



Influence of work-life conflict on employee commitment in the independent electoral and boundaries commission of Kenya

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Abstract

The International Labor Organization's global report on work-life balance indicates that Kenya is among the countries with the highest prevalence of long working hours globally. Long hours of work tend to lead to increasingly high rates of absenteeism and poor health, which may have a serious impact on work-life conflict. In view of the foregoing, this study sought to investigate the influence of work-life conflict on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission, Kenya. The study adopted descriptive research design, which guaranteed simplicity in comprehending the insight regarding the problem under study. The target population for this study was composed of employees of the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya that included; County Election Managers, Constituency Election Coordinators, Constituency Administrative Assistants, County ICT officers, County Supply Chain Assistants and Accountants making a total of 768 respondents. A sample size of 258 respondents was used to represent the target population. A self-administered questionnaire was used for data collection since this could be sent to a large number of people. Collected data was analysed using inferential as well as descriptive statistics. The findings of this study revealed that work life conflict had a significant influence on employee commitment. The study recommends the need for a policy formulation to mitigate against work-life conflicts in organizations in order to enhance employee commitment.

Keywords: work-life conflict, employee commitment, Independent electoral and boundaries commission

1. Introduction: Background of the Study

Employees today are offered a wide range of work-life policies, such as flexible working hours, part-time work, a compressed work week and various types of leave arrangements (Evans, 2001) [22]. Nevertheless, there is evidence that many employees are not taking advantage of existing policies (Webber, Sarris & Bessell, 2010) [57]. Research has also shown that employees do not always utilize existing schemes, even when they need to do so (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002; Eaton, 2003; Williams, 2000) [17]. Moreover, other studies also indicate that work-home conflict is on the increase globally (Winefield *et al.*, 2008; Webber *et al.*, 2010) [58, 57]. Related studies (Horton, 2006; McDonald, Guthrie, Bradley, & Shakespeare-Finch, 2005) [37] also indicate that employees are experiencing challenges related to work-life conflict.

To reduce work-life conflict in organizations, work-life balance practices that include flexible work hours, telework, job sharing, and family leave programs such as parental leave, adoption leave, compassionate leave, childcare, and informational assistance in terms of childcare and eldercare services are recommended. Vidal, Leiva and Navarro (2012) [55] defines work-life balance as the individual's ability, irrespective of age and gender, to find a life rhythm that allows them to combine their work with other responsibilities, activities or aspirations. Employers benefit from work-life balance practices because they can increase their organizational results through improved employee outcomes, such as commitment, motivation, and talent retention and reduced turnover intentions (Carrasquer & Martin, 2005; Hughes & Bozionelos, 2007) [26]. According

to Harrington and Ladge (2009) [25], work-life balance practices are seen as the key to retaining and attracting highly qualified professionals. Despite the popularity of work-life balance as a topic of academic and research debate, and the increasing prevalence of work-life balance practices in organizations around the world (US Bureau of Labor, 2007; Hughes & Bozionelos, 2007; Vidal *et al.*, 2012) [54, 26], research on the organizational effects of such practices is not well integrated.

Spain is one of the countries of the European Union with workers' lower levels of balance between work and private life. There are an increasing number of dual career couples as a consequence of the incorporation of women in the labor market, and, therefore the family unit experiences high levels of work and family conflict. Spain is at a disadvantage compared with other countries of the European Union due its long school holidays, long working days and limited possibilities for part-time work arrangements (Vidal *et al.*, 2012). Finland, Norway and Germany have lower levels of employee imbalance than Spain because in these countries there are institutions and companies offering family-friendly policies (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006; Maldonado & Pages, 2007) [12]. In Korea, the society has experienced many changes of work-life balance, such as increase in social participation by women, increased numbers of dual-income couples, and single-parent households (Choi & Kim, 2012) [7]. These metamorphoses have created more conflicts and more problems in individuals' work and family lives (Karatepe, 2010) [28].

Mukururi and Ngari (2014) assert that there is a push towards the 24-hour economy in Kenya. As a result of this

fervent push, more flexibility is required to cover round the clock peaks. The arrangement of five day's work week in government in Kenya has been smoothly implemented. In the pursuit of reducing work-life conflict, improving commitment, increasing productivity, reducing costs and enhancing profitability in the workplace, organizations in Kenya have been evolving new ways and means in building psychological relationships with employees (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007) ^[56]. In respect to longer working hours and around the clock during the election period, employees in IEBC suffer more from work-life conflict than any other organization in Kenya.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The International Labor Organization's global report on work-life balance in 2010, found Kenya to have the highest prevalence of long working hours affecting 50.9 per cent of workers compared to 18.1 per cent of employees working more than 48 hours per week in the United States of America and 25.7 per cent in the United Kingdom. Long hours of work tend to lead to increasingly high rates of absenteeism and poor health, which have a serious impact on employee's commitment and organizational performance (ILO, 2011). Despite the important role work life balance plays in IEBC, most of the studies on this subject have been conducted in developed countries, yet not much research has been conducted in Kenya leading to insufficient empirical literature in the country work life balance and its effect on employee commitment specifically in IEBC. The studies that have been undertaken in Kenya focusing on; banks (Moraa, 2018; Mungania, 2017; Boru, 2015; Mukururi & Ngari, 2014; Kamau, Mukaya & Wagoki, 2013), Universities (Murithi, 2017; Omusi, 2013) telecommunication industry (Ndombi, Wafula & Wanyama, 2018; Keino & Kithae, 2016) and state parastatals (Karani & Nyang'au, 2018; Mutheu, Kiflemariam & Ngui, 2017) have found a positive relationship between work-life conflict and performance. In view of the foregoing, it is acknowledged that work-life conflict influences employee commitment and by implication, performance of organizations. This study therefore sought to establish whether the same trends are also realizable in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya.

1.2 Research Objective

The main objective of this study was to investigate the influence of work-life conflict on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypothesis

The null hypothesis of this study was that work-life conflict has no influence on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya.

2.1 Theoretical Literature Review

The theory that anchors this research is the theory of psychological contracts. The choice of psychological contracts as the anchor theory for this study was informed by theoretical arguments that certain obligations are expected from both the employer and the employee in exchange for certain promises (Scott- Ladd *et al.*, 2006).

The other employee commitment theory supporting this study is the spillover theory. These theories effectively highlights an important correlation between work-life conflict and employee commitment. Based on these theories, work-life conflict is assumed to exert a positive impact on employee commitment.

2.1.1 Theory of Psychological Contracts

It refers to an individual's belief or perception about promises is made to them, (for example if management is willing to institutionalize work life balance policies) and certain obligations is expected from employees in exchange for the promise (Scott- Ladd *et al.*, 2006). The psychological contract is a useful concept for understanding what employees and employers expect of a job and a work environment, including not only expectations of tenure or advancement but also sense of entitlement to work-life benefits and flexible working arrangements. Indeed, it has recently been argued that work-life balance can be a key factor in establishing a positive psychological contract (Coussey, 2000). Psychological contract theory has been used in recent studies relating to work-life balance policies and practices to measure employee satisfaction, loyalty and commitment. For example, Roehling, Roehling and Moen, (2001) studied the relationship between work-life balance, work life support programs and employee commitment over the life course and concluded that work-life balance policies are consistently related to employee commitment, and most strongly for parents of young children. Studies have also addressed the relationship between the psychological contract and remote working (Harwood, 2003) and part-time working (Conway & Briner, 2002). Lewis and Smithson (2001) looked at the impact of work-life balance on the psychological contract for younger employees, some of whom accepted a balanced-life contract in which employees accept lack of long term security and less than optimum conditions in exchange for flexibility and reasonable hours, in order to accommodate their family or personal lives. Psychological contract theory is a potentially useful tool in work-life research as it provides a way of considering employees' and employers' expectations of work-life balance and employee commitment.

2.1.2 Spillover Theory

The Spillover theory suggests that there is a similarity between what occurs in the work environment and what occurs in the family environment (Sidin, Sambasivan & Ismail, 2010). This theory emphasizes on the tendency of the workers to carry their emotions, attitudes, skills, and behaviors that they establish at work into their family life and vice versa (Sidin *et al.*, 2010). The spillover process can be either positive or negative. The negative spillover induces stress in individuals and the positive spillover can lead to high levels of satisfaction. Extensive research into field of work life balance has indicated that employee who continuously work long hours have greater degree of work life conflict (Dex & Bond, 2005). Boundary between work and home are relatively weak and spillover into the home or work environment triggered by stress can easily occur (Lewis, 2003). From an organizational point of view, positive spillover theory can have a direct influence on the financial well-being of the organization as well. A satisfied employee will have spillover effect to their customer as well. Satisfied customers are more likely to remain loyal to

that specific organization.

The experiences resulting from spillover in the organization can manifest themselves as either positive or negative (Morris & Madsen, 2007). Positive spillover refers to the extent to which positive experiences in one domain (affect, development, and capital) are transferred to another domain (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) described work-family enrichment, a concept similar to positive spillover, as the extent to which fulfillment of one role enhances the quality of the other role. They proposed that enrichment occurs either through instrumental (e.g. skills and perspectives gained) or affective mechanisms. Through the instrumental link, performance is enhanced in the other domain, whereas through the affective link, enthusiasm, alertness, energy and positive mood states from one role spillover to the other role.

The majority of research in the area of work-family frameworks has been done using spillover theory (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Spillover theory reflects two distinct sets of concepts. One set represents the existed of negative spillover between work and family it is mostly frequently characterized by various types of work and family conflict or interference. Co-occurring negative events such as stressors, on the same day in multiple domains or from one person to another (Carlson *et al.*, 2006) also have been viewed as a form of negative spillover. Another most recent set of concepts represents positive spillover between work and family, such as resource enhancement and work-family success or balance Xu (2009) Previous research also has indicated that negative forms of spillover are related, yet distinct from positive spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

2.2 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework is a design that identifies each of the series of logical steps or variables and interactions which, bridge the gap from the beginning to the end of the research process (Kothari, 2008). The conceptual model of the relationship between work-life conflict and employee performance is shown in Figure 2.1. The conceptual framework hypothesizes that there is a relationship between work-life conflict and employee commitment.

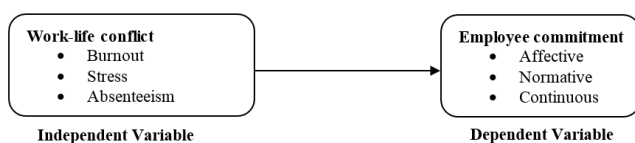


Fig 1: Conceptual Frame work

2.3 Work-life Conflict and Employee Commitment

Work-family conflict is generally defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible because participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other (Greenhaus, 2009). Constitutional reforms have considerably altered the work environment in IEBC with the increase in elective positions. This has considerably increased the work load enormously thus putting a lot of pressure on employees. To increase profitability and have competitive advantage organizations have streamlined their workforce considerably, which consequently eliminated a large proportion of their qualified personnel (Chenevert, Jourdain, Cole, & Banville, 2013).

This situation, coupled with the growing complexity of working environment and massive re-engineering of work processes, has imposed a work overload on employees in IEBC, thus leading to work life conflict (Chenevert *et al.*, 2013).

Work-family conflict has been shown to reduce work performance (Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001)^[53] and increase absenteeism, turnover and job dissatisfaction (Chandola, Martikainen, Bartley, Lahelma, Marmot & Michikazu, 2004)^[6]. Work-family conflict has also been shown to reduce life satisfaction, marital and family satisfaction as well as mental and physical well-being including burnout and health problems (Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2001; Chandola *et al.*, 2004)^[15, 49].

A study by Akintayo's (2010) reported a negative impact of work-family conflict on organizational commitment in industrial workers of Nigeria. Findings are also consistent with other studies indicating that work-family conflict has an impact on several variables like commitment, personality, self-efficacy, and leadership style (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000) and that work-family conflict particularly is negatively associated with affective and continuance commitment, which are the dimensions of organizational commitment (Ansari, 2011; Frone, 2003; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992)^[18]. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985)^[3] it is the inter-role conflict which causes role pressures from the work and family domains which consequently results in low organizational commitment.

Work-family conflict has been consistently linked to negative outcomes for employees, their families and organizations. For example, work interference with family life has been associated with job dissatisfaction, turnover intention, general well-being, psychological strain, psychiatric disorders and substance abuse and problem drinking (Boyar, Maertz, Pearson & Keough, 2003; O'Driscoll, Poelmans, Spector, Kalliath, Allen, Cooper & Sanchez, 2003; Hammer, Saksvik, Nytrø, Torvatn & Bayazit, 2004)^[4]. Employees reporting high levels of work-life conflict tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Beauregard, 2006)^[2].

Work-life conflict is a common source of work stress (Tanacoody, Bartram & Casmir, 2009; Demerouti *et al.*, 2001)^[43]. Work-family conflict has a positive relationship with job burnout and is often associated with a higher tendency to leave the organization (Tanacoody *et al.*, 2009; Lambert, 2006). Grunfeld, Zitzelsberger, Coristine, Whelan, Aspelund, Evans, (2004)^[22], in a rare study of job stress among cancer workers, they argued that a major source of work stress is work-family conflict coupled with heavy workload demands. Additionally, many clinicians are leaving the public health care industry in Australia due to the inability to balance work and family domains in the face of work intensification (Tanacoody *et al.*, 2009).

Burnout is a stress-related psychological syndrome in which exhaustion and disengagement may be considered, the core elements (Langballe, Innstrand, Aasland & Falkum, 2010; Peterson *et al.*, 2008)^[31]. Burnout may be defined as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment at work and home (Maslach *et al.*, 1996)^[36]. According to Demerouti *et al.*, (2001)^[15], burnout has two critical dimensions: emotional exhaustion and disengagement. Emotional exhaustion refers

to feelings of being overextended and exhausted by the emotional demands of work (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001) [43]. Disengagement refers to employees' engagement, identification, and willingness to remain within the same occupation. The burnout process is assumed to start with feelings of exhaustion in response to prolonged exposure to stressful experiences at work (Langballe *et al.*, 2010) [31]. People who are 'burned out' are not only exhausted but may also have lost their capacity for involvement in their work (Leiter, 2008) [32]. A high level of job burnout causes employees to feel depressed and experience a sense of failure, fatigue, and a loss of motivation, which in turn can lead to a number of problems for the organization, including employee turnover, absenteeism, and reduced organizational commitment, morale, job satisfaction, and productivity (Choi *et al.*, 2012).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) [50] asserted that job burnout (including emotional exhaustion and depersonalization) is an important predictor of turnover intentions for service organizations. Research has linked burnout to lower levels of organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as to higher levels of absenteeism and turnover (Harrington & Ladage, 2009; Beutell, 2010; Choi *et al.*, 2012) [25, 3]. Research has linked burnout to lower levels of organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as to higher levels of absenteeism and turnover (Maslach *et al.*, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) [36, 49]. Rupert, Stevanovic and Hunley, (2009) studied the relationships between work-family conflict and burnout in a group of psychologists. The results indicated that both work to family conflict and family to work conflict are significantly related to burnout.

The concept of work-life balance requires organizations to effectively integrate employees' work and non-work roles such that levels of multiple-role conflict, the associated stress and job-dissatisfaction are minimized (De Bruin & Dupuis, 2004; Greenblatt, 2002) [14, 20]. High job involvement may lead to increased stress, lack of job satisfaction, and reduced organizational commitment (McDonald & Bradley, 2005) [37]. Grunfeld *et al.*, (2004) [22] in a rare study of job stress among cancer workers, argue that a major source of work stress is work-family conflict coupled with heavy workload demands. Additionally, job stress has been shown to be positively associated with absenteeism and turnover among clinicians more generally (Stordeur *et al.*, 2001) [53]. Stress is associated with economic costs for the individual, society and the organization. Job stress is estimated to cost industry in the US more than \$300 billion a year in related costs such as absenteeism and reduced productivity (Rosch, 2003) [46].

In the US, more than half of adults report that family responsibilities are a source of stress to them and 55% indicated that they experienced work-family conflict in the past 3 months APA (2010). The consequences of work-life imbalance can be dreadful in terms of the profitability of organizations. Organizational psychologists have shown that high levels of work-life balance stress can significantly increase levels of absenteeism and turnover, and substantially decrease employees' levels of job satisfaction, job performance and commitment to the organization.

Many researches support the notion that absenteeism rates can be influenced by employees' use of work-life balance practices in the work place. There is evidence that

work/family programs increase loyalty and commitment to the organization and reduce absenteeism and turnover, reduce conflict between work and family and as a result increase productivity (Hughes & Bozionelos, 2007) [26]. Other more tangible benefits include reduction of absenteeism, lower stress levels, higher levels of productivity and performance, greater quality of life, satisfaction and commitment among employees (Carrasquer & Martin, 2005; Hughes & Bozionelos, 2007) [26]. In Auerbach's (1990) study of an American hospital's childcare program, absenteeism rates dropped from 6% to 1% among eligible parents following the introduction of the childcare center, whereas absenteeism rates for other employees remained steady at four percent.

McDonald, Guthrie, Bradley, and Shakespeare-Finch's (2005) [37] qualitative study of employed women with dependent children, several of the participants in the study stated that without access to flexible working hours, they would not continue to work full-time. The availability of flexible working hours improved commitment and retention among new employed mother, (Glass & Riley's, 1998). Studies have also shown that as levels of flexibility in terms of working hour's decrease, turnover intentions are raised in most organizations (Rothausen, 1994) [47].

Duxbury and Higgins (2001) [16] in examining the effects of three types of work family conflict (role overload, work-family interference and family-work interference) on organizational commitment. It was found that work-life conflict had a negative impact on organizational commitment of employees. Employees who are overloaded or whose work interfered with family (vice-versa) were highly stressed, experienced burnout, expressed dissatisfaction with life, and were in poor mental/ physical health. Rogier and Padgett (2004) [45] conducted an experimental study among 107 working MBA students, participants were given a packet of materials designed to simulate the personnel file of a female employee in an accounting firm who was seeking a promotion to senior manager. They found that participants perceived the job candidate who was using flexible work hours as being less committed to her job, less suitable for advancement, less ambitious, and less desirous of advancement, despite no differences in her perceived capability compared to a candidate not using a flexible schedule. The finding was similar to Cohen and Single (2001) [9] whose research showed that accountants working flexible schedules were perceived to be less likely to be promoted and more likely to leave the firm.

3.1 Research Design

According to Cooper and Schindler (2014) [11] research design constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of the data. This study used a descriptive research design. This design was appropriate for this study since (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013) [51] reiterate that descriptive studies may help the researcher to understand the characteristics of a group in a given situation, think systematically about aspects in a particular case, offer ideas for further probe and research and finally help make certain simple decisions.

3.2 Target Population

A population is the full universe of people or things from which the sample is selected (Greener, 2008). Target

population consisted of employees of the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya. The target population for this study was composed of employees of the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya that included; County Election Managers, Constituency Election Coordinators, Constituency Administrative Assistants, County ICT officers, County Supply Chain Assistants and Accountants making a total of 768 as shown in Table 3.1.

3.3 Sampling Frame

Cooper and Schindler (2014) [11] define a sampling frame as a list of elements from which the sample is collected and it is closely associated to the population. The sampling frame for this study consisted of 768 employees of the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya from the 47 and 290 counties and constituencies respectively as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 1: Sampling Frame

Category	Number of Employees
County Election Managers	47
Constituency Election Coordinators	290
Constituency Administrative Assistants	290
County ICT Officers	47
County Supply Chain Assistants	47
Accountants	47
Total	768

Source: IEBC registry office Nairobi

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

According to Kothari (2010), a sample is a section of a population that is selected for examination and analyses and used to make inferences to the population from which it is obtained. Sampling technique is the process of selecting respondents that constitute a sample (Kothari & Garg, 2014). In this study, a sample was selected from a sampling frame that consisted of 768 employees of the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya. From the sampling frame, sample size was calculated using the following standard formula for infinite population (Naing *et al.*, 2006) [40]:

$$n = z^2 p (1 - p) / e^2 \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 1}$$

Where

- n = sample size
- z = the statistical certainty usually chosen at 95% confidence level, that is z = 1.96 for an error risk of 5%
- p = estimated level/coverage to be investigated, usually p = 0.5 is chosen
- e = precision desired, expressed as a fraction of 1, usually e = 0.05 is chosen for the confidence interval.

Substituting the values into equation (1), the estimated sample size for infinite population was obtained as follows:

$$n = (1.96)^2 (0.5 \times 0.5) / (0.05)^2$$

$$n = (3.84) (0.25) / (0.05)^2$$

$$n = 384.16$$

Correcting for finite population, the following formula was used (Daniel, 1999; Naing, *et al.* 2006) [13, 40]:

$$n^1 = n / (1 + n/N) \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 2}$$

Where

- n¹ = sample size for finite population
- N = the target population = 768
- n = calculated sample size from infinite population = 384.16

Substituting these values into equation (2):

$$n^1 = 384.16 / (1 + 384.16/768)$$

$$n^1 = 384.16 / 1.5$$

$$= 256.1$$

Therefore, the sample size was 258 as shown in Table 3.2

The simple random sampling was used to select the number of subjects that represent the target population in this study. The respondents were randomly picked from the sampling frame using random numbers to ensure that there were equal chances for each of the respondents to be included in the study. According to Kothari (2008), random numbers ensure that the sample is randomly selected with all individuals in the population having an equal chance of being picked. Table 3.2 shows the distribution of sample size of employees across different strata.

Table 2: Sample Size

Category	Number of Employees	Sample Size	Percentage
County Election Managers	47	16	6.2
Constituency Election Coordinators	290	97	37.6
Constituency Admin. Assistants	290	97	37.6
County ICT Officers	47	16	6.2
County Supply Chain Assistants	47	16	6.2
Accountants	47	16	6.2
Total	768	258	100

3.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study is a small scale preliminary study before the main research in order to measure the validity and reliability of data collection instruments (Kothari, 2007). Pilot study was carried out to evaluate the suitability of the questionnaires. Sample for the pilot study was obtained from employees of the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya within Kakamega County, who did not make part of the sample population. Questionnaires were administered to 25 respondents during the pilot study. Creswell (2003) states that the size of a sample to be used for pilot testing varies depending on the time, cost and practicability, but would tend to be between 5-10 percent of that of the main survey. The pilot study helped to detect flaws in the administration of the questionnaires and therefore helped ensure reliability and validity of the questionnaires.

3.5.1 Validity of Research Instruments

Validity is the extent to which results can be interpreted accurately to represent the entire population. Before the questionnaire was used to collect data, two experts evaluated it in terms of the percentage of questions that they considered relevant and the average score from the two experts was calculated. The first expert gave it 91%, the second expert gave 93%. This yielded an average congruency percentage of 92% which is greater than the lower limit of 90% hence the content validity of the questionnaire's was confirmed.

3.5.2 Reliability of Research Instruments

Reliability measures the extent to which an instrument is actually consistent in terms of measurement (Kothari, 2008). To test the reliability of the instruments, a test-retest method was used. Test-retest estimates of reliability are obtained by correlating data collected with those from the same questionnaire collected under as near equivalent conditions as possible (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). The results obtained, were coded and entered into a computer program (Statistical Package for Social Sciences - version 25) after which a reliability index was calculated using the Cronchbach’s alpha.

$$KR_{20} = \frac{(K)(S^2 - \sum S^2)}{(S^2)(K-1)}$$

Where;

- KR_{20} is reliability coefficient of internal consistency
- K is the number of items used to measure the concept
- S^2 is the variance of all scores

The computed Cronbach’s Alpha for the entire data set was 0.799. A Cronchbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.7 and above is considered high enough to judge the instrument as reliable (Pallant, 2007) [42].

3.6 Data Processing and Analysis

Qualitative data was converted to quantifiable forms by coding using SPSS text editor (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003) [39]. According to Saunders, *et al.* (2007), quantifying qualitative data means converting it into numerical codes so that it can be analyzed statistically. Data collected was sorted, cleaned and coded and then analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 25). Following Ijaiya *et al.* (2009), descriptive statistics was used

for each variable was calculated and tabulated using frequency distribution tables. The study was tested at 95% confidence level and 5% significance level. In order to test the relationship between the variables, inferential tests including correlation and regression analysis was used. The regression equation was:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta X + \epsilon$$

Where,

- Y is employees’ commitment
- B_0 is the y-intercept (constant)
- B is the coefficient
- X is work-life conflict
- ϵ = Error term

4.1 Research Findings

The Cronbach’s alpha revealed that the instruments had adequate reliability for the study. Both work-life conflict and employee commitment had good internal consistency, $\alpha = .773$ and $.825$ respectively implying that all the items were worth of retention. Deleting any of the items would not result to an increase in Cronbach’s alpha.

4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics for Employee Commitment

Employee commitment was assessed through three main measures namely affective, normative and continuous. To examine employee commitment, a five-itemed Likert scaled questionnaire was used. The respondents rated the items using: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree and their responses were converted into continuous scaled data by computing the mean response in each item. The findings were summarized as illustrated in Table 4.1.

Table 3: Employee Commitment

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
1. Employee feels that he has no options to consider leaving this organization.	8.4%	11.3%	12.3%	32.6%	33.3%	3.76
2. If employee left the organization it would be hard to get a new job.	19.6%	21.7%	26.8%	14.5%	17.4%	2.87
3. My life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now	7.2%	7.2%	19.1%	41.3%	26.1%	3.93
4. Employee staying with the organization is a matter of necessity	0.7%	17.4%	25.1%	52.2%	3.6%	3.40
5. It would be very hard for employee to leave the organization right now, even if he wanted to.	0.0%	13.8%	39.1%	41.3%	5.8%	3.57
Overall Mean						3.51

The results in Table 4.6 shows that more than half of the respondents were in agreement that they have no options of considering leaving the organization. The results also revealed that almost half of the respondents were in agreement that employee staying with the employer was a matter of necessity. Finally, two in every five of the respondents agreed that it could be difficult to leave the organization. A mean of 3.83 implied that most employees recognized employee commitment being instrumental to organizations.

4.1.3 Descriptive Statistics for Work-life Conflict

Work-life conflict was assessed through three main measures namely burnout, stress and absenteeism. To examine work-life conflict, a five-itemed Likert scaled questionnaire was used. The respondents rated the items using: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree and their responses were converted into continuous scaled data by computing the mean response in each item. The findings were summarized as illustrated in Table 4.2.

Table 4: Work Life Conflict on Employee Commitment

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
1. If it were not for tele-working, employees would have left the organization.	1.3%	2.1%	0%	23.8%	71.4%	4.64
2. Tele-working has enabled employees to continue taking care of their work	2.9%	26.7%	31.2%	30.3%	8.1%	3.15

responsibilities while at home taking care of my family						
3. Tele-working has enabled employees to have high degree of autonomy with my working arrangements.	2.2%	13.8%	39.9%	32.6%	10.6%	3.38
4. Tele-working has enabled employee solve work problems while they are from work.	2.9%	23.2%	35.5%	26.8%	11.5%	3.21
5. Tele-working motivates employees to do work.	7.2%	13%	19.6%	50.7%	9.3%	3.44
Overall mean						3.55

The finding in Table 4.3 means that about seven out of ten of the respondents agreed that tele-working reduces the turnover of employees in an organization. With a mean of 4.64 means that respondents agreed that employees consider work-life conflict instrumental to employee commitment. However, three in every ten of the respondents sampled agreed that employees balance their work at home with the families and the work at the place of work. Considering the mean of 3.15 indicated that respondents were ambivalent on the sentiments that tele-working has enabled employees to continue taking care of their work responsibilities while at home taking care of their family. Half of the respondents were in agreement that tele-working motivates employees to do work.

4.1.4 Inferential Statistics for Work-life Conflict and Employee Commitment

To investigate whether there was any statistical significant relationship between work-life conflict and employee commitment, the null hypothesis that “work-life conflict has no influence on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya” was tested. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used, with scores on work-life conflict as independent variable and employee commitment as dependent variable. The correlation analysis result was shown in SPSS output, as indicated in Table 4.3.

Table 5: Work-Life Conflict and Employee Commitment

		Employee Commitment
Work-Life Conflict	Pearson Correlation	.296**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	212
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

It is evident that there was positive ($r=.296, n=212, p<.05$) but weak correlation between work-life conflict and employee commitment among employees of the IEBC. The relationship was statistically significant; therefore, the hypothesis that, “work-life conflict has no influence on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya” was rejected. It was therefore concluded that there is a statistical significant relationship between work-life conflict and employee

Table 8: Regression Coefficients of Work-Life Conflict and Employee Commitment

Coefficients		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.505	.227		2.230	.000
	Work-life Conflict	.208	.060	.226	2.852	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment						
Model: $Y = .505 + 0.226X$						

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The main objective of this study was to investigate the

commitment among employees of the IEBC.

To estimate the level of influence of work-life conflict on employee commitment among employees of the IEBC, a coefficient of determination (R Square) was computed. This was done using regression analysis and the results were as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 6: Model Summary on Regression Analysis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.778 ^a	.606	.595	.37569
a. Predictors: (Constant), work-life conflict				

The model shows that work-life conflict accounted for 60.6 % ($R^2 = .606$) of the variation in overall employee commitment of IEBC employees. However, to determine whether a work-life conflict was a significant predictor of employee commitment of IEBC employees, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was computed as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 7: ANOVA - Work-Life Conflict on Employee Commitment

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
1	Regression	29.020	4	7.255	50.411	.000 ^b
	Residual	18.771	208	.141		
	Total	47.793	212			
a. Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Work-Life Conflict						

From Table 4.5, it can be seen that work-life conflict has a moderate effect on employee commitment and therefore it is a significant predictor [$F(4, 208) = 50.411, p < .05$]. Analysis of the regression model coefficients is shown in Table 4.6. From the table there is a positive beta co-efficient of 0.226 as indicated by the co-efficient matrix with a P-value = $0.000 < 0.05$ and a constant of .505 with a p-value = $0.000 < 0.05$. Therefore, both the constant and work-life conflict contribute significantly to the model. Consequently, the model can provide the information needed to predict employee commitment from work-life conflict. The regression equation is presented as follows: $Y = .505 + 0.226X + \epsilon$; Where Y = employee commitment, X is work-life conflict and ϵ is the error term.

influence of work-life conflict on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of

Kenya. Descriptive statistics showed that work-life conflict had a considerable effect on employee commitment. An improvement in work-life balance leading to enhanced employee commitment. According to Pearson correlation analysis, there was a positive correlation between work-life conflict and employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya. A standard regression analysis revealed that work-life conflict contributed significantly to the explanation of employee commitment. Given that the regression results demonstrated the existence of significant relationship between work-life conflict and employee commitment, the null hypothesis that the hypothesis that, “*work-life conflict has no influence on employee commitment in the Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission of Kenya*” was rejected. It was therefore concluded that there is a statistical significant relationship between work-life conflict and employee commitment among employees of the IEBC. This therefore implies that an increase in management of work-life conflict enhances the level of employee commitment.

5.2 Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study there is adequate evidence to conclude that work-life conflict influences employee commitment. The study recommends the need for a policy formulation to manage work-life conflicts in organizations in order to enhance employee commitment.

6. References

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