European Journal of Educational Sciences (EJES)

2018 / June

Publisher:
European Scientific Institute, ESI

Reviewed by the "European Journal of Educational Sciences” editorial board 2018

June 2018 edition vol. 5, no. 2

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ISSN 1857-6036
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Sincerely,

EJES, Team
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Parental Stress and Parent-Child Relationships in Recently Divorced, Custodial Mothers

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a1 URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a1

Abstract

Divorce often creates significant stress that can have an impact on parent-child relationship satisfaction. The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive relationship between parental stress as measured by the Parenting Stress Index, 4th Edition, Short Form (PSI-4-SF) and the parent-child relationship satisfaction as measured by the Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI) following a separation or divorce. A sample of 17 recently separated or divorced, custodial mothers who had at least one child between the ages 5-13 years were recruited through local schools. Participants completed the PSI-4-SF, the PCRI, and a demographics questionnaire online. A correlation and regression analysis were conducted to analyze the relationship between parental stress and the level of parent-child relationship satisfaction, which was found to possess a significant negative relationship. The stress of the mother was found to affect the parent-child relationship. Neither child gender or child age influenced the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. However, mother’s with sons reported higher parental satisfaction than mothers with daughters.

Keywords: Children of divorce and family, parent stress and divorce, child custody.

Introduction

Divorce is one of the most stressful life-changing events an individual may experience (Lamela & Figueiredo, 2011). Recent U.S. census data has indicated that close to 2 million adults go through divorce each year (Center for Disease Control, 2015). Seventeen percent of marriages end before the fifth anniversary, and an additional 28% end before their 15th anniversary, which means that children also may be affected by divorce (Kreider & Ellis, 2011).
The first year following a separation or divorce is the most difficult; thus, making quick, decisive actions are critical to the well-being of the children (Cohen & Finzi-Dottan, 2005). The divorce process typically disrupts a child’s daily routine, which can cause stress and have a long-term effect on the child’s attachment to his or her parents (Sutherland, Altenhofen, & Biringen, 2012). Parental divorce can drastically alter the parent-child relationship, and in the long-term can impact the child who lived through it (Wallerstein, Lewis, & Rosenthal, 2013). Divorce also has an impact on the divorcing adults by completely changing their lives and daily routines which can be extremely stressful. One or both parents may need to find a new house or apartment. If one adult has been a stay-at-home caregiver, he or she might need to return to work to pay bills (Sutherland et al., 2012). With financial strain, increased stress, and tension between adults many children experience emotional, physical and mental health consequences that may go unnoticed by otherwise distracted parents (Wallerstein & Lewis, 2004). Kahl et al., (2007) reported that this overall stress felt by adults going through a divorce and the stress felt by the children is problematic in many ways, disrupting many areas of children’s lives, including social, economic, and academic.

The stress from a possible divorce can begin months or even years before the physical separation takes place as the relationship deteriorates to the point of deciding to separate. Kristjansson, Sigfusdottir, Allegrante, and Helgason (2009) surmised that the stress level of a family contemplating divorce could be quite high. Cooperation between parents at the time of separation or divorce can reduce the stress felt by the household, which can help to protect the parent-child attachment style. Stress associated with divorce influences all family members and adds strains on the relations among family members, often leading to additional family conflicts (Afifi, Huber & Ohs, 2006; Breivik & Olweus, 2006). When parents are separating, they may be distracted and become emotionally and physically unavailable to their children (Sutherland et al., 2012). It was reported by Taylor et al. (2011) that in times of trauma, some individuals become egocentric and fail to think of the needs of their children which also can add stress to the household. A divorce can be just one indicator of more underlying familial problems that need to be addressed (Huurre, Junkkari, & Aro, 2006).

A parent-child relationship is going to be more stable when there are support and love within the relationship (Wallerstein, et al., 2013). Most custody agreements leave the children in the mother’s care for a significant time. To improve mother-child relationships, some topics of conversation could include discussing good things about the father, the mother’s happiness, hobbies, and the mother’s hope for the future. Topics that can worsen the mother-child relationship include discussing negative aspects of the father, other men, and mom dating, mother’s sexual desires, financial worries, job
problems, or child support (Luedemann, Ehrenberg, & Hunter, 2006). Regardless of the family dynamics, the mother-daughter relationship has a higher emotional closeness compared with mother-son relationships (Beelmann & Schmidt-Denter, 2009). While having a great relationship with both parents is ideal, this is rarely the case following parental divorce. It is never appropriate to put the children in the middle of financial concerns and conflicts that are not age appropriate. Children may typically connect financial support to emotional involvement that could significantly affect their relationship with the noncustodial parent (Eldar-Avidan, Haj-Yahia, & Greenbaum, 2008).

Following a divorce, more than 50% of mothers become less responsive and less available to kids (Beelmann & Schmidt-Denter, 2009). Mothers have the challenging task of attempting to separate their feelings about the failed marriage and parenting practices. Wallerstein et al. (2013) stresses how crucial it is for mothers to remain ‘good moms,’ if they fail to do this, the children are more likely to be lonely, angry, and confused. The mother-child relationship typically has a profound influence on the father-child relationship. When the father distances himself or disappears from the child’s life, the mother has the difficult job of helping the child work through this rejection (Kenyon & Koerner, 2008; Koerner, Kenyon & Rankin, 2006; Wallerstein et al., 2013). However, with increased conflicts, Harkvoort, Bos, Val Balen, and Hermanns (2012) and Lansford, et al. (2006) found that, when the children experienced much conflict with their mother, they also had high reports of conflict with their father. This also was found to be similar to positive relationships as well. When children reported higher feelings of being accepted by their mother, they also tended to report higher feelings of being accepted by their father.

**Main Text**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if the parent’s stress level predicted parent-child relationship satisfaction as reported by the mothers. In this study, child gender and child age were also examplified to examine if either of these characteristics influenced the strength or direction of the relationship between parental stress and the reported satisfaction of the parent-child relationship. To attempt to ensure there were no other demographic characteristics that had influenced either parental stress or the parent-child relationship satisfaction, personal characteristics, such as the mother’s age, mother’s education, and the ethnicity of both mother and child, the separation status of the parents, and the amount of father involvement were examined. The characteristics that exhibited an influence on either variable were first entered as control variables.

A total of 17 participants for inclusion included: 1) being a mother to
a child between the ages 5-13; 2) being separated or divorced from the father within the past 24 months; 3) have at minimum shared custody (living with the child at least 50% of the time); and 4) cannot be in a serious romantic relationship or have a new romantic partner living with the child. If the mother had more than one child in the 5-13-year-old age range, she was instructed to choose one child to think of while completing the PSI-4-SF and the PCRI and indicate this child’s age and gender on the demographics questionnaire where indicated. Of the 17 responses that did meet the study inclusion criteria, descriptive statistics were examined for the nominal and continuous level variables. The gender of children was distributed between 10 males and 7 females. Most of the participants were 36-40 years old ($n = 6$, 35.3%). The largest proportion of the participants had obtained their Bachelor’s degree ($n = 7$, 41.2%). Most of the participants had only one child ($n = 8$, 47.1%). Children’s ages ranged from 5 years to 13 years, with an average age of 9.12 years ($SD = 2.57$). Household income ranged from $20,000.00 to $140,000.00, with an average of $58,875.00 ($SD = $32,626.93). The descriptive statistics of the respondents’ demographic characteristics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Demographical Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender of child</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of parent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school degree or equivalent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college but not degree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Due to rounding error, percentages may not always sum to 100%.

Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Variables

Parental stress scores ranged from 53 to 137, with an average of 83.24 ($SD = 21.24$). Parent-child relationship satisfaction scores were based on the
Communication subscale of the PCRI and ranged from 25 to 50, with an average of 39.76 (SD = 8.12). Descriptive statistics for the continuous variables of interest are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean, Standard Deviation, Range, Skewness, and Kurtosis for Continuous Variables (N = 17)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continuous Variables</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parental stress</td>
<td>53.00</td>
<td>137.00</td>
<td>83.24</td>
<td>21.24</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-child relationship</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>39.76</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The PSI-4-SF, created by Richard Abidin (2012), was utilized to help measure the amount stress the parent has in her life that pertains to the child, herself and overall life stressors. The PCRI created by A. Gerard (1994) was utilized to measure the parent’s feelings or attitudes about being a parent to his or her children. The demographic questionnaire included necessary information about the mother: their age, separation status (separated, legally separated, divorced), education level (less than high school degree, high school degree or equivalent, some college, but no degree, bachelor’s degree, or graduate degree), and ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, White/Caucasian, or other). Along with separation status, participants were asked how much time has passed since the separation or divorce. Custody arrangement details were also asked. Mothers selected the most appropriate way to describe their current custody arrangement: full custody, shared or joint custody, or if the father has no contact. Mothers estimated the time percentage of where the child spends their time (70% with the mother and 30% with the father for example). Questions about children that the mother answered included ethnicity (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, White/Caucasian, or other), the number of children in the household, and age and gender of each child. Because they were asked to think of only one child when completing the PSI-4-SF and the PCRI, participants were asked to indicate the age and gender of the child in mind when completing the surveys.

This study was conducted entirely on the online survey site, SurveyMonkey. Participants were recruited via advertising in the local school district’s electronic newsletter and on the district’s Facebook page. The study ran for approximately for six weeks. Data for this study were collected by working with a local school district to put an advertisement in their electronic newsletter. The data was collected from a total of 22 respondents. Once the data collection process was complete, the raw data were inputted into SPSS version 24.0 for Windows. Two participants did not complete major sections.
of the questionnaire and were subsequently removed. Three of the participants did not meet the inclusion criteria for children’s ages and time since the divorce. The final sample size consisted of 17 participants.

Spearman bivariate correlations were computed to determine if there were any significant relationships between the demographic and study variables. Parent age was significantly positively correlated with child’s age ($r = .62, p = .009$). No other correlations were significant. Therefore, parent age was included as a covariate in the main analyses. The correlation coefficients are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Correlations Between Demographic and Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Child’s age</th>
<th>Child gender</th>
<th>Parental stress</th>
<th>Parent-child relationship satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>.62*</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>-.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.32</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household income</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-.32</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05. Spearman correlations reported for ordinal variables (parent age and education).

Research Question 1: Is the stress level of recently separated or divorced custodial mothers associated with the reported parent-child relationship satisfaction?

The first analysis examined the relationship between parental stress and the parent-child relationship satisfaction using the scores from the PSI-4-SF and the PCRI. A Pearson correlation and a hierarchical linear regression were conducted to examine the relationship between parental stress and the quality of the parent-child relationship. Cohen’s standard (Cohen, 1988) was used to interpret the strength of the correlation coefficients, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represented a small association; coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a medium association, and coefficients above .50 represent a significant association.

Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a statistically significant negative relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction ($r = -.76, p < .001$). By using Cohen’s standard, the relationship between the variables represented a strong negative association. Therefore, the participants with higher parental stress scores tended to have lower scores for parent-child relationship satisfaction.

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to examine the predictive relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction while controlling for the parents age. Using the hierarchical linear regression method, the control variables were entered as the first step of the model. In the second step, the predictor (parental stress) was inputted. The change in $R^2$ between the two steps was noted.
Results of the first step of the regression model indicated that the demographic control variable did not have an effect on parent-child relationship satisfaction, \( (F(1, 15) = 0.90, p = .358, R^2 = .057) \). The \( R^2 \) value indicates that approximately 5.7% of the variance in parent-child relationship satisfaction scores can be explained by the control variable. The parents’ age was not a significant predictor in the model.

Results of the second step of the regression model indicated that the demographic variable and parental stress have a significant collective effect on parent-child relationship satisfaction, \( (F(2, 14) = 9.92, p = .002, R^2 = .586) \). The \( R^2 \) value indicates that approximately 58.6% of the variance in parent-child relationship satisfaction scores can be explained by the control variables and the inclusion of parental stress in the model. An additional 52.9% of the variance could be explained by the inclusion of parental stress in the model beyond what is accounted for by the demographic factors alone. Parental stress \( (B = -0.29, t = -4.23, p = .001) \) was a significant predictor in the model, such that with every one-unit increase in parental stress, parental-child relationship satisfaction decreased by 0.29 units. The null hypothesis \( (H_0) \) for research question one could be rejected. The results for the hierarchical linear regression are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Results for Regression with Parental Stress Predicting Parent-Child Relationship Satisfaction, While Controlling for Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>-1.39</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.95</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>.661</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental stress</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.75</td>
<td>-4.23</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Step One: \( F(1, 15) = 0.90, p = .358, R^2 = .057 \)
Step Two: \( F(2, 14) = 9.92, p = .002, R^2 = .586 \)

**Research Question 2:** Does the child’s gender moderate the relationship between parental stress and the reported parent-child relationship satisfaction?

The second analysis examined the moderating effect that the child’s gender had on the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction using the scores from the PSI-4-SF and the PCRI. A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to examine the moderating effect that the child’s gender had on the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. In this analysis, child gender was a dummy coded variable with 0 = female and 1 = male. Parental stress score was mean-centered to aid in interpretation of the analysis. Using the hierarchical linear regression method, the control variables were entered as the
first step of the model. In the second step, the predictor and interaction term were inputted into the model. The interaction term was created by multiplying the mean-centered parental stress score by the dummy-coded gender variable for each participant. The change in $R^2$ between the two steps was noted.

Results of the first step of the regression model indicated that the demographic control variable did not have an effect on parent-child relationship satisfaction, ($F(1, 15) = 0.90, p = .358, R^2 = .057$). The $R^2$ value indicates that approximately 5.7% of the variance in parent-child relationship satisfaction scores can be explained by the control variable. The parents age was not a significant predictor in the model.

Results of the second step of the regression model indicated that the demographic variable, parental stress, and parental stress*gender have a significant collective effect on parent-child relationship satisfaction, ($F(4, 12) = 7.84, p = .002, R^2 = .723$). The $R^2$ value indicates that approximately 72.3% of the variance in parent-child relationship satisfaction scores can be explained by the control variable and the inclusion of parental stress, gender, and the interaction term in the model. An additional 66.6% of the variance could be explained by the inclusion of parental stress in the model beyond what is accounted for by the demographic factors alone. Parental stress ($B = -0.24, t = -2.97, p = .012$) was a significant predictor in the model, such that with every one-unit increase in parental stress, parental-child relationship satisfaction decreased by 0.24 units. Child gender ($B = 6.16, t = 2.42, p = .032$) was a significant predictor in the model, such that the child’s gender being male (compared to female) increased parental-child relationship satisfaction by 6.16 units. The interaction term, parental stress*gender ($B = -0.03, t = -0.26, p = .802$), was not significant in the model, suggesting that gender was not a moderating factor in the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. The null hypothesis ($H_02$) for research question two could not be rejected. The results for the hierarchical linear regression are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Results for Regression with the Child’s Gender Moderating the Relationship between Parental Stress and Parent-Child Relationship Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>-1.39</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.95</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>.902</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental stress</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>-0.63</td>
<td>-2.97</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental stress*Gender</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Step One: $F(1, 15) = 0.90, p = .358, R^2 = .057$
Step Two: $F(4, 12) = 7.84, p = .002, R^2 = .723$

**Research Question 3**: Does the child’s age moderate the relationship between parental stress and the reported satisfaction of the parent-child relationship?

The third analysis examined the moderating effect that the child’s age has on the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction using the scores from the PSI-4-SF and the PCRI. A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to examine the moderating effect that the child’s age has on the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. Parental stress score and child’s age were mean-centered to aid in interpretation of the analysis. Using the hierarchical linear regression method, the control variables were entered as the first step of the model. In the second step, the predictor and interaction term were inputted into the model. The interaction term was created by multiplying the mean-centered parental stress score by the mean-centered child’s age variable for each participant. The change in $R^2$ between the two steps was noted.

Results of the first step of the regression model indicated that the demographic control variable did not have an effect on parent-child relationship satisfaction, $(F(1, 15) = 0.90, p = .358, R^2 = .057)$. The $R^2$ value indicates that approximately 5.7% of the variance in parent-child relationship satisfaction scores can be explained by the control variable. The parents age was not a significant predictor in the model.

Results of the second step of the regression model indicated that the demographic variable, parental stress, and parental stress*age have a significant collective effect on parent-child relationship satisfaction, $(F(4, 12) = 6.25, p = .006, R^2 = .676)$. The $R^2$ value indicates that approximately 67.6% of the variance in parent-child relationship satisfaction scores can be explained by the control variables and the inclusion of parental stress, age, and the interaction term in the model. An additional 61.9% of the variance could be explained by the inclusion of parental stress in the model beyond what is accounted for by the demographic factors alone. Parental stress ($B = -0.29, t = -4.43, p = .001$) was a significant predictor in the model, such that with every one-unit increase in parental stress, parental-child relationship satisfaction decreased by 0.29 units. The interaction term, parental stress*age ($B = -0.06, t = -1.73, p = .110$), was not significant in the model, suggesting that child’s age was not a moderating factor in the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. The null hypothesis ($H_{03}$) for research question three could not be rejected. The results for the hierarchical linear regression are presented in Table 6.
Table 6: Results for Regression with the Child’s Age Moderating the Relationship between Parental Stress and Parent-Child Relationship Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>-1.39</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.95</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent age</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>-0.68</td>
<td>.511</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental stress</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.75</td>
<td>-4.43</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child’s Age</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental stress*Age</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>-1.73</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Step One: $F(1, 15) = 0.90, p = .358, R^2 = .057$
Step Two: $F(4, 12) = 6.25, p = .006, R^2 = .676$

Based on the results of the Pearson correlation and regression performed for research question 1, the null hypothesis was rejected as there was a statistically significant relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. Concerning the second research question, the null hypothesis was not rejected as the interaction term, parental stress*gender, was not significant in the model. This suggests that gender was not a moderating factor in the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. For the third research question, the null hypothesis was not rejected as the interaction term, parental stress*age, was not significant in the model. This suggests that age was not a moderating factor in the relationship between parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction.

Conclusion

This study confirms prior assumptions that shortly following parental separation or divorce, a mother’s stress does negatively affect the parent-child relationship (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 2003). Following separation or divorce, more than 50% of mothers have been found to be less responsive to their child’s needs as well as being less physically available (Wallerstein et al., 2013). Hence, children who are also experiencing the trauma of their parents’ separation often must deal with their feelings by themselves which can impact the parent-child relationship on a permanent basis (Wallerstein, 2005; Wallerstein et al., 2013) as well as have a negative effect on the child’s attachment style (Faber & Whittenborn, 2010). Contrary to previous studies, this study found no influence of the child’s gender on the interaction of parental stress and parent-child relationship satisfaction. However, it was found that those mothers that had sons reported higher satisfaction with the parent-child relationship than those mother’s that had daughters. This finding was unexpected. Possibly, these males assume a spousal or parental type role with their mothers to help their mothers cope with divorce. This type of
developmental role is inappropriate but discussed in the literature. Further research into this finding could help researchers to know if this was an aberrant result or a consistent finding. This study showed that the satisfaction of the parent-child relationship diminishes with higher parental stress. Parents, in times of stress, may not notice that their child has a heightened need for attachment type behaviors (Faber & Whittenborn, 2010), which is of concern. If a parent is over-stressed for a long time and the child’s attachment needs are not being met, regardless of age, the parent-child relationship could suffer in the long-term.

Regarding recommendations, we believe that professionals that work with divorced families begin teaching the importance of stress management to maximize the parent-child relationship. Parents who are involved in a separation or divorce need to be warned about the effects of their stress on their child (Sommers-Flanagan & Barr, 2005). Also, comparing custodial mothers’ stress and its effect on father-child relationship to custodial fathers’ stress and effects on their parent-child relationships could provide valuable information regarding the differences between mothers and fathers and the development of their children after divorce. Regarding our results that mothers may have closer relationships to their sons after divorce, we believe that this area deserves further study. Parentification of children is not unusual in divorce and male children assuming a more influential role in the family or confidant to the mother may not be atypical, but it is problematic (Yarosh, Chew & Abowd, 2009). Divorce can be chaotic for families as they seek to find an appropriate balance. Role confusion and distortion can be the result of this chaos and stress in the family.

References:


The Effect of Mission and Vision on Organizational Performance within Private Universities in Kenya

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a2  
URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a2

Abstract

The origins of innovation is the ability to identify global trends and to assess their relevance for development. The first area of mapping could include a better understanding of these trends in higher education and innovation around the world. The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of mission and vision on organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. The specific research question is how do mission and vision affect organization performance in private universities in Kenya? This was a correlational study which adopted a positivist philosophy. The study population comprised of all the 17 private universities in Kenya accredited by Commission of University Education. The unit of analysis was the board of directors, vice chancellors, heads of departments (finance, sports, human resource, research, quality assurance) and academic deans (business school) which was 136. A census technique was used in the study with frequency distributions, percentages and means for descriptive statistical analysis while correlations and regression analyses were used for inferential statistics. The study found that, mission and vision explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance, $R^2 = .633$. The significance value in testing the reliability of the model for the relationship between Mission and Vision on organizational performance was $F(1, 122) = 208.929$, $p = 0.00$. Therefore, the model was found to be statistically significant in predicting the relationship between the study variables. The study found that for every unit change in mission and vision, organizational performance increases by 0.867 hence implying a positive impact of mission and vision on organizational performance. Based on the findings, the study concluded that there was a significant relationship between all the independent variables and organizational performance the dependent variable. The study also concluded
that policy and regulation positively moderated the relationship between mission and vision and organizational performance.

**Keywords:** Strategic leadership, mission, vision, organizational performance.

**Introduction**

The late 1980s period witnessed the emergence of studies of how mission statement influences the organization’s corporate image. Achua and Lussier (2016) defines organization mission statement as an enduring statement of purpose that distinguishes one organization from the other similar enterprises. It describes the business the organization pursues, and it is well explained and designed to provide many benefits to an organization, including providing direction and focus, forming the basis for objectives and strategies, inspiring positive emotions about the organization, ensuring unanimity of purpose, and helping resolve divergent views among managers (Yazhou, & Jian, 2011). There are two components in the mission statement; the core values and the core purpose. Muchiri (2010) submits that universities are therefore compelled to chart a new strategic direction guided by a shared vision, strategic thinking and agility, taking cognizance of an increasing importance of its position in a worldwide context led by strategic leaders for organizational effectiveness.

Globalization has brought changes in higher education with dimensions of diversification on services and products, provision of more heterogeneous services, new funding arrangements, increasing focus on accountability and performance, global networking, mobility, collaboration and strategic leadership issues (Lemaitre, 2009). These changes have confronted institutional management with the need to revise and specify institutional mission statements, assess impact of new sources of funding, meet requirements for accountability, consider participation and international competition and the requirements for national, regional and international integration for their success (Spendlove, 2015). There is no doubt that higher education is facing escalating expectations and demands while at the same time experiencing serious economic shortfalls.

Strategic leadership is traditionally defined as a series of decisions and activities by a top manager (CEOs, presidents, and senior executives) in which the past, the present, and the future of the organization coalesce (Boal, 2004). That strategic leadership designates the use of the strategy process as a systematic method of decision making that integrates reciprocal leadership into its concepts and practices. Morrill, (2010) investigated how strategic leadership is applied in the American universities by situating the phenomenon within the dimensions of human moral agency and identity. This marks a new epoch of contemporary study on strategic leadership in higher education. In
most universities and colleges, emphasis is put mainly on management but not on leadership which is understood as a process that involves setting directions, motivating others and coping with change.

According to Richard et al., (2013), defines organization performance as the actual outcomes and results of an organization as measured against its intended goals and objectives constitutes. It comprises three specific areas of the firm outcomes: financial performance such as profits, return on assets, return on investment; product market performance such as sales, market share, and shareholder return such as total shareholder return, economic value added. Fisher and Koch (2008) also concludes that, the American university presidential authority does not need remediation of the powers of the office is no longer attainable. They describe the effectiveness of presidents who have entrepreneurial characteristics and have knowledge of the power inherent in their role. They consider that when charisma, expertise, confidence and risk taking are combined with legitimate authority, then the result is transforming and entrepreneurial leadership. This study endeavors to examine how mission and vision as a construct of strategic leadership affect organization performance in private universities in Kenya.

Research Problem

Statistics show that, in the past one decade, 57% of youthful population from developing countries pursue university education outside their home countries (UNESCO, 2014). This implies that there is a high demand for quality university education among the youth in developing countries. The high demand for university education has presented private universities with high turnover of human capital, inadequate research resources, inadequate learning infrastructure and inadequate well trained human resource, inadequate resources to manage recurrent expenditure and quality control concerns. All these have a challenge to high performance of education outcomes as set by the Commission of University Education in Kenya (MoEST, 2015). Consequently, this attracted poor ranking in the world webometrics of universities (2016). Gaps have been identified in policy adherence and enforcement areas necessary to improve processes, university boards have not lived to the expectations hence management gaps on the best practices on human resource management and financial resource mobilization for a sustainable growth and survival and a dearth of research in leadership role in universities. The question is whether this failure is due to lack of strategic leadership and management? This study therefore sought to examine the effect of mission and vision on organizational performance with reference to private universities in Kenya.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

This study was underpinned by the strategic leadership theory as advanced by Ireland et al., (2013) which asserts that companies are reflections of their top managers and, the chief executive officers, and that the specific knowledge, experience, values and preferences of top managers are reflected not only in their decisions, but in their assessments of decision environments. Consequently, the significant choice options available to the CEO as the firm's key strategic leader, who often work as a ‘Lone Ranger’ in the organization primarily using top-down directives (Cannella & Monroe, 1997). As a principle when these choices resulted in financial success for the company, the key strategic leader was recognized widely as the “corporate Hercules” (Senge, 2014).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was derived from the strategic leadership theory as developed by Ireland and Hitt (2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Moderating Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vision and Mission</td>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Realistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>Financial Perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Clarity and Focus</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Cost Reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Appealing</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Outstanding enrolment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy and Regulation</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Profits/Surplus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Complain Policy</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Initiative/Innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Quality Assurance Policy</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Internal Business Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Resource Maintenance Policy</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Operations Timeliness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher

The study conceptualized a framework consisting of the dependent and independent variables to achieve the research objective (examining the effect of mission and vision on organizational performance in private universities in Kenya). The following null hypothesis derived from the research question guided the study:
Mission and vision do not affect the organizational performance in private universities in Kenya

The designing of the universities’ strategic direction assists to direct organizational processes in terms of strategy implementation and therefore serves to communicate the mission and vision, development of the strategic objectives and the formulation of the strategic plan (Ireland, et al., 2016).

Mission and vision

Bartkus, Glassman, and McAfee (2006) concludes that, mission and vision statements have a potential for influencing the organization’s performance. Ireland and Hitt, (2013) asserts that organizations do this by examining the changes that have already taken place. Subsequently, there is near certainty that a global economy is imminent and that its beginning had an impact on leadership practices today. Effective strategic leadership may prove to be one of the most critical ways for an organization to achieve superior or even satisfactory performance when confronting challenges of the global economy. Researchers agree therefore that university management need to define a strategic mission and vision statement which will have a transformative effect on the future of the institution.

Achua and Lussier (2016) defines organization mission statement as an enduring statement of purpose that distinguishes one organization from the other similar enterprises. It describes the business the organization pursues, and it is well explained and designed to provide many benefits to an organization, including providing direction and focus, forming the basis for objectives and strategies, inspiring positive emotions about the organization, ensuring unanimity of purpose, and helping resolve divergent views among managers (Yazhou, & Jian, 2011). There are two components in the mission statement that is, the core values and the core purpose. It should be noted that mission and vision sets the stage for an organizational foundation.

Ireland et al., (2016) asserts that a good mission statement should focus on the needs that the organization’s products/services are meeting. It specifies the business in which the organization intends to compete and the customers it intends to serve (customer segment). The mission statement should be broad but distinguishes the organization from the others. It should be specific but not to the extent of being rigid and difficult to operationalize. Palmer and Short (2008) noted that business schools use mission statements to present their values, motivate faculty, recruit students, and promote their accreditation aspirations. Crafting a compelling mission statement is expensive consuming relatively large quantities of institutional resources. The chances of crafting an effective mission increases when employees possess a strong focus of ethical standards that guide their behaviors as they strive to help the firm achieve its vision (Davis, Ruhe, Lee & Rajadhyasha, 2007). Any organization without a
proactive mission and vision is doomed in the light of competitive environment. Universities need very specific mission and vision statements which reflect the aspirations of their leaders aimed at achieving the objectives and goals as guided by the regulators.

Kantabutra and Avery (2010) argues that vision on the other hand is an ambitious view of the future that everyone within the organization can believe in and that is not readily attainable yet offers a better future than what now exists. That a good vision facilitates growth in an organization will make sense to the organization’s citizens and expand their minds in terms of possibilities while at the same time remaining feasible. Stid and Bradach, (2009) concludes that a clear vision determines very critical functions such as; enhancing decision making which facilitates people to determine what is important or trivial, appealing to followers on the fundamental needs, linking and rationalizing ways of doing things, proving meaning to work and establishing a standard of excellence. As Cassar (2010) affirms that it is critical to note that a firm’s vision statement reflect the values and aspirations that are intended to capture employees’ heart and mind and hopefully the stakeholders’ as well. This therefore denotes that the strategic leadership’s job is to ensure that the vision and mission of the organization are effectively communicated and adapted by all employees. Ireland, et al., (2015) affirms that strategic leaders are people located in different areas and levels of the firm using strategic management process to select strategic actions that help the firm to achieve its vision and fulfill its mission. This kind of vision creates cohesion among members of the organization (Ireland, et.al. 2016). This makes organizations to meet their set objectives.

Once the vision has been set, the organizational members can take up the banner by designing and executing strategies to accomplish that vision. As feedback goes back to the top management, they gain the insight necessary to review the organization’s vision and revise it for legitimacy and authenticity. In private universities, the top management will be focused on leveraging their human and financial capital while achieving stellar academic outcomes and excelling in co-curricular activities for the success of the institution (Kantabutra & Avery, 2010).

Samsung incorporated has been able to use a strong vision and purpose to surprise industry analysts by creating demand where there was none. Even though the industry at the time was saturated. A bold vision was the way to leverage this strategy but of key importance is the great group taking on the challenge set by the top management and as they identify their strengths and weaknesses work together like a well-oiled machine with the focus in the penultimate objective (Ireland & Hitt, 2015).

Thompson and Strickland, (2009) submits that an illuminating mission statement strategically, involves three critical components; customer needs or
what is being satisfied, customer segment or who is being satisfied and lastly the firm’s activities, technologies and competencies or how the firm create and deliver value to customers. Creating value to customers by defining a business by what to satisfy, whom to satisfy and how to produce the satisfaction identifies the substance of a firm. Leornard and Huang (2014) advances that mission statements have since become nearly universal paraphernalia in internal and external communications in both for and non-profit organizations, including colleges and universities. They are assumed to publicly affirm the organization’s purpose and goals to its internal and external stakeholders. Therefore, a university’s mission statement should communicate its own unique purpose and goals to both internal and external stakeholders.

The efficacy of a mission statement guides performance established by strategic planning and subsequent tactical initiatives purportedly designed to fulfill its goals. Leornard and Huang, (2014) asserts that a well-defined mission statement can unify and energize internal stakeholders while enhancing external stakeholders’ perceptions, expectations, and possible actions. Tangible evidence of a mission statement’s efficacy should be reflected in organizational performance data relevant to its stated goals. Unless a validated linkage can be demonstrated between the institution’s implemented programs and activities, little is revealed of the mission statement’s efficacy.

Strategic direction involves developing long-term vision of the firm’s intent. A long-term vision typically looks at least five to ten years in future. Leonard and Huang, (2014) asserts that the purpose and vision of an organization aligns the actions of people across the whole organization. A genuine vision is very active and all the people in the organization understand the vision and operate with it. It is also filled with drive and energy and people are proud to talk about their organization’s purpose and vision consequently positive outcomes is the result.

Organizational Performance

According to Richard et al., (2013) the actual outcomes and results of an organization as measured against its intended goals and objectives constitutes organizational performance. It comprises three specific areas of the firm outcomes: financial performance such as profits, return on assets, return on investment; product market performance such as sales, market share, and shareholder return such as total shareholder return, economic value added. Armstrong (2017) defines performance as the record of outcomes produced on a specified job function or activity during a specified period. Therefore, performance is measured in terms of output and outcome, profit, internal processes and procedures, organizational structures, employee attitudes, and
organizational responsiveness to the environment among others (William 2002).

In recent years, many organizations have attempted to manage organizational performance using the balanced scorecard methodology (Kaplan & Norton, 2001) where performance is tracked and measured in multiple dimensions such as: financial performance (e.g. shareholder return), customer service, social responsibility (e.g. corporate citizenship, community outreach) and employee stewardship. Balanced scorecard also identifies the measures used to monitor, review and assess performance (Armstrong, 2017). For an organization to succeed, this is contingent on the capability of its top managers, leaders and a sustainable organizational culture created by those leaders. The belief and value systems created by the leaders always influence its performance (Soebbing et al., 2015). According to Ssekakubo et al., (2015), leadership competencies have a direct positive effect and always improves employee performance. This is further affirmed by researchers who have focused on the relationship between the competencies of leaders and how their organizations perform in the world economies.

Policy and Regulation

The Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) has developed policy and legislative framework for education and training to realign the human capital development needs of the country to the Constitution and the Kenya Vision 2030. The Commission for University Education (CUE) is the main regulator of university education in Kenya. The policy on education and training therefore envisage a curriculum that successively develops the knowledge, skills, competencies, as well as lifelong learning dispositions of its citizens to meet the human capital needs of the country. Besides ensuring that learners are getting quality education and training, the Commission will consider such issues as the effectiveness of Government education policy implementation, strategic planning, resource mobilization and the management of resources by Ministries and institutions concerned with education and their management bodies. The goal is to develop a repertoire of skills and competencies necessary to achieve the objectives and goals embodied in the Constitution, 2010 and Kenya Vision 2030. The policy framework on education and training also envisages an education curriculum with parallel and complimentary tiers: academic, vocational and technical curricular. The Government will accordingly introduce a multi-track system to take care of the learning needs of all these categories of education and provide a window for the progression to higher education through any of the three tiers (MoEST, 2008).
METHODOLOGY

The study adopted positivism research philosophy which is premised on measurable observations that lead themselves to statistical analysis. The use of appropriate research philosophy helps researchers to eliminate unrelated factors from the research (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

The correlational design was used for this study because it has a wide range of variables and their interrelatedness (Creswell, 2014). The design was deemed suitable because this study focused on examining the effect mission and vision on organizational performance. The target population for this study included all the 17-chartered private universities with the Commission of University Education (CUE, 2016) particularly the board members, vice chancellors, academic deans (business schools) and heads of departments (finance, quality assurance, research, security, human resource and sports) as the unit of analysis with a total of 136 respondents.

The study adopted a census study in line with Israel (2009) and Rao (2015) recommendations that sample sizes of less than 200 are studied to cater for any non-response that may be encountered in the study. The estimated sample size of 136 respondents was distributed proportionate to the size of the population.

The main tool for data collection was questionnaire, preferred because it possesses a high rate of response and that the respondents can respond to the questions simultaneously hence saving time. Reliability was tested using the Cronbach’s alpha. This is a measure of internal consistency that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group and it is a measure of scale reliability. A reliability coefficient of at least 0.7 Cronbach Alpha was accepted in the study. In this study, the validity of the study was ascertained by the subject experts. The analysis was done by use of; descriptive statistics to present data into charts and tables with frequency distribution and percentages as well as means and standard deviations while; inferential statistics tested the hypothesised relationships between the independent and dependent variables which included correlation and regression analyses.

Diagnostic tests

Normality test was done in the study to determine if the data set is well-modelled by a normal distribution. In this study, normality tests were done using kurtosis and skewness. Skewness and kurtosis values that range from +/-3 (SE) are generally considered normal (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002). Multicollinearity was done in the study using the variance inflation factors (VIF) for each variable using traditional criteria employed in the study. Linearity - The study conducted linearity test to determine whether the relationship between each of the independent variable and dependent variable was linear or not. The study findings had the homoscedasticity test evaluated
for pairs of variables using the Levene statistic for the test of homogeneity of variances.

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The researcher sought to examine the effect of mission and vision on organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. Data was analyzed at two levels where the first level entailed determining the organization’s vision and vision. The second part involved analyzing results on the effect of mission and vision on organizational performance.

It analyzed the views of respondents on mission and vision using a table of means and standard deviations. A Likert scale data was used by rating the views in a scale. The mean results are therefore given on a scale interval where a mean value of up to 1 is strongly disagree; 1, disagree; 2, neutral; 3, agree; 4 and 5 is strongly agree. Findings on mission or/and vision are shown in Table 1. From the table majority of the respondents tended to agree with the statements as indicated by the mean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Means and Standard Deviations for Mission and Vision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>124</td>
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<tr>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
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<tr>
<td>123</td>
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<tr>
<td>123</td>
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<tr>
<td>121</td>
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<td>122</td>
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<td>122</td>
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<tr>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Correlation between Mission and Vision, and Organizational Performance

The findings are presented in Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The university’s vision and mission are realistic in light of its resources</td>
<td>0.570**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s vision and mission are clear to the employees</td>
<td>0.559**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mission and vision of the university define the focus of the institution</td>
<td>0.560**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are clearly defined strategies that support the mission, vision and ultimately the growth of the university</td>
<td>0.547**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s mission and vision are appealing to employees in working towards realizing them</td>
<td>0.611**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s programs, services, and general activities are consistent with its mission statement (growth – schools, departments, research centers, labs)</td>
<td>0.574**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s planning and budgetary priorities are consistent with and supportive of the mission.</td>
<td>0.637**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s actions and decisions demonstrate an understanding that it serves the public and has obligations to it.</td>
<td>0.671**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s objectives/goals are consistent with its mission and vision</td>
<td>0.596**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The implementation of the university’s mission and vision is based on long term objectives</td>
<td>0.515**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The study sought to determine the relationship between Mission and Vision and organizational performance using correlation analysis and found that the two variables were strongly correlated $r(123) = .796$, $p = .000$. The results are as shown in Table 3.

**One Way ANOVA on Mission and Vision**

A one-way ANOVA was carried out to establish if there was significant difference between the mean of Mission and Vision with number of years in leadership position at the private universities as well as the current leadership position. This was meant to determine if there was greater variability in the rating between groups and within groups. The tests established that the mean for Mission and Vision were the same for the number of years in leadership position $F (2, 113) = 0.308$, $p = 0.736$. The study also found out that the mean for Mission and Vision were the same for the current leadership position, $F (3, 121) = 0.372$, $p = 0.773$. Table 4 presents these results.

**Table 2 Correlation between Mission and Vision and Performance for All Items**

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

**Table 3 Correlation Analysis on Mission and Vision**

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

**Table 4 One Way ANOVA for Mission and Vision**
Assumptions for Regression on Mission and Vision

The study conducted the assumptions of regression to determine whether regression analysis was suitable in the study or not. The diagnostic tests conducted in the study included normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity tests.

Normality Test for Mission and Vision

Prior to analyzing data using inferential statistical techniques, the study checked the normality of the data set by looking at descriptive values such as skewness and kurtosis. The skewness values obtained in the study indicated that the scores are skewed as all are negatively skewed hence no case of excessive skewness in the data. The kurtosis values also fall within the range of 0 to +5, and therefore do not display excessive kurtosis as well. These results suggested that the normality assumption is not strictly violated in the study. Table 5 gives the results from the study.

Table 5 Normality Test for Mission and Vision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Skewness Std. Error</th>
<th>Kurtosis Statistic</th>
<th>Kurtosis Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The university’s vision and mission are realistic in light of its resources</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>-1.518</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>2.364</td>
<td>.431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s vision and mission are clear to the employees</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>-.872</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mission and vision of the university define the focus of the institution</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-1.259</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>1.948</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are clearly defined strategies that support the mission, vision and ultimately the growth of the university</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>-1.144</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>2.014</td>
<td>.438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s mission and vision are appealing to employees in working towards realizing them</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-.741</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s programs, services, and general activities are consistent with its mission statement (growth – schools, departments, research centers, labs)</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-1.260</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>1.866</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s planning and budgetary priorities are consistent with and supportive of the mission.</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>-.753</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s actions and decisions demonstrate an understanding that it serves the public and has obligations to it.</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-.871</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.890</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s objectives/goals are consistent with its mission and vision</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>-1.652</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>4.052</td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The implementation of the university’s mission and vision is based on long term objectives</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>-1.457</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>2.829</td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university’s strategic plan has influenced the growth and expansion of its programs</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-1.406</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>3.326</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Linearity Test for Mission and Vision

The study conducted linearity test to determine whether the relationship between Mission and Vision and organizational performance was linear or not. If the significant deviation from linearity is greater than 0.05, then the relationship between the independent variable is linearly dependent. If the significant deviation from linearity is less than 0.05, then the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is not linear. According to the results shown in Table 6, the significant deviation from linearity is 0.784 which is greater than 0.05 implying that there is a linear relationship between Mission and Vision and organizational performance.

Table 6 Linearity Test for Mission and Vision and Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational Performance * Mission or/and Vision</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups (Combined)</td>
<td>47.225</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.476</td>
<td>6.909</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linearly</td>
<td>42.080</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42.080</td>
<td>196.991</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviation from Linearity</td>
<td>5.145</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>19.225</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>214</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66.450</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Homoscedasticity Test for Mission and Vision

In this study, homoscedasticity refers to one of the assumptions of the study that the organizational performance gives similar amounts of variance across the range of regression values for Mission and Vision. In the study, the test for homoscedasticity requires that Mission and Vision as given in the regression equations be non-metric and the organizational performance be metric (interval or ordinal) which is the case for this study.

The study findings had the homoscedasticity test evaluated for pairs of variables using the Levene statistic for the test of homogeneity of variances. The results are then given as shown in Table 7. From the study findings of test for homogeneity, the probability associated with the Levene Statistic (<0.065) is more than the level of significance (0.05) testing at 1-tail test 5% significance level, the researcher concludes that the variance is homogeneous.

Table 7 Homoscedasticity Test for Mission and Vision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene Statistic</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multicollinearity Test for Mission and Vision

Multicollinearity is a state of very high intercorrelations or interassociations among the independent variables. Multicollinearity in the study was checked using the variance inflation factors (VIF). The VIF values of between 1 and 10 show that multicollinearity is not problematic in the study while VIF values of less than 1 and more than 10 indicate multicollinearity.
issues in the study. The findings obtained indicated that the VIF value for organization’s mission or/and vision is 2.269 which is between 1 and 10 and therefore multicollinearity was not problematic in the study. The findings are shown in Table 8.

**Table 8 Multicollinearity Test for Mission and Vision**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Organization’s Mission and Vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human Capital Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethical Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic and Financial Controls</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance

**Hypothesis Testing for Mission and Vision**

Regression analysis is a statistical method that deals with the formulation of mathematical model depicting relationship amongst variables which can be used for the prediction of values of the dependent variables, given the values of the independent variables. Based on linear regression model, the study sought to establish the effect of Mission and Vision on organizational performance. The following hypothesis was therefore tested:

*H₀₁: Mission and Vision does not affect the organizational performance in private universities in Kenya.*

The study found that Mission and Vision explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance, $R^2 = .633$. This implies that 63.3% of the proportion in organizational performance can be explained by Mission and Vision in private universities in Kenya. Other factors not covered by this study therefore contribute to 36.7%. Findings are as shown in Table 9.

**Table 9 Model Summary for Mission and Vision**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>.633</td>
<td>.630</td>
<td>.44879</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mission and Vision

The findings indicate that the significance value in testing the reliability of the model for the relationship between Mission and Vision on organizational performance was $F(1, 122) = 208.929, p = 0.00$. Therefore, the model is statistically significant in predicting the relationship between the study variables. Results are as presented in Table 10.
Table 10 ANOVA for Mission and Vision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>42.080</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42.080</td>
<td>208.929</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>24.370</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66.450</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
b. Predictors: (Constant), Mission and Vision

The study found that Mission and Vision significantly predicted organizational performance, \( \beta = .796, t(122) = 14.454, p = .000 \). This finding implied rejection of the null hypothesis since the p value was less than <.05 set by the study. The study therefore concluded that Mission and Vision significantly influences organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11 Coefficients for Mission and Vision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.344</td>
<td>.245</td>
<td>1.403</td>
<td>.163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission and Vision</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>14.454</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance

The findings obtained in the study imply that for every one-unit change in Mission and Vision, organizational performance increases by 0.867 hence implying a positive impact of Mission and Vision on organizational performance.

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The study found that, organization’s mission and vision explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance, \( R^2 = .633 \). This implies that 63.3% of the proportion in organizational performance can be explained by organization’s mission and/or vision in private universities in Kenya. The significance value in testing the reliability of the model for the relationship between Mission and Vision on organizational performance was \( F(1, 122) = 208.929, p = 0.00 \). Therefore, the model is statistically significant in predicting the relationship between the study variables. That for every one-unit change in organization’s mission and vision, organizational performance increases by 0.867 hence implying a positive impact of organization’s mission and vision on organizational performance.

Conclusion

Based on the findings and discussions of the study, the study concluded that organization’s mission and vision explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance. In addition, the study concluded that
for every one-unit change in organization’s mission and vision, organizational performance increases by 0.867 hence implying a positive impact of organization’s mission and vision on organizational performance.

**Recommendations**

The study determined that the universities’ planning and budgetary priorities were not highly consistent with and supportive of their missions and that the universities’ missions and vision were not highly appealing to employees in working towards realizing them. The study therefore recommends that the universities’ budgetary and planning priorities need to be aligned to their missions, in order to improve performance. Additionally, employees need to be trained as far as the universities’ missions and visions are concerned, in order for them to work towards their realization.

**References:**


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Demand for Education in Kenya: The Effect of School Uniform Cost on Access to Secondary Education

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a3 URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a3

Abstract

This paper examines the actual cost of school uniform by age, gender, class and type of school and how it influences pupils’ access to secondary education in Kenya. The study used correlational research design and targeted all the 26 secondary school principals and 23,275 household heads in Tharaka south Sub-county, Kenya. The sample size constituted all the 26 school principals and 393 household heads sampled using Yamane (1967) formulae. The data was collected from school principals using questionnaires and from household heads using interview guide. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics such as percentages, means and standard deviation as inferential statistics like correlation and t-test. Through data analysis, the study established that the cost of uniform for girls is 12% higher than that of boys. It also found that students in boarding schools spend more on school uniform compared to those in day schools at Ksh 4,779 and Ksh 4,143 respectively. The study also revealed a variation on cost of uniform in relation to class level where on average, a student in Form 1 spends Ksh 5,375 on uniform compared to those in Form 2 who spends Ksh 4,706, Form three Ksh 3,917 and Form four 4,325 respectively. Finally, the study established that, there is a relationship between the cost of school uniform and access to secondary education (r = 0.834, N=333, p<0. 001) implying that the cost of school uniform determines pupils chances to access secondary education in Kenya. The results lead to a recommendation that the government of Kenya in partnership with other educational stakeholders should subsidise the cost of school uniforms for the government achieve 100% transition rate from primary to secondary educations as envisioned in the policy of Free Day Secondary Education.

Keywords: Access, Uniform cost and Effect.
1. Introduction

The policy of school uniform has been of interest to scholars for a long time. This is as evidenced by many scholars who have attempted to explain the role of school uniform in relation to students’ performance, access to school and unifying factor in schools. For instance, Anderson (2002) asserted that in the United States the phrase “Dress right, act right” was heard often in schools in the 1950s and 1960s during campaigns to curb “juvenile delinquency.” Anderson, (2002) further alluded that in the 1950s, many school dress codes forbade girls from wearing slacks. According to Anderson, (2002) in the 1960s, many school administrators in the USA outlined the specifications of school uniform and banned several types of uniform. For instance, short skirts for girls were banned, blue jeans, motorcycle boots, and black leather jackets were also banned for boys because they were considered dangerous attire and linked to gangs.

According to Brunsma (2004), in the 1980s uniform policies progressively grew to become an area of concern for education policy makers under the Reagan administration after a disturbing shooting at a Baltimore public high school. The first public school to heavily publicize its uniform policy with the aim of increasing access to schools was Cherry Hill Elementary School in Baltimore, Maryland, in the fall of 1987 (Brunsma, 2004). The initial policy was put into practice based on the original idea that uniforms would relieve economic pressures on parents by reducing clothing costs and reducing the social pressures their children would face on a daily basis in school (Brunsma, 2004).

According to Mathison and Ross (2008), the first documented discussion regarding school uniforms as an option for public schools came from the Barry administration, when the Washington DC mayor Marion Barry began the discussion for a mandatory uniform policy. Barry proposed that a school-wide policy would foster school spirit and deter infiltration from unwanted outsiders. By 1989, five Baltimore Public schools had enacted a uniform policy. "In 1996, at the direction of President Clinton, the U.S. Department of Education published and disseminated a Manual of School Uniforms to all 16,000 schools in 1994; Long Beach, California became the first large urban school district in the United States to require all students from kindergarten through eighth grade to wear uniforms.

Despite the emphasis on the use of uniform in schools, scholars have cited school uniform as one of the direct cost associated with education (Schultz, 1993 & Basu, 1999). For instance, Schultz, (1993), asserted that the cost of uniform influences school enrolment. In his work, Bonke (2013) established that cost of school uniform influences access to school and he therefore recommended the need to lower the costs or subsidize schooling programmes in order to make education affordable. According to Bonke
(2013), in developing countries ancillary costs of education like school uniforms continue to impede education access. As a true reflection of Bonke (2013) observations, In Kenya, a program that provided free uniforms to students increased their attendance by 6.4 percentage points, buying 0.71 additional years of education per $100. Another Kenyan study showed that providing scholarships to cover school fees significantly increased attendance, causing 0.27 additional years of education per $100 spent (Bonke (2013)).

In a bid to relieve parents from the burden of paying school fees in line with EFA and MDG, the government of Kenya introduced a policy of Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE). This policy aimed at increasing access to secondary education as indicated in the Republic of Kenya, (2002b); MoEST, (2004, 2005) Sessional Paper No.1 of 2005 by then Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST). These documents underscored that the costs of secondary education were the main reason for low transition rate to secondary education. With the introduction of FSE policy, the cost of secondary education was expected to go down. However, despite the government intervention of making secondary education free in order to increase access to secondary education, the cost of education remained high because households are supposed to provide non-discretionary items such as school uniforms, sports uniforms, books, and stationery (Ohba, 2009). This study, therefore, sought to establish the cost of school uniform incurred by household in relation to age, gender, level of education, and type of school attended by learners and the extent to which cost of uniform influence access to secondary education.

2. Statement of the problem

The Kenyan government main intention is that all children access secondary education without discrimination in accordance with the United Nation’s charter of 1947 where every child has a right to education. The United Nation’s charter of 1947 prompted the government of Kenya to introduce Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE). The policy requires the households to meet other non-discretionary cost of education such as school uniform. However, after the introduction of FDSE in 2008, there is no evidence of a study conducted to establish the cost of education in relation to school uniform. This study therefore aimed at establishing the uniform cost differentials by age, gender, level of education, and type of school attended by learners and the extent to which cost of uniform influence access to secondary education in Kenya.
3. Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives
i. To determine uniform cost differentials by age and gender of the student in Kenya
ii. To establish uniform cost differentials by students level of education and category of school in Kenya
iii. To establish the influence of cost of school uniform on access to secondary education in Kenya.

4. Literature review

The provision of subsidized secondary education is an attempt to fulfil the Jomtien Declaration of 1990 (EFA) in which citizens are given an opportunity to explore their abilities to ensure equitable distribution of development. The initiatives saw two conferences being held in 1990, the Jomtien, Thailand followed by another in 2000 in Dakar Senegal. The two conferences advocated for suitable access to education as a development strategy and considered a literate population as key to overall development to any nation. The declarations gave the impetus to education in many countries to ensure that learning of all young adults was met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programme (MoEST, 2003).

In Kenya, under the subsidized secondary education, the government takes care of recurrent social cost (RSC) and capital/development social cost (CSC), which are both added together to give the total social cost (TSC) of education, that is TSC=RSC+ CSC. It takes care of teachers’ salary, tuition fee, examination fee, school development (physical facilities) and bursaries among other costs. Apart from the government, households are expected to meet the cost of uniform, supplementary books, meals, boarding fees, motivation fee and transport. In this case, the decision on who pays what is clearly defined and the responsibility of providing school uniform rests on households. This paper therefore sought to establish the amount spent on every students and the extent to which school uniform influences access to secondary education in Kenya.

Generally, several studies have been carried out to investigate the various aspect of school uniform. For instance, Draa (2005) conducted a quasi-experimental study in Ohio to determine the impact of implemented mandatory school uniform policies on academic achievement. The results indicated that there is a significant positive effects of school uniform on attendance, with little significant effects on graduation rates, and incoherent effects on reading and mathematics achievement.

In relation to the adoption of school uniform policy, Daugherty (2001), established that about 60% of schools that adopt uniform policies make them mandatory and the other 40% opt for the voluntary wearing of uniforms.
Daugherty (2001) further established that majority of the student body and about 70% of the faculty and staff wore the mandatory uniforms, however, as the school year came to an end, the involvement by the student body had dropped from majority to about 50%. Although the implementation of the voluntary uniform policy program only achieved some of its initially set goals of improving school safety, enhancing academics, and attendance, the school principal recommended that the school board adopt a policy of mandatory uniforms.

Other studies have examined the effect of reducing the cost of schooling by providing uniforms. For instance, Kremer et al. (2002b) examined the impact of uniforms among a bundle of goods provided to schools while Duflo et al. (2006) examined the impact of providing uniforms to older primary school students on dropout rates, teen marriage and childbearing. The two studies indicated that reducing the cost of schooling by providing uniforms among other inputs increases school participation.

5. Methodology

This study embraced correlational research design. According to Orodho (2003) correlational design analyses the relationship between variables with the aim of establishing the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In this case, this study sought to establish the relationship between the cost of uniform and access to secondary school.

The target population included all 23,275 household heads and 26 secondary school heads in Tharaka south sub county. The school principals were sampled using census techniques because the number of schools were few while the household heads were sampled using Yamane (1967) formulae as follows.

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + (Ne^2)} \]

Where; \( n \) = minimum desired sample size
\( N \) = the target population (23275)
\( e \) = degree of precision (5%)

Therefore, by substitution:

\[ n = \frac{23275}{1 + (23275 \times 0.05^2)} = 393 \text{ household heads.} \]

Yamane (1967) formulae gave a sample size of 393 household heads. To select the specific households to participate in the study, a list of households was made with the help of the area chief (Government Administrator at Ward level). The names of household heads were written in a piece of paper and then folded. This was to give all the household heads an equal chance to participate in the study. The folded papers were then picked up at random.
randomly using the pick-and-replacement method. That is, picking a paper, opening it and writing the name of the household down. The paper was folded and taken back again, after juggling another paper was picked. This ensured that the probability of picking a given household head remained equal throughout the exercise. For the school principals, the census technique was used where all the 26 public secondary school principals participated in the study.

6. Results

The demographic characteristics such as age, gender, class level and type of school were sought. The demographic data was of interest in order to establish whether transport cost differs by the characteristic of the student. The age distribution of the statements was as presented in Figure 1. (See appendix pp10)

Figure 1 indicates that the peak of the age of the students in the secondary is 16 years. This is an indication that, for both boys and girls, most of them are of age 16 years. The age distribution by gender mimics each other up to age 16 where they both sharply drop. However, for the boys, they drop up to age 18 and slightly rises up to age 19 and then drop again. For the case of girls, the number drops all through from age 16 up to age 21. This result points out that, there are more elderly girls in secondary schools compared to boys. This can be attributed to household chores and other cultural practices such as FGM and early pregnancies which mostly affects girls schooling compared to the boys.

On gender, the results are as shown in Figure 2. Which shows that at formative classes, that is form 1 and 2, the number of girls supersedes that of the boys. For instance, in form one; girls are more than boys at 53% and 47% respectively. In form 2, the number of girls is more than the number of boys at 68% and 32% respectively. However, at form three and four, the trend reverses and the number of boys surpasses the number of girls. In form three boys are more than the girls at 56% to 44% and in form four 53% and 47%. This is an indication that the dropout rate for girls is more than the drop out for the boys and the enrolment for girls is more than the enrolment for boys in lower classes.

The results in Figure 3 indicates that, most of the schools in Tharaka Sub-county are day schools as attested by 54% of school principals. The rest of the principals 31% and 15% indicated that they head Boarding schools as well as Day and Boarding school respectively. This implies that most of secondary schools in Tharaka South sub-county are day schools mostly established through Constituency Development Fund kitty.

On the actual uniform cost by gender, the results are as presented in Table 1 which indicates that girls’ uniform is costlier than the boys’ uniform.
For girls on average, a girl spends Ksh 5,094.73 and boys spend Ksh 4,035.75 on school uniform every year. This constitutes an average of 12% higher costs for the girls compared to the boys or Ksh 1059 per year. This shows that parents with girls in secondary schools spend more on school uniform for their children hence upscaling their unit cost.

Figure 4 shows that parents with children of age 13 spend less money on school uniform compared to parents with children in other age groups. However, at age 14-18, parents spend almost the same amount on school uniform. After age 18, school uniform cost sharply goes down up to age 19 and then increases to Ksh 6,500 at the age of 23 years. In Kenya, secondary school age going ranges from age 14-18 where school uniform seems to be the same ranging from Ksh 4,831 to Ksh 4,872.

In line with school category, the study established that students in boarding schools spend more money on uniform than those in day school. In day schools, the average expenditure on school uniform is Ksh 4,143 compared to Ksh 4,779 for those in boarding schools. This implies that children in boarding schools pay 8% higher on school uniform compared to the children in day schools.

When disaggregated by class as shown in Table 2, the study established that parents who have children in form one pay more on school uniform compared to those in other classes. On average a student in form 1 spends Ksh 5,375 on school uniform compared to parents in Form two who spend Ksh 4,706 Form 3 Ksh 3,917 and Form four Ksh 4,325. The form one uniform cost is up-scaled by the cost of school games uniform and the aspect of buying more pairs of uniform.

Correlational analysis was done to establish the relationship between age, gender and the cost of school uniform. The results are as presented in Table 3 which shows a positive strong correlation between the age of the students and cost of school uniform (r=858, N=401, p<0.001). This suggests that, younger students spend less money to buy school uniform compared to children of high ages. This may be attributed to body size; children outgrowing their school uniform at advanced levels of education which increases the chances of replacing school uniform faster than at early ages. On gender, the results show that there is a very strong correlation between gender and school uniform (r=824, N=401, P<0.001). The results suggest that parents who have girls in secondary schools in Tharaka South Sub County spend more money on uniform compared to the parents with the boys in the same locality.

A t-test was carried out to establish whether the differences in means for the school uniform among different types of school by chance. The T-test results in Table 4 shows that school type has a highly significant effect on school uniform as reflected in the mean value for the school uniform (t=14, 67 p<.0005). This means that, there is a statistically significant difference in the
cost of uniform for the students in day schools and in boarding schools. This difference is not by chance, an indication that those parents with children in boarding schools always spend more on uniform compared to the parents with children in day schools.

On the relationship between the cost of school uniform and access to secondary education, the results indicate that there is a strong correlation between the unit cost of education met by the household and enrolment ($r = 0.834, N=333, p<0.001$). This suggests that, the amount of money that parents spend to buy school uniform correlates with enrolment, implying that, the more the cost of uniform the more the probability of not enrolling children in secondary education.

The findings of this study mimics the work of a Committee constituted to establish the cost of uniform in Melbourne Australia (2007) which established that, parents with girls in secondary schools spends more money on uniform than the parents of the boys. Specifically, on average the cost of girl's uniform was $586.62 while for the boys the cost of uniform was $491.31, an indication that, the cost of the girl's uniform is 9% higher than that of the boys. In comparison, in Tharaka South Sub-County, the cost of uniform for the girls is 12% higher than the cost of uniform for the boys. This is an indication that the cost of education for the girls is higher in Tharaka south Sub-county than in Australia. The gender differences on uniform cost can typically be associated to girls buying more clothing that constitute school uniform than the boys and the aspect of the boys being more likely to buy more generic garments such as shirts and trousers.

6. Conclusion

Based on the foregoing discussion, it can be concluded that indeed there are cost differentials on school uniform with respect to students’ age, gender, class level and category of the school. On gender, the study established that the cost of uniform for girls is 12% higher than that of boys. It’s also concluded that students in boarding schools spend more money on uniform than those in day school at Ksh 4,779 and Ksh 4,143 respectively. The results also lead to conclusion that school uniform cost varies with class level where parents who have children in form one pay more on school uniform compared to those in other classes. On average, a student in Form 1 spends Ksh 5,375 on uniform compared to parents in Form two who spends Ksh 4,706 Form three, Ksh 3,917 and Form four 4,325. Finally, the study established that there is a correlation between the cost of education and access to secondary education.
7. Recommendation

- The study established that household on average spends Ksh 5,375 on uniform especially in form one. This study, therefore, recommends that government or other educational stakeholders should support buying of school uniform for the children joining secondary education in Form 1 as a way of increasing enrolment.

- The study established that girls spend more money on school uniform than boys. It is therefore recommended that the uniform for girls be subsidized by the government.

- Students in boarding schools spend more on uniform than those in day schools, this calls for the establishment of more day schools in order to encourage more students to enrol in those schools.

References


**Appendix 1 Figures**

**Figure 1 Age Distribution of Students by Gender**

**Figure 2 Gender Distributions of Students by Classes**
Figure 3 Category of secondary schools in Tharaka South Sub County

Figure 4 Mean school uniform cost by age of students

Table 1 School uniform by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>4035.75</td>
<td>3235.461</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>24000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>5094.73</td>
<td>5541.043</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>42000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Uniform cost by type of school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Day</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>4143.023</td>
<td>3670.183</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>14000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boarding</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>4779.966</td>
<td>5044.575</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>22000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Cost of school uniform by class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Form 1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5375.</td>
<td>4227.878</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>42000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 2</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>4706</td>
<td>4443.215</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>40000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 3</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>3917</td>
<td>3747.417</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>35000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 4</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4325</td>
<td>6527.333</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>40000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4: The relationship between school uniform cost and student’s age and gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of child</th>
<th>Child’s gender (1=female)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uniform</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.858**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.824*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>401</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

### Table 5: T-test on the cost of school uniform by category of school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of school variable</th>
<th>Day school (n=150)</th>
<th>Boarding (n=200)</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School uniform</td>
<td>M 4143.02 (3670)</td>
<td>M 5196.76 (7281)</td>
<td>14.67</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Impact of Suggested e-Activities via Social Networks on Improving the Linguistic Skills of Arabic Speakers of Other Languages

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a4  URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a4

Abstract
This study investigated the impact of using suggested e-activities via social networks (Facebook) in enhancing linguistic skills (reading comprehension skills) for Arabic Language learners who speak other languages in the Arabic for Speakers of Other Languages Centre at The World Islamic Sciences and Education University, Jordan. Participants of the study were Arabic Language learners who speak other languages who come to Jordan from different foreign countries to learn Arabic language. The researcher hypothesized that if these learners practiced e-activities via Facebook, their reading comprehension skills may be improved. For answering questions of the study, the researcher designed a pre-post reading comprehension skills test to determine the participants’ mastery for reading comprehension skills. Furthermore, she uploaded the e-activities on a Facebook account that were made available for all the participants of the study. Results revealed that the suggested e-activities via social networks media (Facebook) were effective in improving participants’ reading comprehension skills. Then the study recommended that social networks media could be utilized in improving other skills such as speaking and listening.

Keywords: Social Networks, E-activity, Linguistic skill, Arabic language, Learners, Speak other Languages.

1. Introduction and Background
Listening, speaking, reading and writing are the essential skills in every language but other researchers add another advanced skill such as literary appreciation. Furthermore, they entail main sub skills. Recent decades witnessed huge changes in teaching reading through the whole world because of results of modern studies and researches. The ability to comprehend written
material is the main factor in academic success for learners, as it eases understanding other subjects (Awartani, 2006).

Arabic language learners who speak other languages face difficulties and obstacles in their achievement and success. Furthermore, these difficulties result in weakness in direct comprehension and failure in Arabic learning (AlZayat, 1998). One of the essential factors that hinder learning Arabic language is linguistic problems and changes in mother tongue, voices, utterances and even tongue. For example, those students who come from Korea, Japan, China and other countries face difficulty in pronouncing and reading Arabic language because of the change of pronunciation and also in their mother tongues, so Chinese learners face weakness in that field except others (AlQamati, 1986).

Another reason relies to Arabic language learners who speak other languages, is that they can not read the Holy Quran easily because they do not read Allah’s Holy Book and the Prophetic Sunnah. In addition, there are problems concerning utterances for Arabic sounds such as sounds of throat (the highest throat, the middle throat and lowest throat).

So learners get confused and pronounce Alein into Hamzah, Alghein into GHaa, and Alqaaf into Kaaf. Furthermore, foreigner students listen to voices and sounds which he/she did not hear or pronounce before so they face and experience different kinds of syllables, toning and soundtracks and even audio listening devices did not use to manipulate them, then these kinds of learners face difficulties in pronunciation and reading, (Abdullah, 2007).

Through reviewing literature in the field of teaching Arabic linguistic skills for Arabic language learners who speak other languages, it becomes apparent that these learners experience low levels in practicing these skills. One of the prominent authors is Toeima. He was interested in the field and clarifying methods utilized in this branch of teaching and learning for Arabic language learners who speak other languages. Also, it depends on Arabic and foreign studies preceded it and many authors contributed in stating linguistic skills for those who speak Arabic and non-Arabic speakers, (Toeima, 1984).

As Arabic structure of syllables is simple, its vocabulary constitutes of simple syllables that disconnects between its consonants and vowels, the relationship between letters and diacritics of the language and its sound is clear and steady because the letter in Arabic language represents a single sound not many sounds as in many languages such as English language (cat, car, call, care). For all these reasons, the ability for accepting accurate and quick reading is easy and fast as in other similar languages (Aro & Wimmer, 2003; Seymour, 2003) This, also, happens in reading multi-syllable vocabulary or even long meaningless vocabulary (Saiegh-Haddad & Geva, 2008).
The Arabic alphabetic form is recognized via orthographic clarity (Liberman et al. 1980) this means that the relationship between vocabulary shape and its pronunciation is clear and steady. So, this advantage contributes rapidly in pronouncing vocabulary in one context but in another context, it contributes greatly in the strategy of voice structure with tremendous effectiveness (Al Mannai & Everatt, 2005).

As for reading sub-skills; it means identifying written symbols, comprehending, interpreting, criticizing and utilizing what these symbols indicate. Learning reading follows listening and speaking but other scholars mentioned that it follows listening skill, (AlNaqa,1983)

Through reviewing some of researches, reading purposes can be summarized as following:
1- Pronouncing the text correctly even it is aloud or silent reading.
2- Comprehending the text and subtracting its general ideas.
3- Mastering the word in aloud reading efficiently and speedy in silent one.
4- Mastering comprehension via interpreting and analyzing.
5- Criticizing and assessing, (Elayan,1982).

Reading through practicing is divided into two types: Silent reading; Via this kind the reader depends on his eyes and mind only as he looks at the text and grasps what he reads in his mind without pronouncing or whispering or even moving his tongue or lips (Stanovich, 2000). Furthermore, this kind is quick and it is needed in life for achieving goals and it is required for comprehending and grasping as there is no effort for pronunciation or its restriction, (Abdullah,2012). Aloud reading; means changing written symbols into sound symbols through pronouncing with proper practices and utterances. This type consumes time more than silent one, via it, learners could earn correct pronunciation and impressive practices and has its needs that affect it , ( Madkour,2006).

Concerning reading skills, the recent study utilized only five of them to be enhanced for Arabic language learners who speak other languages;
1- Recognizing new meanings for one word.
2- Recognizing new words for one meaning.
3- Classifying words according to synonyms and antonyms.
4- Extracting ideas through written texts.
5- Determining general meaning via reading texts, (AlHallaq,2010).
6- Considering learning reading. Kang(2008) has provided evidence that learners involved in the e-reading process can be more accurate in their comprehension abilities than they are while using traditional reading methods. Kang found that e-learners might require more time than learners using traditional media in order to break down and analyze e-texts; however, their accuracy in
locating specific information was superior to learners using paper versions containing the same information. In this case, they argue that online reading comprehension is higher than traditional reading comprehension.

So, the recent study tries to utilize using suggested e-activities via social networks media specially to improve linguistic skills, specifically reading comprehension, for Arabic language learners who speak other languages.

For surfing previous studies about reading on the internet, the researcher did not find Arabic studies in the field of teaching Arabic for Arabic language learners who speak other languages. On the contrary, she found studies that improved EFL reading skills such as Hamed’s (2016) study which utilized web-based reading MOODLE to enhance reading comprehension skills for the third year reparatoriy institute pupils. In the same track, she found other studies that utilized social media in improving other skills such as (Al.Omdah,2017) who utilized Facebook and Twitter in improving social oral skills via A MOODLE.

In the age of internet, social interaction and engagement has evolved. Social media has become an integral avenue of social interaction. Given that engagement with peers is an important component to student success in higher education (Thalluri, 2014), Contemporary teaching methods have been adapted to include social media, specifically the Facebook, a very popular networking website amongst all age groups. In order to maximise the potential of Facebook for collaboration and interactivity, various universities have attempted to incorporate it in their learning and teaching approaches. Education, medicine, pharmacy, medical radiation, veterinary students and library users have reported using Facebook in learning (Ellison, 2007; Cain, 2008; Thompson, 2008).

The real and potential benefits of Facebook are documented. It presents a relaxed, accessible, friendly and comfortable environment that promotes collaboration, social exchange of knowledge/ideas, and student engagement in learning outside the classroom (Hendrix, 2009). In the same track, technologies used in learning may promote a social constructivist educational approach which is student focused, highlighting open dialogue and collaborative construction of knowledge (Whittaker, 2013).

On the other hand, the educational benefits of Facebook were researched by many scholars. For example, Hew (2011) concluded that there are very much educational values and that their applications are not limited to staying connected with others. Wise (2011) corroborated this view and mentioned that Facebook promotes social and academic engagement. Furthermore, this new digital paradigm is changing how we relate to society.
In the midst of proliferating social connected devices and websites, there are feelings of isolation and loneliness (Madden, 2013).

The need to provide guidelines for its use is actually stated for university students who already use platforms as they are accessible, quick and convenient, and there is a real potential for its application on learning and teaching provided that it is carefully and appropriately structured (Ponce, 2013). Some researchers such as Gabal (2017) utilized activities-based on social networking sites in enhancing social oral skills for Arabic language learners who speak other languages in al-Azhar University who come from different Islamic countries.

1.1. Problem Statement

Through reviewing the literature, it becomes apparent for the researcher that a great number of researchers dealt with social media and others dealt with linguistic skills stated in reading comprehension. In the same trend, the researcher noticed that Arabic language learners who speak other languages have lowness in linguistic skills. So, she strengthened the sense of the problem. A pilot study was carried out, by the researcher, for a sample of ASOL Center WISE University. The results are shown in Table 1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Students’ Achievement Level on the Reading Comprehension Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Syllable reading</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test marks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results in table (1) indicate that the sample’s mean score on the reading comprehension test is below the average score (50%). So, results indicate that the students’ achievement in reading comprehension is weak. This showed that students lacked the necessary skills to handle the reading passage. Therefore, it was essential to study this problem and find a proper treatment in order to provide the learners with the basic skills to deal with the text they handle for better achievement and pleasure. Therefore, the researcher suggested utilizing e-activities via social networks media to improve linguistic skills (reading comprehension) for Arabic language learners who speak other languages.

1.2. Questions

In order to tackle the problem of students who lacked the necessary skills to handle the reading passage, the present study attempted to answer the following main questions:
What is the impact of using e-activities via social networks media to improve the reading comprehension skill for Arabic language learners who speak other languages?

For research purposes this main question can be subdivided into the following sub-questions:

1. What are the required reading comprehension skills for Arabic language learners who speak other languages?

2. How far do the Arabic language learners who speak other languages master reading comprehension skills?

3. What are the features of using e-activities via social networks media to improve the reading comprehension skill for Arabic language learners who speak other languages?

4. What is the impact of the suggested e-activities via social networks media to improve the reading comprehension skill of Arabic language learners who speak other languages?

2. Methodology

2.1. Design

The current study employed the quasi-experimental design in terms of dividing the participants of the study into two groups, an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group was taught using the suggested e-activities via social networks media (Facebook) but the control group was taught via the traditional method.

2.2. Purposes

This study attempted to:

1. Identify the reading comprehension skills necessary for Arabic language learners who speak other languages.

2. Assess the current level of Arabic language learners who speak other languages in the identified reading comprehension skills.

3. Determine the effectiveness of using the suggested e-activities via social networks media to improve the reading comprehension skill of Arabic language learners who speak other languages.

2.3. Community and participants

For the purpose of the study, the foreign students at the Arabic for Speakers of Other Languages Centre of Languages at WISE University were chosen from the Jordanian Universities.
2.4. Delimitations
This study was limited to:
1. A sample of the Arabic language learners who speak other languages in the Center of Languages at Yarmouk University.
2. Some linguistic skills (reading comprehension skills) were utilized for Arabic language learners who speak other languages.

2.5. Instruments
The researcher used the following instruments to tackle the problem of the study:
1. A reading comprehension skills questionnaire to determine the most important reading comprehension skills for the Arabic language learners who speak other languages.
2. A pre-post reading comprehension skills test for the Arabic language learners who speak other languages designed by the researcher to assess participants' skills.

2.6. Program
It was a collection of e-activities uploaded on Facebook account to develop reading comprehension skills.

2.7. Study Importance
Few studies have been conducted in the same track in general, and on the reading comprehension skills in particular. There has also been only limited research in the Arabic context in general, and in the Jordanian context in particular. Therefore, the current research is unique since it examines the impact of suggested e-activities via social networks (Facebook) to improve the reading comprehension skills for Arabic language learners who speak other languages.

2.8. Procedures
In order to answer the questions of the study, the study proceeded according to the following steps:
1. Reviewing the literature and the previous studies related to the features of e-activities, social networks (Facebook) linguistic skills (reading comprehension) for Arabic language learners who speak other languages.
2. Randomly choosing the sample of the study and dividing it into an experimental group and a control group.
3. Designing, the pre-post reading comprehension skills’ tests then presenting them to a jury for verifying their validity and suitability for the sample.
4. Identifying and modifying the most appropriate items of the pre-post reading comprehension skills’ tests according to the jury's panel opinions and using only one test.

5. Applying the aforementioned test to determine its reliability.

6. Administering the above mentioned test as pre administration for both the experimental group and the control group.

9. Designing the Facebook e-activities and presenting them to a jury to identify their suitability of them for the reading comprehension skills, participants’ level and the aims of the program in general.

12. Modifying the program according to the jury’s opinions.

13. Conducting the program to the experimental group on Facebook and conducting the same program for the control group via regular method.

14. Administering the above mentioned test as post administration for both the experimental group and the control group after the program.

15. Scoring and treating the data statistically.

16. Presenting summary, results, conclusion, and recommendation.

3. Results

The researcher used the SPSS statistical package to calculate means, standard deviation of the score. The "t" test was used to determine differences between the mean scores of the students in both groups on the pre-post reading comprehension test.

For answering questions of the study, the t-test for independent and dependent groups was used. Results are shown in Table 2,below:

Table 2
T-Test of the Post Administration of the Pre-Post Reading Comprehension Test Comparing the Experimental and the Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Test Dimensions</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing new meanings for one word.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>5.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing new words for one meaning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>4.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classifying words according to synonyms and antonyms.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>4.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extracting ideas through written texts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.494</td>
<td>3.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determining general meaning via read texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>.987</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.591</td>
<td>1.787</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>78</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>2.375</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>1.446</td>
<td>7.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results in Table 2 showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in all the reading comprehension sub skills. A closer look at table revealed that (recognizing new meanings for one word, recognizing new words for one meaning, classifying words according to synonyms and antonyms, extracting ideas through written texts were the most improved sub skills (i.e. mean= 2.15, 2.18, 2.28 & 1.85). On the other hand, Determining general meaning via read texts was the least improved sub skill (mean =1.73). However, all differences between the experimental and the control group were significant at 0.05 level. This means that the social networks among other variables not measured by this study-was effective in enhancing the students’ reading comprehension skills.

4. Discussion

Firstly, the researcher has benefitted much from the literature review in carrying out his study in general and especially in building up the study questions, hypotheses, instruments, procedures of the study. As for the first result of this study, which is "there is a statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group (students who were taught by the suggested e-activities via social networks me specifically Facebook) and the mean score of the control group (students who were taught by the regular method) on the overall reading comprehension skills on social networks media post test in favor of the experimental group."

The study asserted the importance of using social networks media for practicing reading in classes of Arabic for Speakers of Other Languages. It also showed the impact of the social networks media, specifically Facebook, in improving the participants’ reading comprehension skills.

Suggestions for further research:
In light of the results of the current study, the researcher suggested the following researches:

1. Applying the suggested e-activities via social networks media to different stages such as primary, secondary and college.

2. Investigating factors that affect the students reading on the social networks media such as; language proficiency, background knowledge, motivation, age and gender.

Analyzing the relation between the students’ learning style and their preference for learning on the social networks media.
References:


17. Mayor, A. (2017). The impact of different types of interaction in the social networks (Facebook and Twitter) in the social networks of the 13th scientific conference of the Jordanian Association for Education Technology: Education technology trends and issues contemporary meeting in the period 11-12 / 4 2012.
Human Capital Development as a Requisite for Organizational Performance Within Private Universities in Kenya

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a5  
URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a5

Abstract

Sub-Saharan Africa trails other regions in the realm of key human development indicators, produces less than 1 percent of the global research output despite having 12.5 percent of the global population. If the region is to improve on its human capital development indicators, it must embrace action research in addressing the many developmental challenges facing it. The purpose of the study was to examine human capital development as a requisite for organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. The research question was how does human capital affect organization performance in private universities in Kenya? This was a correlational study which adopted a positivist research philosophy. The study population comprised of all the 17 private universities in Kenya accredited by Commission of University Education. A census technique was used in the study with frequency distributions, percentages and means were used in descriptive statistical analysis while, correlations and regression analysis were used for inferential statistics. The study found that human capital development explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance, $R^2 = .515$. Human capital development significantly predicted organizational performance, $\beta = .718$, $t(122) = 11.336$, $p = .000$. The study concluded that there was a significant relationship between human capital development and organizational performance the dependent variable.

Keywords: Strategic leadership, human capital, high performance, work force, indicators.
Introduction

The 21st century is witnessing the largest period of considerable transformation in education ever experienced by any civilization. The new information age that will test future existence of schooling and the thinking orientation. Universities need clear strategic plans that focus on practical applications and include comprehensive roadmaps for moving research from the lab to the market place to be innovative. They also need to define how best to recruit, retain, and prepare future manpower. The changes experienced in higher education is a global phenomenon because of expansion in the sector due to population increase. It is comprised of diversification of services and products, provision of more heterogeneous student government, new funding arrangements, increasing focus on accountability and performance, global networking, mobility, collaboration and strategic leadership issues (Lemaitre, 2009).

Human capital can be defined as the sum of a person’s knowledge and skills that the organization can use to further its objectives and goals (Ireland & Hitt, 2015). The knowledge, skills, competencies and other attributes embodied in individuals or groups of individuals acquired during their life and used to produce goods, services or ideas in market environment are very critical for any organization. Therefore, the aggregate human capital of an economy, is determined by the quality and level of national educational standards. In most universities and colleges, emphasis is put mainly on management but not on leadership which is understood as a process that involves setting directions, motivating others and coping with change. Morrill (2010) further emphasizes that, it requires integrative and systematic thinking, quantitative reasoning, collaborative decision making, effective communication, sensitivity to narratives and values, and a capacity to work in structured group processes.

Expansion of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa was possible in the past only through state universities, which had a near monopoly in providing higher education in African countries during the post-independence period. The financial crisis of the state compromised its ability to fund an expansion foundation of higher education in Africa. The market friendly reforms and deregulation policies initiated under the structural programmes, the privatization of public sector units, and the encouragement of the private sector in the context of the globalization process created a motivating environment for the emergence of the private higher education sector in Africa (Varghese, 2006). The opening up of a market economy (globalization) has partly contributed to an increasing number of private universities in Africa among others, absorb the spill-over from the pool of fully qualified but unsuccessful applicants to state universities and to offer a limited range of programmes which are market driven (Sawyer, 2004). These challenges
motivated the examination of how human capital development affects organizational performance in private schools in Kenya.

**Research Problem**

In the past one decade, statistics show a big number of youthful population from developing countries pursue tertiary education outside their home countries (UNESCO, 2014). This implies that there is a high demand for university education among the youth in developing countries. In Kenya, the high demand for university education piles pressure on public universities leading to the establishment of private universities to accommodate students who miss opportunities in public universities. Based on the global webometric ranking of universities (2016), private universities in Kenya were not competitive and this low ranking begs the question whether it was due to poor leadership to hire quality high performing human resource because the strategic leadership theory which underpins this study holds that organizations are reflections of their top executives. The question is whether this failure is due to lack of human capital development in strategic leadership? This study therefore sought to examine human capital development as a requisite for organizational performance within private universities in Kenya.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

The theoretical orientation of the study was based on the strategic leadership theory which asserts that companies are reflections of their top managers and, the chief executive officers, and that the specific knowledge, experience, values and preferences of top managers as reflected in their assessments of decision environments (Ireland *et al.*, 2013).

**Conceptual Framework**

A conceptual framework is the researcher’s understanding of how the variables in the study associate with each other. It is the researcher’s “map” in pursuing the investigation. The conceptual framework for this study was derived from the strategic leadership theory as developed by Ireland and Hitt (2013).
The following null hypothesis derived from the research question guided the study:

*H₀₁ Development of human capital does not affect organizational performance in private universities in Kenya*

According to Ireland and Hitt, (2013), human capital competencies are exhibited by the workforce in terms of knowledge and skills in an organization. Strategic leaders view organizational workforce as a pivotal resource that forms the building block for the core competencies through which competitive advantages are exploited successfully.

**Developing Human Capital**

Organizations compete for market access and dominance in the global arena of their products, services and resources and this can only be realized with a well capacitated human resource with skills like superior customer care and retention, marketing forecast, sales and technological savviness. This will give an organization a competitive edge over the competition. A motivated human resource is the beginning of an organizational success because employees have benefits such as; stock options, bonuses, good medical schemes and retirement packages (Truss, Mankin, & Kelliher, 2012). Consequently, this study will examine the contribution of human capital as the most valuable resource in universities’ growth and success.

Knowledge attracts superior intellectual skills to individuals, thus considering their productivity and efficiency potential to develop activities according to the human capital theory (Lemieux, 2006). Past studies have established that the variables of human capital and social capital are strongly and positively correlated with organizational performance (Dimov & Shepherd, 2005). Essentially organizations flourish when its human resource
empowered and motivated. The positive outcomes will just exhibit themselves in staff responsiveness to institutional activities.

An assessment of how organizational performance is designed, is critical in comprehending how to gauge the success of organizations, recognizing the fundamental role of the cognitive ability of the top executive (Felício, Couto & Caiado, 2014). The other factors of human capital and social capital are critical in providing building blocks for the success but do not directly control organizational performance. Key components like job experience, management experience and prior entrepreneurial experience are associated to organizational action (Dimov and Shepherd, 2005).

An organization’s management team must take cognizance of the fact that modern institutions change so fast that everything is dependent on its human capital adaptability (Kamukama, Ahiauzu & Ntayi, 2010). This implies that even university boards’ performance of their roles is dependent on the human capital residing in people in the organizations. It confirms how central the role of human capital is to the success of the organization.

**Human Capital**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Professional proficiency</th>
<th>Cognitive ability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Hypothesized model of causal structure linking human capital and performance**

Source: Ireland et al., (2016).

An organization’s human capital is the most important resource of a sustained competitive advantage (Hitt et al., 2016) and therefore investments in the human capital of the workforce may increase employee productivity and financial results. The knowledge, skills and abilities as possessed by organizational employees (Felício, Couto and Caiado (2014), is a critical valuable resource that drives profit generation. Lim, Chan and Dallimore, (2009) submits that organizations secure, develop, reward and retain their key talents and human capital to nurture knowledge-based competency and to improve productivity. As a consequent, Ployhart, van-Iddekinge and Mackenzie (2011) argues that the dimension and reporting of human capital
stock, flow and quality is essential to the effective management of the critical resource (Beattie & Smith, 2010). Managers who have appropriate aptitude of organizational human resource often makes informed decisions to leverage the knowledge, skills and abilities of employees to get a competitive advantage. Universities need capable and competent leaders to manage human capital as many studies have demonstrated to improve performance.

Huselid and Becker (2011) submits that a sustainable competitive advantage is achievable when, organizations adopt the best human resource practices to manage their valuable and talented employees. High-performance human resource practice is a management approach that integrates different set of HR management practices to improve business performance and Gurbuz, (2009) adds that, it is also known as best HR management practices and progressive HR management.

Organizations that implement best practices often achieves better performance in service delivery (Boxall & Purcell, 2003). Khasawneh and Alzawahreh, (2012) although there is no consensus about high-performance, HR practices have been used by majority of researchers as high-performance HR practices; extensive training (Wei, Han & Hsu, 2010), performance management (Huselid & Becker, 2011; Posthuma, Campion, Masimova & Campion, 2013), performance appraisal (Posthuma et al., 2013), performance-based compensation (Gupta & Singh, 2010; Gurbuz, 2009; Huselid & Becker, 2011; Wei et al., 2010), empowerment (Gupta & Singh, 2010; Gurbuz, 2009) and competency development (Gupta & Singh, 2010). The high performance of HR in organizations is only sustainable through a progressive transformational management outfit which is strategic leadership to create change in the fortunes based on the objectives and goals.

According to Standa, (2007) visionary and creative leadership is critical to the transformation of higher education. Further, it should be noted that reforming leadership, governance and management systems of each institution should take precedence and recommended that administrative and management structures of the universities should be evaluated and restructured to create efficient, effective, responsive and functional structures to avoid wastage of resources, duplicated responsibilities and overlapping mandates where members of different levels are members at next level and to institute checks and balances. Good governance creates partnerships and participation to represent proactivity. Choi and Lee (2013) adds that the authority to make decisions should be delegated to operational units (schools, institutes and departments). The hiring of deans, directors of institutes, heads of departments, administrators and managers for the operational units should be done competitively via meritocracy at all levels and remuneration be pegged to competence and performance. This takes cognizance of meritocracy to mitigate hiring of mediocre workforce.
Breakwell and Tytherleigh, (2010) found evidence for the importance of vice chancellors’ characteristics for institutional performance to be limited but support the notion that whilst the performance of a university may be molded by the characteristics of its leader, most of the variability in university performance is explained by non-leadership factors. Many scholars attest to this fact because VC’s should be all rounded managers of the university (Wei & Lau, 2010). According to Absar, Nimalathasan and Jilani (2010), business performance is dependent on the skill, knowledge and experience of the employees. Efficient and unique human pool helps the organization to achieve this goal through resource utilization effectiveness, innovation, employees and customers’ satisfaction and better quality of products or services.

According to Nel and Beudeker (2009), human capital is the totality of competencies within the entire workforce in terms of knowledge and skills. Strategic leaders view organizational workforce as a crucial resource and forms the building block on the core competencies through which competitive advantages are exploited successfully. Significant investments will be obligatory for the organization to stem full competitive advantages from its human capital in the global economy. Economists contend that these investments are critical to strong long-term growth in modern economies that depend on knowledge, skills and information technology. Consistent research and systematic work on the productivity of knowledge and workers, enhances the organizations’ ability to perform successfully. Employees appreciate the opportunity to learn continuously and feel greater involvement with their community when encouraged to expand their knowledge base. Developing employees result in a motivated and well educated and skilled workforce which contributes to organization success.

Organizational Performance

Armstrong (2017) defines performance as the record of outcomes produced on a specified job function or activity during a specified period. Consequently, performance is measured in terms of output and outcome, profit, internal processes and procedures, organizational structures, employee attitudes, and organizational responsiveness to the environment among others. The capabilities and skills leaders should employ must contain mentoring and coaching, leading and motivating, problem solving and decision making, communicating and listening, and influencing and negotiating which form succession plans (Tomal & Jones, 2015). A relationship between leadership competencies and cognitive competencies exists.

Policy and Regulation

The main regulator of university education in Kenya is Commission for University Education. The policy on education and training then envisages
a curriculum that successively develops the knowledge, skills, competencies, as well as continuous learning dispositions of its candidates to meet the human capital needs of the country. This ensures that learners are getting quality education and training. The Commission considers issues such as the effectiveness of government education policy implementation, strategic planning, resource mobilization and the management of resources by Ministries and institutions concerned with education and their management bodies.

**METHODOLOGY**

The study adopted positivism as the research philosophy which is premised on measurable observations that lead themselves to statistical analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The correlational method was used for this study because of a wide range of variables and their interrelatedness (Creswell, 2014). The design was deemed suitable because this study focused on examining the effect of human capital development as a factor on organizational performance. The target population for this study included all the 17-chartered private which by Commission of University Education (CUE, 2016) with a total of 136.

The study adopted a census study in line with Israel (2009) and Rao (2015) recommendations that sample sizes of less than 200 are studied to cater for any non-response that may be encountered in the study. The estimated sample size of 136 respondents was distributed proportionate to the size of the population. The main tool for data collection was a questionnaire, preferred because it possesses a high rate of response and that the respondents can respond to the questions simultaneously hence saving time. Reliability was tested using the Cronbach’s alpha with a coefficient of at least 0.7. The validity of the study was ascertained by subject experts. Descriptive statistics was used to present the data into charts and tables with frequency distribution and percentages as well as means and standard deviations. Inferential statistics was used test the hypothesised relationships between the independent and dependent variable, with correlation and regression analyses.

**Diagnostic tests**

Normality test was done in the study to determine if the data set is well-modelled by a normal distribution. Multicollinearity was done in the study using the variance inflation factors (VIF) for each variable using traditional criteria employed in the study. Linearity - The study conducted linearity test to determine whether the relationship between each of the independent variable and dependent variable was linear or not. The study findings had the homoscedasticity test evaluated for pairs of variables using the Levene statistic for the test of homogeneity of variances.
FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The study examined human capital development as a requisite for organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. Data was analyzed at two levels where the first level entailed determining human capital development. The second part involved analyzing results on the effect of human capital development on organizational performance.

Table 1 Means and Standard Deviations for Human Capital Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean (M)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The university integrates human capital planning as a factor to organizational performance</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.8145</td>
<td>.84936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a participation of employees in the formulation of human resource plan</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.2500</td>
<td>1.06401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the university, human resource planning is a strategic issue.</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.8862</td>
<td>.99345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university operates training and development plan as a result of human resource planning</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.6179</td>
<td>1.06756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is annual budget set for the operationalization of the human resource planning in the university</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>3.8033</td>
<td>.89664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource planning is well organized in the university</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>3.4836</td>
<td>1.08509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the university, top level management supports the operationalization of the human resource planning</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>3.7295</td>
<td>.85316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has optimum number of employees</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>3.1405</td>
<td>1.18537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has only engaged qualified professionals</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3.4000</td>
<td>1.06432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has employees with the desired levels of education</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>3.8689</td>
<td>.94432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has clear career development plans</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>3.5620</td>
<td>1.15392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study also sought to analyze the views of respondents on human capital development using a table of means and standard deviations. A Likert scale data was collected rating the views in a scale. The mean results are therefore given on a scale interval where a mean value of up to 1 is an indication of strongly disagree; 1. disagree; 2. Neutral: 3. Agree: 4 and strongly agree:5. Findings on human capital development are shown in Table 1.

Correlation between Human Capital Development and Organizational Performance

The study correlated human capital development and organizational performance and found that all the items of human capital development were positively and significantly related with organizational performance as shown on Table 2.
### Table 2 Correlation between Human Capital Development and Organizational Performance for All Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The university integrates human capital planning as a factor to organizational performance</td>
<td>.484**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a participation of employees in the formulation of human resource plan</td>
<td>.520**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the university, human resource planning is a strategic issue.</td>
<td>.438**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university operates training and development plan as a result of human resource planning</td>
<td>.584**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is annual budget set for the operationalization of the human resource planning in the university</td>
<td>.490**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource planning is well organized in the university</td>
<td>.514**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the university, top level management supports the operationalization of the human resource planning</td>
<td>.612**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has optimum number of employees</td>
<td>.383**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has only engaged qualified professionals</td>
<td>.395**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has employees with the desired levels of education</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has clear career development plans</td>
<td>.489**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has put in place training on management practices</td>
<td>.591**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
The study sought to determine the relationship between human capital development index and organizational performance using correlation analysis and found that the two variables were strongly correlated \( r(123) = .718, p = .000 \). The results are as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3 Correlation Analysis on Human Capital Development Index**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Capital Development</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.718**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**One Way ANOVA on Human Capital Development**

A one-way ANOVA was carried out to establish if there was significant difference between the mean of human capital development with number of years in leadership position at the private universities as well as the current leadership position. The tests established that the mean for human capital development were the same for the number of years in leadership position \( F (2, 113) = 0.045, p = 0.956 \). The study also found out that the mean for human capital development were the same for the current leadership position, \( F (3, 121) = 1.305, p = 0.276 \). Table 4 presents these results.

**Table 4 One Way ANOVA for Human Capital Development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Capital Development and Years in Leadership Position</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>51.173</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51.215</td>
<td>113</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Capital Development and Current Leadership Position</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.930</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>1.305</td>
<td>.276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>58.174</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60.104</td>
<td>121</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Assumptions for Regression on Human Capital Development**

The study conducted the assumptions of regression to determine whether regression analysis was suitable in the study or not. The diagnostic tests conducted in the study included normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity tests.

**Normality Test for Human Capital Development**

The study checked the normality of the data set by looking at descriptive values of skewness and kurtosis. The skewness values obtained in the study indicated that the scores are skewed as all are negatively skewed and not that much closer to zero. The kurtosis values also fall within the range of -1 to +1, and therefore do not display excessive kurtosis as well. These results
suggest that the normality assumption is not violated in the study. Table 5 gives the results from the study.

**Table 5 Normality Test for Human Capital Development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The university integrates human capital planning as a factor to organizational performance</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>-.766</td>
<td>.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a participation of employees in the formulation of human resource plan</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>-.311</td>
<td>.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the university, human resource planning is a strategic issue.</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-.533</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university operates training and development plan as a result of human resource planning</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>-.745</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is annual budget set for the operationalization of the human resource planning in the university</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>-.649</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource planning is well organized in the university</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>-.431</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the university, top level management supports the operationalization of the human resource planning</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>-.665</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has optimum number of employees</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>-.124</td>
<td>.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has only engaged qualified professionals</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>-.393</td>
<td>.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has employees with the desired levels of education</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>-.871</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university has clear career development plans</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>-.633</td>
<td>.220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Linearity Test for Human Capital Development**

The study conducted linearity test to determine whether the relationship between human capital development and organizational performance was linear or not. According to the results shown in Table 6, the significant deviation from linearity is 0.143 which is greater than 0.05 implying than there is a linear relationship between human capital development and organizational performance.
Table 6 Linearity Test for Human Capital Development and Organizational Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Combined)</td>
<td>48.030</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.201</td>
<td>5.345</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linearity</td>
<td>34.225</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34.225</td>
<td>152.356</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviation from Linearity</td>
<td>13.805</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>1.576</td>
<td>.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>18.420</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66.450</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosscedasticity Test for Human Capital Development

The study findings had the homoscedasticity test evaluated for pairs of variables using the Levene statistic for the test of homogeneity of variances. The results are then given as shown in Table 7. From the study findings of test for homogeneity, the probability associated with the Levene Statistic (<0.099) is more than the level of significance (0.05) testing at 1-tail test 5% significance level, the researcher concludes that the variance is homogeneous for human capital development.

Table 7 Homoscedasticity Test for Human Capital Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.342</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>.099</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multicollinearity Test for Human Capital Development

Multicollinearity is a state of very high intercorrelations or interassociations among the independent variables. Multicollinearity in the study was checked using the variance inflation factors (VIF). The VIF values of between 1 and 10 show that multicollinearity is not problematic in the study while VIF values of less than 1 and more than 10 indicate multicollinearity issues in the study. The findings obtained indicated that the VIF value for human capital development is 4.173 which is between 1 and 10 and therefore multicollinearity was not problematic in the study. The findings are shown in Table 8.

Table 8 Multicollinearity Test for Human Capital Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Organization’s Mission or Vision</td>
<td>.441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Capital Development</td>
<td>.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Culture</td>
<td>.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Values</td>
<td>.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic and Financial Controls</td>
<td>.257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
Hypothesis Testing for Human Capital Development

Based on linear regression model, the study sought to establish the effect of human capital development on organizational performance. The following hypothesis was therefore tested:

\( H_0: \text{Human capital development does not affect the organizational performance in private universities in Kenya.} \)

The study found that human capital development explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance, \( R^2 = .515 \). This implies that 51.5% of the proportion in organizational performance can be explained by human capital development in private universities in Kenya. Other factors not covered by this study therefore contribute to 49.5%. Findings are as shown in Table 9.

Table 9 Model Summary for Human Capital Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.718a</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>.511</td>
<td>.51607</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Human Capital Development

The findings indicated that the significance value in testing the reliability of the model for the relationship between human capital development and organizational performance was \( F(1, 122) = 128.509, p = .000 \). Therefore, the model is statistically significant in predicting the relationship between the study variables. Results are as presented in Table 10.

Table 10 ANOVA for Human Capital Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>34.225</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34.225</td>
<td>128.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>32.225</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66.450</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
b. Predictors: (Constant), Human Capital Development

The study found that human capital development significantly predicted organizational performance, \( \beta = .718, t(122) = 11.336, p = .000 \). This finding implied rejection of the null hypothesis since the p value was less than <.05 set by the study. The study therefore concluded that human capital development significantly influences organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11 Regression Coefficients for Human Capital Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.124</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>4.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human Capital Development</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.718</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance
The findings obtained in the study imply that for every one-unit change in human capital development, organizational performance increases by 0.755 hence implying a positive impact of human capital development on organizational performance.

**DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION**

The study found that, human capital development explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance, \( R^2 = .515 \). This implies that 51.5% of the proportion in organizational performance can be explained by human capital development in private universities in Kenya. Human capital development significantly predicted organizational performance, \( \beta = .718, t(122) = 11.336, p = .000 \). This finding implied rejection of the null hypothesis since the p value was less than <.05 set by the study.

**Conclusion**

The study concluded that human capital development explained a significant proportion of variance in organizational performance. In addition, the study concluded that human capital development significantly predicted organizational performance in private universities in Kenya. The study also concluded that for every one-unit change in human capital development, organizational performance increases by 0.755 hence implying a positive impact of human capital development on organizational performance.

**Recommendations**

The study found out that the universities did not have optimum number of employees, there were some instances where they engaged unqualified professionals, and employees did not fully participate in the formulation of human resource plans. The study therefore recommends that the universities need to involve all the employees in formulation of human resource plans to foster their performance, and also have optimum professional employees in realizing the universities’ objectives

**References:**


Communication Skills for Children with Severe Learning Difficulties

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a6 URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a6

Abstract
Individuals with severe learning disabilities have little or no speech and find it very difficult to communicate and learn new skills. Most of them were excluded from the education process due to the presumed inability to learn. However, it has been observed over time that individuals with severe learning disabilities (SLD) of all ages and types are able to learn to some degree. Because of the reduced ability to communicate they find it very difficult to interact with their environment and to cope independently hence they need constant support in daily living skills. Communication is critical even for individuals with SLD because it ensures the fulfillment of rights. This paper presents the communication skills that can be taught to children with severe learning disabilities to enable them to cope independently and to help improve the social interactions which are generally problematic or difficult.

Keywords: Communication, Severe Learning Disabilities, Rights, Skill, Assistive Technology, Assessment.

Introduction
One of the greatest achievements in human beings is the ability to communicate. Both speech and gestures can be part of a communication system. For all children communication begins before birth (Kirk, Gallagher and Anastasiow, 2006). Children with severe learning difficulties pose real challenges when it comes to communication. They usually experience profound delays and or failure to acquire speech and language. Children with severe learning difficulties may acquire speech or gestural systems and are very difficult to interact with. It is the task of this presentation to discuss the communication skills for children with severe learning difficulties. Some key terms are going to be defined.
A severe learning disability is a condition that causes significant and profound intellectual impairment and a very low Intelligent Quotient (I.Q.). It is generally accepted that an Intelligent Quotient of 50 constitutes a severe disability. Such severe disabilities can be present from birth or acquired later in life through accidents or illness (Lowth, 2016).

Skill – is the ability to do something well arising from talent, training or practice. (www.definitions.net).

Assistive Technology (AT) refers to any tool or item that enhances the learning, mobility or communication skills of the individuals with disabilities (www.ehow.com).

Communication refers to how individuals share information including their thoughts and feelings. It is an act where one individual sends a message to another and that message is received and understood and acted upon (brookespublishing.com). It requires at least two individuals who understand each other to participate, the sender and the receiver. However, it should be noted that communication is not only about talking and listening. Individuals may convey messages through gestures, signing, body language, facial expression and even the tone of their voices (Parenting and Child Health 2018). Communication may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals and may take linguistic or non-linguistic forms. In other words communication may occur through spoken or other various modes.

Children with Severe Learning Disabilities

Most children with severe learning disabilities have significant multiple problems and may not be able to speak, hear, see, walk and so on. The inability to speak is one of the most formidable obstacles that children with severe learning difficulties face. It prevents them from interacting successfully with their environments and impedes the ability to learn from interactive experiences, things that the non-disabled do readily (Kirk, Gallagher and Anastasiow, 2006). The child with severe learning disabilities is usually less inquisitive, more withdrawn, less active and less fun than a child without disabilities. The child does not engage in play e.g. with objects or with peers.

However it is important to realize that being unable to speak does not mean that the individual is unable to communicate with others (Mirenda and Williams 1990). The child with severe learning disabilities has to rely on non-linguistic forms of communication which may be very difficult to identify, interpret and understand. In most cases, the child is not able to express his or her own needs and feelings. He or she may communicate by adjusting the body, making gestures, facial expressions, eye blinks, eye gazes, making noise
and so on. For example, a child may stare at a colleague to indicate the need to ‘play’ (Mirenda and Williams, 1990).

The critical factor is whether the colleague has the ability to identify and correctly interpret the child’s efforts in communication. The child’s communication skills may be difficult to recognize. It is crucial to try and pick the child’s attempts at communication because, if they go unnoticed for too long, the child may give up trying. One can even observe the child on a video so as to understand his or her behavior for example, when he or she is hungry or upset (www.lcommunicatetherapy.com). Therefore, when working with children with severe learning disabilities observe, focus on body movements, facial expression and record any findings. Go on to examine what triggered the movement or the vocalization. By keeping a running record, it may be possible to discern that certain things elicit certain responses (www.lcommunicatetherapy.com). Thus, all individuals communicate in some way or another, however, the effectiveness and efficiency of this communication may vary with the number of individuals and environmental factors. Furthermore, some individuals with severe learning disabilities develop unconventional modes of communication. It is the responsibility of all individuals who interact with individuals with severe learning disabilities to recognize the communication efforts produced by the child and seek ways to promote the effectiveness of communication by and with those individuals (Mirenda and Williams, 1990).

It becomes absolutely essential that parents, teachers, social workers and other professionals should be knowledgeable about SLD and should be prepared to help the pupils who are suffering from the disability and assist them in overcoming challenges and live happy full lives (Cowder, 2010).

**The Communication Bill of Rights**

This group of children is covered by the Communication Bill of Rights which states that all persons, regardless of the extent of severity of their disability, have a basic right to affect, through communication, the conditions of their own existence (www.asha.org/policy). Beyond this general right, a number of specific communication rights should be ensured in all daily interactions involving persons who have severe disabilities.
Some of these basic communication rights are as follows:
1. The right to request desired objects, actions, events, persons and express personal preferences or feelings.
2. The right to be offered choices and alternatives.
3. The right to request and be given attention and interactions with another person.
4. The right to reject or refuse undesirable objects or actions including the right to decline or reject all proffered choices.
5. The right to have access at all times to any needed Augmented and Alternative Communication devices and to have these gadgets in good working order. (There are 12 rights in all)

Adapted from www.asha.org/policy for the National Joint Committee for the Communication Needs of Persons with Severe Disabilities. The communication rights of children with severe learning disabilities should not be ignored or violated instead, they should be observed at all costs.

Developing Communication Skills in Children with Severe Learning Disabilities

Teaching Functional Communication Skills

There is need for a baseline assessment of the individual children with severe learning disabilities to find out what they can or cannot do. The assessment enables service providers to plan programmes that meet the needs of the children and make decisions about their educational progress. Appropriate intervention should commence as soon as a communication delay or disorder is diagnosed (Kirk et al, 2006)

The communication skills taught to children with severe learning disabilities are functional in that they are relevant to the individual’s survival and independent functioning in the community as appropriately as possible. The skills that are taught should also be age appropriate. Examples of such skills are brushing own teeth, bathing and feeding. Functional skills are necessary in everyday environments. These can be used immediately by the learner and they should increase the individual’s independence to some extent. An ecological inventory can be conducted to identify the much needed skills for the child with SLD (Baine, 1991).

When learners acquire functional communication skills they are able to express themselves without resorting to problem behaviours or experience communication breakdown. When children and adults can functionally communicate, they are ready to learn choice making and increase their independence. The communication forms a child uses must be understood by all communication partners, particularly if the forms are not conventional or only approximate conventional words and signs (Falvey, 1995).

The content to be taught should be task analysed i.e. broken down into small -to-teach steps. After each step is mastered the child proceeds to the next. As the concept is taught in the classroom, experiences should be extended into the community so that the child is able to generalize (Mental Health Foundations, 2018). The teacher should ensure that the skills that have been learnt by the child with severe learning difficulties should be applied in other settings. This is a very difficult task for both the teacher and the student. Each small step in what might seem to be a simple task, must be repeated in a variety of settings. The teacher should develop his or her own criterion-
referenced tests which are ecologically based to assess the child’s skills (Baine, 1991).

However, children with severe learning difficulties may find themselves in situations in which competent social partners are not present (for example, a self contained special education classroom), and the behaviours they have to use for communication are not clear to others. In addition, these individuals may have severe limited life experiences, leaving little to talk about and very few reasons to communicate (www.brookespublishing.com). Children with severe learning difficulties who are in hospital schools like St Francis’ Home, in Zimbabwe, tend to have extensive interactions with adult caregivers but limited interactions with peers. Not only can this lack of social opportunity make it difficult for individuals with severe learning disabilities to learn communication skills, but that it can interfere with their ability to make friends (Richardson, 2002, on line).

**The Intensive Interaction Approach**

The Intensive Interaction Approach is used to offer services to individuals who are difficult to reach or have not yet learned the fundamentals of early social communication. It is a means of developing interaction skills in individuals who are typically very withdrawn (Berry, Firth, Leeming and Sharma, 2014). The teaching of communication skills should relate to the natural methods as much as possible. The Intensive Interaction Approach should be employed when teaching children and adults with severe learning difficulties who are still in the early stages of communication development. It creates a communication environment that is enjoyable and non-threatening to the individual (Nind and Hewett, 2005).

The question then should not be whether learners with severe learning difficulties will benefit from communication interventions but rather how best to provide that support. It is often hard to know what support is available to assist children with SLD (Mental Health Foundations, 2018). Intensive Interaction is an approach focusing on the teaching of fundamentals of communication concepts and performance that precede speech. The fundamentals of communication are typically referred to as being attainments such as:

- Enjoying being with another person
- Developing the ability to attend to that person
- Concentration and attention span
- Taking turns in exchange of behaviours
- Using and understanding eye contacts
- Sharing personal space
- Using and understanding physical conducts (Nind and Hewett, 1998).
This method of communication tries to create a communication environment that is enjoyable and non-threatening to the individual with severe learning difficulties. Berry, et al, (2014) observe that Intensive Interaction is a socially interactive approach to developing the pre-verbal communication and sociability of children with SLD. The teacher enjoyably works from the behaviour of the learner. The approach has a basis in the way mothers start to communicate naturally with their developing infants, where interactions are short and repetitive, involving noises, touch and eye contact. The infants generally take the lead. Activities must be highly interactive and responsive with the teacher working enjoyably from the behaviour elicited by the learner. Intensive Interaction has been found to be beneficial for building positive relationships between clients and carers (Hutchinson and Bodicoat (2015). In order to have good progress the activities should occur frequently, daily or day after day just like what the mothers do with their babies. Give the children time to take in what has been said, communicate more slowly than is normally done. The Intensive Interaction Approach is intended to address the needs of people who are non-verbal with few or limited communication behaviour (Caldwell, 2007).

**Augmentative and Alternative Communication (AAC)**

Augmentative and Alternative Communication devices have been developed to help students who are non-vocal to communicate. (Beukelman and Mirenda (1992). High and low technology devices can be used depending on the individual needs of the learner. Low technology devices include pictures on drawings at which the student points in order to convey meaning. The communication board is one such device that “speaks” for children with severe learning difficulties. It is one example of an AAC low technology device. The essential elements are the board itself and the symbols or pictures drawn or pasted on it. The symbols and pictures selected depend on the learners’ needs and the environment in which he or she lives. Pictures should be selected according to what students need and want to communicate. High technology devices can provide voice output for example, speech synthesizers which can be programmed with many messages (www.ehow.com).

Learners with severe learning difficulties can use assistive technology to help them to communicate with others. Voice output devices, text to voice, voice to text software, touch screens that give choices for communication and translating devices can provide a lifeline for those whose speech is profoundly affected (www.ehow.com). Assistive technology (AT) assists people with severe learning difficulties to perform tasks. The assisted tasks may be anything from communication to daily living or even recreation. Children with severe learning disabilities deserve the same learning opportunities as
other students. AT can help to ensure the enforcements of children’s communication rights.

Conclusion

It seems a logical move to borrow ideas from the natural interactive processes between mother and child in order to ignite the communicative learning of children with severe learning disabilities. These children are frequently considered communicatively difficult to reach, and are often living in some extensive social isolation. Let us respect the children’s rights and enable them to develop the much needed communication skills. Remember children with severe learning difficulties are first and foremost human beings who should be supported fully to enable them to realise the benefits of effective communication resulting in more control over their lives, less frustration and stronger bonds with friends and family.

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New Trends in Student-Teacher Relationships on University Campuses in Cameroon: Situation and Challenges

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a7
URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a7

Abstract
In Cameroon, the implementation of the Bachelor-Master-Doctorate system in the universities, which has been on for about ten years now, has drastically changed the nature of the relationships between students and teachers. The huge distance which used to exist between the learner and the teacher at university level has considerably reduced. The former conflicting relationships between the two partners are becoming more and more positive. Owing to the nature of the new tasks and roles that the new system entails, with the help of the ICTs, Cameroonian students can now approach, call/write to have appointments with their lecturer without any fear, even out of opening days and hours. Teachers do the same with their students. This new situation has led to new attitudes, behaviours, ways of thinking and challenges. From a sociological frame, this paper analyses the new trends in students and teachers relationships on Cameroonian university campuses and the new challenges that they involve.

Keywords: Relationships, roles, ICTs, trends, challenges.

Introduction
In society, the relationships between individuals are generally conflicting. The tendency is to dominate or persuade other people to accept one’s views. The school milieu, which is a micro society, is not an exception to that rule. All kinds of behaviours have been reported in it: students’ misbehaviour and rebellion against teachers and the system, lack of communication between teachers and learners, teachers’ intolerance, lordly behaviour and tyranny, etc. Positive relationships between students and teachers are difficult to establish, but teachers and learners who have good communication, respect for each other in class, and show interest in teaching and learning can foster them in the classroom. Heather’s (2010) remarks that
we have a limited understanding of student-teacher relationships in that, most of our knowledge is about relationships for a particular population of students such as preschool, elementary school, middle school, or high school. This is embedded within knowledge about particular approach (e.g. attachment, motivation, or sociocultural). Nevertheless, given the impact of student-teacher relationships on teaching and learning outcome, considerable research has been conducted on the issue (McCormick & Pressley, 1997; Prensky, 2005; Krause et al., 2006; Churchill et al., 2011, etc).

Hughes (2012) points out that the first generation research provided strong empirical support for the conclusion that a supportive teacher-student relationship promotes students’ behavioural adjustment. The second generation research which aims to increase our understanding of the development of those relationships and the processes responsible for their effects is well underway. In a review of papers on teacher-student relationships and school adjustment, Hughes mentions two studies which argue that a close and supportive relationship with the teachers presumably serves as external source of stress regulation, allowing children to direct their energies toward engagement with tasks, peers, and teachers in the classroom (Little & Kobak, 2003; Ahnert et al., 2012). Citing Huges & Chen (2011: 278), Liberante (2012) argues that supportive and positive relationships between teachers and students ultimately promote “a sense of school belonging and encourage students to participate cooperatively in classroom activities”. He also sees the intellectual quality, quality learning, environment and significance as central factors not only impacting learning, but also the quality of teacher-student interactions within the learning environment (Liberante, 2012:2).

In Cameroon, the implementation of the BMD (Bachelor-Master-Doctorate) system has for some time forced students and teachers on university campuses to adopt new behaviours, and to get into new types of relationships. This paper thus looks at the new trends of those relationships and the challenges they entail. To better understand the reasons for the new situation, it is important to have a brief look at the university system in Cameroon.

A glimpse at the university system in Cameroon

The history of the university system in Cameroon can be divided into four phases. The first goes from 1961 to 1971. It started with the creation of a complex known as Institut National d’Etudes Universitaires (National Institute for University Studies), transformed in 1962 into the Federal University of Cameroon. The aim of that university was to train massively in general knowledge to fill positions in the public service of the newly independent state. There was no selection to get into it, and enrolment was thus based only on obtaining a Baccalauréat / GCE Advanced Level. The creation of the Federal
University was followed in 1967 by that of the University Centre for Health Sciences (CUSS), the Institute of Management, International School of Journalism of Yaounde (ESJY, 1970), the Institute of International Relations in 1971, and the Advanced School of Engineering in the same year (Njeuma et al., 1999:2).

The second phase of the system took place in 1977 with the creation of the Buea University Centre for Language, Translation / Interpretation and the Arts; the Douala University Centre for Business Studies and the Training of Technical Education Teachers; the Dschang University Centre for Agricultural Sciences, and the Ngaoundéré University Centre for Food Science and Food Technology. It should be noted that, unlike the Federal University of Cameroon which enrolled massively, the specialised schools and university centres created from 1967 to 1977 enrolled very few students through a highly selective competitive entrance examinations. For example, 34,886 students were enrolled at the University of Yaounde in 1990 against 58 at the Buea University Centre, 364 at the Ngaoundéré University Centre, 555 at the Dschang University Centre, and 645 at the Douala University Centre (Njeuma et al., 1999: 4). That exceedingly high number of students with a limited number of lecturers (e.g. one lecturer for 252 students in the Faculty of Science) at the University of Yaounde caused a lot of frustration and discouragement among the teaching staff, resulting in very low success rate (about 30%) and high drop out rates (Njeuma et al., 1999: 5). It is also important to mention that from 1961 to 1993, the academic year was divided into three terms, just like in secondary school, and that an average mark of 10 over 20 was enough to pass.

In 1993, the only university of the country (University of Yaounde), with over 45,000 students for structures designed to enrol 5,000 had almost reached the threshold of implosion. Because of many students’ strikes organised by a powerful movement called ‘The Parliament’, the government hastily created six full-fledged universities in January 1993. The creation of the universities of Buea, Douala, Dschang, Ngaoundéré, Yaounde I and Yaounde II to decongest the University of Yaounde is thus the third phase of the university system in Cameroon. One of the most important changes brought by the 1993 reforms was the re-organisation of the academic year into two semesters, and the introduction of the modular system. In the same year, the private sector was authorised to create university institutes. Since the six state universities were created without preparation, the teachers who had to launch them were transferred from the former University of Yaounde, with their frustrated and discouraged mentality. It should also be pointed out that it happened at the peak of the economic crisis, which led to the reduction of 70% of civil servants’ salaries. So, although the newly created universities started with few students’ enrolment, many teachers continued with their
‘Yaounde University mentality’, i.e. frustrated irritated angry teachers, distant from their learners. Some of them openly expressed their anger for being transferred out of Yaounde where they originally applied to teach.

Njeuma et al. (1999: 2) note that the roots of present higher education problems in Cameroon stem from the method of developing the two types of higher education of the country. On the one hand, professional and technical education was very selective, admitting small numbers of students through highly competitive entrance examinations. On the other hand, massive non-selective admission of students was permitted into the university faculties to pursue general studies. “This produced in the universities a huge number of less qualified graduate who were not really employable”.

The last phase of the university system in Cameroon (the current one), started timidly in the academic year 2007-2008, with the implementation of the BMD system. By then, except the University of Buea, in all the other six state universities, studies were organised into three cycles as follows: (1) the first cycle was subdivided into two sub cycles, with the first two years leading to DEUG (Diplome d’Etudes Universitaires), a kind of Diploma of General University Studies, followed by a one year Bachelor of Arts / Science Programme; (2) the second cycle consisted in a two year’s Maîtrise (Master) programme; (3) the third cycle started with a two year’s DEA (Diplome d’Etudes Approfondies) or Advanced Diploma programme. A successful completion of that programme led to the Third Cycle Doctorate studies, which took a minimum of three years. It should be noted that, after the First Degree, the selection into the Maîtrise, DEA or Third Cycle Doctorate programmes required at least an average of 12 on 20, which was extremely difficult to obtain. After the Third Cycle Doctorate, some rare lucky students who completed it with a good grade registered for a Doctorat d’Etat / PhD in the subjects that had qualified supervisors. In most cases, those candidates took an average of ten year to complete the programme.

The BMD system which has three simplified cycles that any average student can complete in eight to ten years was thus heartily welcome by the whole university community. Students could complete their university studies in a relatively short time, and lecturers who did not yet have a terminal degree could register to have it. With the new roles that the new system entailed, teachers and their students were bound to cooperate and to be closer to each other, to share knowledge/ research through internet. Both parties had to adapt to the new way of thinking and doing things. In this study, the focus is mainly on state universities. Professional / technical university institutes, where students intake is reduced, and the certification system is different is beyond its scope.
Method

The data analysed was essentially collected through questionnaires and informal talks with some students and teachers of the Universities of Maroua, Yaounde I and Dschang. In total, 40 teachers’ questionnaires and 120 students’ ones were administered. 10 teachers and 15 students took part in the informal interviews. The teachers’ questionnaire comprised two questions. The first question consisted in knowing the type of relationships that existed in their own days as university students between teachers and students, and what were the challenges of those days on the teacher’s and student’s side. The second question aimed to know the new types of relationships that now exist between students and teachers on university campuses, and the challenges that the new situation involves on both teacher’s and student’s side. The aim of the first question of the students’ questionnaire was to find out if they know anything about the relationships between teachers and their students in the university days of their elders and teachers. The second question sought to get their opinion on the new type of relationships that now exist between their various teachers and them, and the demands that they impose on teachers and learners. The informal talks turned around the same issues with some teachers and students, but in a more relaxed atmosphere.

Results

The analysis is based on two different periods that correspond to two different lives on university campus in Cameroon, i.e. from 1961 to about 2008, and from 2008 to present. The period from 1961 to 2008 is that of the academic year divided into three terms and the modular system. During that period largely dominated by the University of Yaounde, the way of teaching and learning imposed a particular kind of behaviour to teachers and learners. Since 2008, the implementation of the BMD (Bachelor-Master-Doctorate) system has imposed a new type of relationship between students and teacher as examined below.

**Student-teacher relationships on Cameroonian university campuses from 1961≈ 2008**

From 1961, year of the creation of the first university in Cameroon to about 2008, when the implementation of the Bachelor-Masters-Doctorate started, the relationships between teachers and students were generally poor. Table 1 which follows summarises some aspects of them as perceived by students and teachers.
Table 1. Perception of student-teacher relationships on Cameroonian university campuses from 1961 to about 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception by teachers</th>
<th>Perception by students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>· Distant, cool relationships</td>
<td>· Students saw teachers as gods / lords and behaved like their servants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Teachers were:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· formal stiff, too proud, duty conscious</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· too full of themselves and looked down on students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· had a self-sufficient attitude</td>
<td>· Students were pure recipients of knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· real master and had a lordly behaviour over their learners</td>
<td>· Fear and admiration of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· had pure academic relationships with their students and liked their work.</td>
<td>· Students had no right to complain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· Strict, utter and total respect for teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· Total respect of teachers’ instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· Total submission to teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· Respect of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>· The teacher was a model.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that, on Cameroonian university campuses, before the advent of the BMD system, teachers generally perceive the relationships between students and teachers as being of very low quality. Good relationships entail communication, collaboration, discussions, agreement and mutual respect. Yet, in those days teachers and students did not discuss anything, e.g. distant, cool relationships; too full of themselves and looked down on students. Students have the same perception of those relationships as illustrated by some of their answers: fear of teachers; strict, utter and total respect for teachers; total submission to teachers. In this kind of situation, teaching and learning are particularly difficult, as teachers strive to show to their learners how much they know and are important. As to students, it was the survival of the fittest or abandonment. The section below discusses the challenges relating to those relationships.

**Challenges relating to student-teacher’s poor relationships from 1961 to about 2008**

The challenges relating to student-teacher’s poor relationships were enormous. Teachers received insults and swearwords in amphitheatres, and many students dropped out after a few months or a year of studies. Some of those challenges gathered from teachers and students who took part in the study are summarised in the following table.

Table 2. Challenges relating to student-teacher’s poor relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ challenges</th>
<th>Students’ challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers had to:</td>
<td>Students had to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· do a lot of research</td>
<td>· strive for excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· deliver good teaching</td>
<td>· be very courageous and courteous when they approach teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· worry about good results</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
focus on students’ success
- focus on academic excellence
- keep distance between students and them
- manage exceedingly high number of students per class
- mark thousands of scripts
- Teachers looked for fame, and received insults, swearwords and stones from angry and desperate students in class.

- get most explanations from their peers
- work very hard to succeed
- struggle very hard to have a tutor / supervisor
- Many students dropped out.
- the university milieu was the survival of the fittest.

Table 2 indicates that the challenges relating to student-teacher’s poor relationships were many on both teachers’ and students’ sides. For example, the teacher had to do a lot of research to prepare high quality lessons. Unfortunately, this yielded little result because of lack of communication and explanations, teachers’ de-motivation and students’ fear or disgust. Some teachers worried about their learners’ result, but worked to improve it in a wrong way. For example, in the dark days of the University of Yaounde, i.e. from mid 1980s to 1993, there were the well known way of stairs and concentric circles marking of students’ scripts that some lecturers used to mark scripts in larger groups (3,000-5,000 students per class). The stairs marking consisted in throwing students’ scripts over the stairs. Those which fell on the upper stair received a high mark such comprised between 14 and 15 on 20; the scripts which fell on the stairs in the middle had between 09 and 11 on 20, and those which spread over the lower stairs (there were many scripts in that group) received between 05 and 08 on 20. As to the concentric circles way of marking, the lecturer drew three of them on the floor, then threw the scripts into the air. Those which fell in the inner circle received between 14 and 15 on 20. The scripts which spread in the second circle had between 09 and 11, and those which fell in the outer circles received between 05 and 08 on 20. Students were aware of those ill practices. But since no complaint was authorised, any failure was accepted as a fate. Some students who could not survive in such environment continued to go to class not to follow lessons, but to challenge or insult their lecturers. In amphitheatres, during lectures, at calm moments, it was common to hear insults such as ‘idiot !’, ‘ta mère !’ (your mum !), ‘cul de ta mère !’ (your mum’s arse!), ‘tes couilles’ (your balls !). Many students simply abandoned their studies.

The tensed relationships, however, had some positive effects on the learners’ side. For instance, university students knew that they had to work very hard, to do a lot of research to succeed. Those who passed their First Degree had to fight hard to have a tutor / supervisor. Indeed, in those days, lecturers accepted to work only with brilliant students and relatives. Mediocre and average students who resisted in the system had to abandon after the First Degree. Though that system was very harsh, students who succeeded through
it were good, and well trained for the job market. The section below looks at
the relationships between students and teachers on Cameroonian university
campuses nowadays.

**New trends in student-teacher relationships on Cameroonian university campuses**

Since the beginning of the implementation of the BMD system in
Cameroonian universities in 2008, a new trend in student-teacher relationships
is being observed. Students have more rights and freedom, and the advent of
ICTs (Information and Communications Technologies) has almost totally
changed their perception of their teachers. Many lecturers have also adapted
to the new situation, as summarised in Table 3 which follows.

Table 3. New trends in student-teacher relationships on Cameroonian university campuses
(from 2008 – present)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception by teachers</th>
<th>Perception by students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cordial friendly, fatherly, less formal</td>
<td>Lack of respect for teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity with students</td>
<td>Daring students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual respect</td>
<td>Students easily approach their teachers, and ask for catch-up tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers easily approachable</td>
<td>Mutual trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange of phone numbers and e-mail boxes with students</td>
<td>Students feel lecturers have concern for their problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance of students deviance. Proposition of research topic to students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion of students’ research topics</td>
<td>Students call their lecturers, send them texts messages or e-mails whenever they want for academic matters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negligent teaching, incompetent teachers</td>
<td>Intrusion into teachers’ privacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negligent dressing of teachers</td>
<td>Right to complain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vulgar, casual behaviour of some teachers with students</td>
<td>Some students launch complaints against their lecturers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual harassment by students</td>
<td>Sexual harassment by some lecturers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be observed in Table 3, since 2008, the relationships between
students and teachers on Cameroonian university campuses have drastically
changed. They have become more cordial and friendly. Students see them as
particularly positive, as they can easily approach their teachers, call them
whenever they want, send them text messages and electronic mails without
any formality. Teachers show more respect and consideration to learners,
kindly invite them to discuss their research topics, and seek their opinion
before deciding. So, the huge distance which used to exist between students
and their teachers has almost disappeared. But this shift in relationships
sometimes leads into some exaggeration and deviance on both sides. Too
much familiarity of some teachers with their students makes them vulgar in
their eyes, as some teachers take the opportunity to ‘sell’ marks to students, or
ask for beer from them. Some of them also use students’ phone numbers to call them for non academic purposes, to sexually harass or disturb them at undue time. Some students do the same with their teachers’ phone numbers and e-mail boxes, and even knock at their gates without any appointment, as discussed in the section on the new challenges below.

**Challenges relating to the new trends in student-teacher relationships on Cameroonian university campuses**

The new trends in student-teacher relationships have generated new challenges on teachers’ and students’ side. Table 4, which follows highlights some of them.

Table 4. Challenges relating to the new trends in student-teacher relationships on Cameroonian university campuses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ new challenges</th>
<th>Students’ new challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>· How to regain teacher’s fame, authority and power</td>
<td>· Students are lazy, only certificates and degrees matter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Teachers are disappointed by their learners’ poor performances</td>
<td>· Many students are mediocre and think they can bribe to succeed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Students are too demanding</td>
<td>· Many students do not read / do research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Teachers need to do a lot of research to prepare good lessons.</td>
<td>· How to go back to hard work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Students have access to the same teaching resources / materials.</td>
<td>· Night calls from lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Students think the teacher should give them everything</td>
<td>· Love messages from lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Night calls from students</td>
<td>· Some lecturers take advantage of the supervision of students’ work to harass them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Love messages from students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Threatening messages and letters from students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Students intrude into teachers’ privacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of the exchange of telephone numbers and e-mail boxes with their students and many other new variables, the teachers and their learners now face many new types of challenges. As a matter of fact, with the development of ICTs and their use in education, those kinds of challenges were bound to occur. For example, with the use of the internet, students easily have access to some materials that their teachers use to prepare their lecture notes. This was almost totally impossible some years back, and that situation contributed to make students see their lecturers as god(s). With too much proximity and familiarity with their teachers, students are more and more
aware of their weaknesses and strengths. For some students, it is just a question of knowing (or seeking to know) where a particular lecturer lives to take their academic problem to his/her house on Sunday or at night. Teachers complain more and more of such intrusion.

Like the teachers’ challenges those of their learners in the new context are many. Given that the BMD system is that of units and credits, i.e. the student does not need an average mark of 10 on 20 to pass, but should validate almost all the units in the programme, some teachers use that situation to blackmail some students. It is not uncommon to hear students or groups of students complain of lecturers who ‘sell marks’ or harass students to make them pass the unit(s) they teach. Female students generally complain of some lecturers who invite them to hotels or their houses as a condition to pass their units.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the relationships between students and teachers were very poor on Cameroonian university campuses from 1961 to 2008 due to the mentality, the teaching methods, the various roles and tasks of that time. There was a huge distance between the teacher and the learner. There was almost no communication between them, and only professional relationships were permitted. Students were pure recipients of knowledge. They saw teachers as lords/gods, and had no right to complain. Paradoxically, the best students ever trained in Cameroonian universities were at that period though the failure and drop out rates were very high. On campus, some people continue to regret the disappearance of that period though acknowledging its tyranny and other shortcomings.

The new trends in student-teacher relationships are normally what they should be, i.e. cooperation and communication between the two partners, mutual respect and trust, students’ right to complain, etc. But the new situation at times leads to some exaggeration, deviance and misunderstanding on both sides. While in the new context some students think that they have right to all—even passing without studying, some lecturers have become too close and even fatherly to them. This results in laziness and too much tolerance on both sides. The BMD system, with the new roles and responsibilities that it imposes is without doubt what the Cameroonian university system needs at the dawn of the 21st century. To make it more effective and clarify each partner’s role, regular workshops and seminars should be organised by academic authorities on the issue. Booklets (a kind of teachers’ and students’ dos and don’ts) that state and clarify the teachers’ rights and obligations as well as those of students should be produced by each university and put at the disposal of teachers and students. If this could be done, it may reduce the confusion so far observed on both sides and foster the quality of student-teacher relationships.
Note: An early version of this paper was presented at the Second Canadian Conference on Advances in Education and Technology, EduTeach, in Toronto, 29-31 July 2017.

References:
5. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14616734.2012.672288.
The Level of Organizational Commitment Among School Teachers in the Arab Israeli Schools from Their Point of View

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Doi: 10.19044/ejes.v5no2a8 URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a8

Abstract
The current study aimed to reveal the Level of the organizational commitment among the teachers in the Arab Israeli schools. The study sample consisted of (230) male and female teachers, to achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher used the analytical, descriptive approach where he prepared a questionnaire as a tool for data collection from the members of the study sample. After conducting the appropriate statistical methods, the researcher in this study concluded the following results: there is a very great degree in the level of the organizational commitment among the teachers in the Arab Israeli schools, The results also indicate that the teachers who belong to their schools are very committed, According to the results, the study recommended the need to maintain and strengthen this degree through continuing and preserving this status and conducting studies on the organizational commitment and its relationship to other demographic variables, such as the educational level, the educational stage, and the type of school.

Keywords: Organizational commitment, Arab Israeli schools, Teachers.

1. Introduction
Organizational commitment is one of the most important indicators of human behavior that is characterized by complexity, which includes all processes as well as intellectual, motor, emotional and social activities, where individuals do to compliment and adapt The school is considered as one of the most important educational organizations that aim at educating human beings and helping them to develop and expand all aspects of their personality (mental, physical, psychological, spiritual and social), according to their ability, readiness, tendencies and trends, with this growth directed at the right social destination. In order for the school to function properly, physical and
human resources are needed[1] (Rashidi, 2010). The environment he lives in, satisfy his needs, and solve his problems.[2]

Harris (2009) defined the organizational commitment as the process of linking employees in the organization, since they regard the commitment as a sense of loyalty and belonging to the institutions they work in by clarifying the value of work and integration into it. Through search in many researches related studies, a number of studies were found that dealt with the research variables represented in the organizational commitment and procedural justice. Some of these studies are as follows.

1.1. Literature Review and Related studies

Organizational commitment is defined as an important part of the employee’s psychological condition. Individuals with a high level of commitment usually exhibit positive behaviors in the workplace, such as job satisfaction and organizational citizenship, which is of great benefit to the organization[3] (Albdour, Ikhlas & Altarawneh, 2014: p3).

Kean et al., (2017) conducted a study aimed at determining the relationship between the administrative practices of principals and the organizational commitment of teachers. The researchers used the descriptive expressive method. The study sample consisted of (340) secondary school teachers in Malaysia. The study found that there is a high degree of commitment among teachers in everything related to teaching and that there is a strong relationship between the practices of the principal and the commitment of teachers with regard to improving working conditions, including the educational climate and giving opportunities to participate in decision-making.

1.2. Operational Definition of the Term: Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is an important element in achieving objectives, stability and innovation in institutions, which will increase the interest of researchers to study the subject of functional commitment and its impact on the behavior of individuals and factors affecting it. Many researchers agreed that organizational commitment emerges as a result of interaction between individuals' personalities and behaviors and their characteristics, as well as prevailing regulatory factors, labor pressure, the general environment, and societal indicators, (Harris, 2009).

2. Methods
2.1. Research questions

What is the level of organizational commitment of school teachers in the Arab Israeli schools from their point of view?
2.2. Study sample
This study sample include (230) male and female teachers working in Israeli within Arab Schools, divided into three stages (Elementary, junior high school and high school).

2.3. Study Tools
To achieve the study goals, the researcher had developed a questionnaire from two parts, The first one related to the demographic changes, which include (gender, academic qualification).The second organizational commitment that included (18) items paragraphs.

2.4. Methodology
Descriptive Study Method was used in this study, To see the degree organizational commitment of the teachers from their point of view.

2.5. study variables
Dependent variables
Gender ( male /female).

Independent variables: The Degree of organizational commitment within Israeli Arab Schools.

3. Discussion and Results
The table shows that the female number was the higher with a percentage of 53.2%, while the males were 47.8% from the study sample.

Table 1 : Distribution of the sample of the study according to the gender variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Level category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>230</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is the level of organizational commitment of the Arab Israeli school teachers from their point of view?
In order to answer this question, the mean, standard deviations and ranks were extracted from the study sample responses on the level of organizational commitment of school teachers in the Arab schools in Israel from their point of view, as follows:
Table 2: The means and standard deviations of the areas of the organizational commitment filed arranged in descending order by the means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Paragraphs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The reputation of the school concerns me</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>.572</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Always attend school.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>.666</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Management relationship is built on mutual respect</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.786</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>I prefer the public interest over the personal interest.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am proud to be attending this school</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am ready to keep up with the latest developments to achieve the school's objectives.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>I make a great effort to help the school to achieve its goals</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.724</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>I am ready to do any task that gave to me in the school</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.712</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>I encourage parents to register their children in the school</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>I will participate in the school activities</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>My school is an organization that is good to work in</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.817</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>I invest my time effectively.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>I am following up the administrative and organizational affairs of the school</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>The school motivates me to provide the best performance.</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.848</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>I have the willing to stay at my school until I retire</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>I have the willing to work in the school outside the working hours</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>The justice organizational climate in the school makes teachers committed to their goals</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>If I has the chance to work in the school after retire I will agree</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organizational Commitment | 4.32  | .581               | High      |

This field includes (18) paragraphs, to identify the level of organizational commitment of the teachers in Arab schools in Israel. The sample members see that the level of organizational commitment was very

98
high, and the total mean was (4.32), the means and standard deviations have been extracted for each paragraph of the field.

The table shows that the values of the means for this field ranged between (3.79-4.72), which is generally very high. Paragraph (4), which states (The reputation of the school concerns me) ranked first with a mean of (4.72) and a standard deviation of (.57), followed by the second paragraph, which states (Always attend school). With a mean of (4.58) and a standard deviation of (666).

The paragraph (5) that states "If I has the chance to work in the school after retire I will agree" was ranked last with a mean of (3.79) and a standard deviation of (1.282), which reflects the very high level of distributive justice.

This result is attributed to the teachers' belief in the decisions and actions taken in a fair and transparent manner. Thus, the employees succeed in performing the tasks entrusted to them in an effective and worthy manner. The male and female teachers also believe in the goals of their organization, and working hard to achieve the goals and vision. The previous result is existed in paragraph (10) that states, "I make a great effort to help the school to achieve its goals" with a mean of (4.40). Paragraph (16), which states (I invest my time effectively) has a mean of (4.33), the principals' awareness of the importance of the partnership, which creates a high spirit and morale among the teachers, and then increases the commitment and belonging of the teacher will increases his efforts regardless of the financial value achieved by the organization.

Through the results, it was noted that teachers are aware of the importance of maintaining their work as a source of livelihood; teachers are subjected to evaluation annually where the possibility of getting faire is existed. In the globalization context, the competition between schools has increased. One of the criteria that measure the quality of the school is the educational climate where the teachers are the most important part of it through their hard work to achieve the goals of the school and follow all the developments and innovations to give them to their students. This requires a degree of commitment. The fact that each renewal is introduced to the school requires additional work and training and rehabilitation courses.

This can be seen in paragraphs (14) that states, "I am ready to keep up with the latest developments to achieve the school's objectives" with a mean of (4.41), and paragraph (11) that states, "I have the willing to work in the school outside the working hours" with a mean of (4.02). In addition, paragraph (12) that states, "I am ready to do any task that gave to me in the school" had the same idea with a mean of (4.40).

The researcher believes that the relationship between principals and teachers is based on mutual respect, which is clearly reflected in the high degree of commitment of teachers [6] (Jiang, et. al., 2016). This is stated in
paragraph (18) that states, "Management relationship is built on mutual respect" with a mean of (4.46). Building social relationships between teachers and management strengthens cohesion, understanding, enhances the spirit of teamwork, reduces negative competition among teachers and highlights efforts among individuals in the interest of the organization and its objectives.

This can be seen in paragraph (7) that states, "I prefer the public interest over the personal interest" with a mean of (4.42).

Paragraph (3) that states, "The school motivates me to provide the best performance" came with a mean of (4.23). This is due to the high efficiency of teachers, in addition to the internal control, self-commitment and maintenance of the job, as well as by the prevailing positive educational teaching, the procedures of transparent policy and their fairly implementation, regardless of the demographic variables.

This stands out in both paragraph (1) that states, "I encourage parents to register their children in the school" with a mean of (4.38) and paragraph (4) that states, " The reputation of the school concerns me" with a mean of (4.72) a high degree of organizational commitment that is due to the job security.

This is attributed to the clear policy in the Ministry of Education that the funding of the school and the granting of the hours of the owners are in accordance with the number of students in the school and the reputation of the school, which encourage parents to register their children in the school guarantees the teacher continuity in work or increase in the proportion of the job or promotion.[7] (Sirnivasan, et. al., 2016).

It was noted that teachers are working intensively and seriously to ensure the superiority of their school in the educational and social fields to gain the confidence of the people on one hand and to win the respect of the principal on the other. The result of the study in this question was consistent with the studies of Kean et al., (2017), [8] Ari et al. (2017), [9] Mousa & Ruth(2016), [10] Kadiresen, et.al.,(2015).

4. Conclusion

Commitment is one of the most important conditions to survive in the age of competition between schools, so teachers understood that and they should have high belonging and double their efforts to keep their school on the map. Organizational commitment leads to attitudes and behaviors that are beneficial for the employee and the Organization. Commitment of an employee is a bonus for the organization, The results indicate that the teachers who belong to their schools are very committed, and make all they can in order to achieve the school goals, and There is a very great degree in the level of the organizational commitment among the teachers in Arab Israeli schools in Israel.
References: