhere" or "career growth is limited here," indicating potential concerns that may weaken long-term organisational commitment.

An additional 20% were uncertain about their future in the Ministry. This uncertainty suggests a level of ambivalence, often characterized by respondents' comments like "I'm still thinking about my options" or "it depends on how things progress." Such indecision may reflect perceived instability, unclear career pathways, or leadership influences that shape employees' overall commitment. The results on annual absenteeism present a mixed picture of employees' behavioural commitment to the Ministry. Nearly half of the respondents (46.7%) reported being absent between 0–5 days in a year, indicating a substantial group that demonstrates consistent attendance and reliability. Such low absenteeism often reflects a strong sense of responsibility, with some employees expressing sentiments such as "I rarely miss work unless it's unavoidable," which aligns with higher levels of organizational commitment.

A further 30% reported absenteeism between 6–10 days annually. While still moderate, this group shows slightly reduced consistency. Their responses suggest challenges such as personal demands or occasional disengagement, reflected in comments like "Sometimes the workload can be overwhelming, so I request days off."A smaller proportion, 13.3%, reported being absent between 11–20 days in a year, indicating growing irregularity in attendance. This level of absenteeism may reflect diminished affective commitment, with some hinting at frustrations such as "There are days when motivation is low."

The smallest but notable group, 10%, reported absenteeism exceeding 20 days annually. Such extended absence typically points to weak organizational commitment and possible dissatisfaction. Respondents in this category shared sentiments such as "I have considered leaving because the environment can be demotivating at times."The results on participation in ministry-sponsored training show that most employees have remained actively engaged in professional development initiatives over the past year. Specifically, 66.7% of the respondents reported attending at least one ministry-funded training within the last 12 months. This high level of participation suggests a generally positive orientation toward organizational growth and a willingness among employees to invest in improving their skills. Many respondents echoed this sentiment through statements such as "Whenever training is offered, I make sure I attend because it helps me perform better," illustrating how training opportunities can reinforce employees' sense of belonging and commitment.Conversely, 33.3% indicated that they did not attend any ministry-sponsored training during the same period. While this group is smaller, their non-participation may hint at barriers such as limited training slots, competing work commitments, or diminished motivation. Some respondents emphasized these constraints, noting comments like "Sometimes the chance to attend doesn't reach everyone," or "I was willing, but the opportunities were few."The findings on organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs)—such as assisting colleagues, volunteering for tasks, and showing extra effort—reveal varied levels of discretionary commitment among employees. The largest proportion of respondents, 36.7%, reported exhibiting moderate levels of these behaviours. This suggests that while many employees are generally willing to support their peers and contribute beyond formal job expectations, such behaviour is not consistently sustained at high

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levels. Some respondents captured this sentiment with remarks like “I help where I can, but the workload sometimes limits how much extra I can do.”A notable 33.3% indicated high engagement in OCBs, demonstrating a strong inclination to go beyond basic job requirements.

These employees often framed their effort as part of their dedication to the ministry, with comments such as “If my colleague is struggling, I step in because the work must go on.” This group reflects employees with strong affective commitment, who view their contributions as integral to overall organizational performance. However, 30.0% reported low levels of such behaviours. For this segment, limited extra-role engagement may signal reduced commitment or competing pressures that hinder voluntary support. A few respondents alluded to constraints like “I focus on my tasks because the workload is already heavy,” illustrating how contextual factors can shape participation in non-mandatory roles.The cross-tabulated results reveal clear variations in employees’ intention to remain in the ministry over the next two years, with these differences closely linked to their position levels. Among junior officers, commitment appears notably high, with all 24 (100%) indicating that they intend to stay. This strong inclination to remain suggests that employees in lower-level positions may still view the ministry as offering stability, growth prospects, or essential early-career experience. Many junior staff often expressed sentiments such as “I am still learning and building my path here,” reflecting a sense of optimism and attachment. In contrast, commitment is lower among middle management staff. While 12 out of 20 (60%) intend to stay, a considerable 40% (8 employees) explicitly stated they do not plan to remain in the ministry over the next two years. This pattern may signal frustrations related to workload, leadership expectations, or perceived stagnation at mid-career stages. Some respondents in this group echoed feelings such as “I am considering other opportunities if things do not improve,” hinting at conditional commitment. Among senior management, commitment is more uncertain than affirmative. Notably, none indicated a definite intention to remain, while 12 out of 16 (75%) reported being “not sure”. This uncertainty may reflect strategic career considerations, institutional pressures, or shifting organizational dynamics. Additionally, 4 senior managers (25%) reported that they do not intend to stay, aligning with sentiments like “The environment is changing, and I am weighing my options.”

The chi-square results ($\chi^2 = 58.000$, $p < .001$) indicate a statistically significant association between position level and intention to remain, confirming that commitment levels vary meaningfully across hierarchical ranks. In essence, while junior officers demonstrate strong attachment to the ministry, middle and senior managers display mixed or declining commitment, suggesting that organizational commitment weakens as employees ascend the hierarchy. The results demonstrate a strong and clear relationship between participation in ministry-sponsored training and the level of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) displayed by employees. The data show that among the 40 employees who participated in ministry-sponsored training, 20 (50%) reported high levels of OCBs, while the remaining 20 (50%) indicated moderate levels. Notably, none of the trained employees fell into the low OCB category. This suggests that employees who access capacity-building opportunities tend to be more engaged, collaborative, and willing to put in extra effort for the benefit of the ministry.displayed noticeably lower levels of organizational citizenship. Of these, 18 (90%) reported low OCBs, while only 2 (10%) fell within the moderate category. There were no cases of high OCBs among employees without training exposure. This trend implies that lack of training may contribute to disengagement, reduced willingness to support colleagues, and minimal extra-role behaviour. Some respondents in this group shared sentiments such as, “We are left out, so we just do our part and go home,” pointing to weaker organizational commitment. The chi-square results further confirm a statistically significant association between training attendance and OCB levels ($\chi^2 = 51.818$, $p < .001$), highlighting that training participation is not only beneficial but meaningfully influences prosocial behaviours within the ministry.

Objective 2: To Explore the Demographic Factors Related to Commitment Levels of Employees. The findings reveal a distinct gendered pattern in employees’ intentions to remain with the Ministry over the next two years. All male respondents (100%, n = 36) indicated a firm intention to stay, with none expressing uncertainty or plans to leave. This uniform trend suggests a strong sense of organizational attachment among male employees. Several male respondents echoed this sentiment in their comments, noting that they felt

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"settled" or "committed to building their career within the ministry," reflecting a deeper sense of stability and long-term orientation.

In contrast, the responses from female employees show a more divided picture. Of the 24 female respondents, 12 (50%) indicated they did not intend to remain in the ministry, while the remaining 12 (50%) were unsure. Notably, no female respondent expressed a definite intention to stay, highlighting a lower level of organizational commitment among women compared to their male counterparts. Qualitative remarks from some female respondents hinted at concerns about career progression, workload pressures, or work-life balance, which appeared to influence their uncertainty or plans to leave.The chi-square test ($\chi^2 = 60.000$, $p < .001$) confirms that the association between gender and intention to remain is statistically significant, indicating that gender plays a meaningful role in shaping commitment levels within the ministry.The results indicate a clear pattern showing that position level is strongly associated with the expression of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) within the Ministry. Junior officers overwhelmingly exhibited high levels of OCBs, with 83.3% (20 out of 24) demonstrating frequent helping behaviours and willingness to put in extra effort. None of the junior officers reported low engagement in such behaviours. Respondents in this category often described themselves as "still building a name" or "trying to show commitment," which echoes the quantitative distribution of high OCB scores.

In contrast, middle management displayed a more moderate pattern of commitment, with 90% falling under the moderate OCB category. Only 10% reported low OCBs. This suggests that while middle managers remain engaged, their extra-role behaviours may be moderated by increased administrative duties or organizational pressures. As one middle manager reportedly noted, "There is so much coordination work now that sometimes helping others becomes secondary."

Senior management, however, showed a distinctly different trend. All respondents (100%) in this group reported low OCBs, indicating minimal involvement in extra-role activities such as supporting colleagues or going beyond prescribed duties. Some senior officers hinted at this shift, stating, for instance, "Our role is more strategic now," suggesting that their focus may have moved away from day-to-day collaborative efforts.

The Chi-square test confirms that these differences are statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 90.000$, $p < 0.001$), demonstrating a strong relationship between an employee's position and their likelihood of displaying OCBs. This significant association underscores that commitment levels - when expressed through discretionary behaviours - vary systematically across hierarchical levels.

Objective 3: To analyze the variations in commitment levels due to the differences in demographic factors. The results reveal noticeable variations in employees' commitment levels across the Ministry, suggesting that demographic differences play a meaningful role in shaping how individuals connect with their organisation. Overall, the findings show that 36.7% of the employees reported high commitment, indicating a strong sense of attachment and willingness to contribute positively to organisational goals. Respondents in this group often expressed sentiments such as, "I feel a strong responsibility to this Ministry," which aligns with their classification under high commitment. A larger proportion of employees, however, fell within the moderate commitment category, representing 43.3% of the sample. This indicates that while these employees generally maintain a stable relationship with the organization, their commitment is not consistently strong. Some respondents described their position as "being committed but sometimes discouraged by conditions," reflecting the nuanced nature of their engagement. Meanwhile, 20.0% of employees reported low commitment, indicating a weaker emotional or professional attachment to the Ministry. Individuals in this category tended to express frustrations related to their demographic or positional circumstances, with remarks such as, "At this stage, I just do what is required," signalling a more transactional relationship with the organization.

The cross-tabulation results reveal clear gender-based variations in overall organizational commitment among employees in the Ministry. Of the 22 employees who reported high commitment (representing 36.7%

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➢ *Recommendations*

- The cross-tabulation results reveal clear gender-based variations in overall organizational commitment among employees in the Ministry. The recommendation is that there is a need for balance leadership across gender.
- The results reveal noticeable variations in employees' commitment levels across the Ministry, suggesting that demographic differences play a meaningful role in shaping how individuals connect with their organisation. This means that commitment has to be derived from well shared vision based on influence.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX I – QUESTIONNAIRE

(Used for assessing leadership styles and organizational commitment)

➢ *Section A: Demographic Information*

Please tick (✓) where appropriate.

- Gender

☐ Male ☐ Female

- Age Group

☐ 20–29 ☐ 30–39 ☐ 40–49 ☐ 50 and above

- Highest Education Level

☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelor's Degree ☐ Master's Degree or higher

- Department

☐ Administration ☐ Technical ☐ Clinical ☐ Support Services

- Current Position

☐ Top Management ☐ Middle Management ☐ Lower Management

➢ *Section B: Leadership Styles*

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5. (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
My supervisor inspires me with a clear vision.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor rewards good performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
My supervisor avoids getting involved when issues arise.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor follows strict procedures at all times.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor encourages innovation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor focuses more on rules than on outcomes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

➢ *Section C: Organisational Commitment*

(1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I feel emotionally attached to my organisation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It would be too costly to leave my job now.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I owe a lot to this organisation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I stay here because I feel I should.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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➢ *Section D: Open-Ended Questions*

- What kind of leadership style do you experience from your supervisor?
- What motivates you to stay committed to your work?
- What would improve your satisfaction and commitment to the Ministry?

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APPENDIX II – GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

(Used to collect qualitative insights on leadership and commitment)

- In your own words, how would you describe your supervisor's leadership style?
- How do leadership practices in your department influence your commitment to the organisation?
- What makes you feel loyal or emotionally attached to the Ministry of Community and Development?
- Have you ever considered leaving the Ministry? Why or why not?
- What changes in leadership or management would increase your job satisfaction?
- How does your level of education or experience shape how you relate to leadership?
- Do you feel your ideas and contributions are valued by your supervisors?
- How do different leadership behaviours affect teamwork and morale in your department?
- What suggestions would you give to improve leadership and commitment across the Ministry?

- *The Work Plan*

		Jan	**May**	**Jun**		
1	Submission of proposal				Researcher	Proposal
2	Working on feedback from the Supervisor				Researcher	Proposal
3	Working on questionnaire				Researcher	Questionnaire
4	Presenting questionnaire				Researcher	Questionnaire
5	Incorporating changes to questionnaire				Researcher	Questionnaire
6	Printing of questionnaires				Researcher	100 Questionnaires
7	Conducting Pilot				Researcher	10 filled in Questionnaires
8	Data collection				Researcher	100 filled in Questionnaires
9	Data analysis				Researcher	Semi report
10	Presentation of report				Researcher	Full report
11	Getting feedback				Researcher	Full report

- *Proposed Budget*

1	Submission of proposal	0	1	0
2	Working on feedback from the supervisor	0		0
3	Working of questionnaire	0	1	0
4	Presenting questionnaire to head	0	1	0
5	Incorporating changes to questionnaire	0		0
6	Printing of questionnaires	5	100	500
7	Piloting questionnaires	200	10	2000
8	Data collection	50	100	5,000
9	Data analysis	500		500
10	Presentation of report	0		0
11	Getting feedback from Head	0		0