

AKENTEN APPIAH-MENKA

UNIVERSITY OF SKILLS TRAINING AND ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT

**THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONGST ETHICAL LEADERSHIP OF PRINCIPALS,
TUTOR JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN
GHANAIAN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION: THE MODERATING ROLE OF GENDER**

ROBERT AMPOMAH

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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GENDER**

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DECLARATION

CANDIDATE’S DECLARATION

I, Robert Ampomah, hereby declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

SUPERVISOR’S DECLARATION

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development, Kumasi.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to look into the ethical leadership of principals, tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Ghanaian Colleges of Education. The research was guided by six hypotheses as indicated in chapter one. A cross-sectional survey was adapted for the study with the quantitative approach which was anchored in the positivist paradigm. The study used a sample size of 319 but the response rate that was gathered from the field was 250. Hence 250 was used in the analysis. Multivariate multiple regression, Structural Equation Modelling and Process Analysis were used to test the hypothesis. Ethical leadership was found to be a predictor of job satisfaction. Ethical leadership was not found as a predictor of organisational commitment. Job satisfaction was found to be a predictor of organisational commitment of College of Education tutors in Ghana. The study results revealed that organisational commitment moderated the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Gender moderated the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. The study revealed that gender was a significant moderator between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of College of Education tutors in Ghana. As a result of this, it was recommended that principals of CoE and the GTEC should look at avenues to increase the job satisfaction levels of their tutors. Principals and the governing councils need to focus on factors affecting the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (job satisfaction) of their tutors so that stronger commitment and greater loyalty may be demonstrated by the tutors.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my children and parents, Mr. J. K. Ampomah and Madam Mary Ateban, who will live on in our memories forever.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Study

Education will remain a vital tool for national development and the development of human cognitive and thinking processes, including the enhancement of wisdom. For as long as humans have existed, education has been critical in the spread of knowledge, truth, goodness, and beauty (Broudy, 2017). This means that if people do not get educated, they might not be able to do certain things or have certain skills. According to Frost (2019), leadership and teachers play important roles in making sure that our educational system grows. Teachers are responsible for not only making sure that students learn but also ensuring that the school system is safe (Stronge, 2018).

Transmitting knowledge to future generations and cultivating useful wisdom through schools and educational institutions help keep society alive and at the same time help the schools and educational institutions do their jobs (Sallis & Jones, 2013). Concerning leadership in the school, we envision strong, dynamic individuals commanding victorious armies, presiding over corporate empires from the apexes of gleaming skyscrapers, or guiding nations (Howieson, 2019).

Leadership studies began in the twentieth century and initially concentrated on the effectiveness of leaders in their jobs (Northouse, 2019). Since the beginning of civilisation, history has been focused on the study of its leaders (Gladden, 2019).

Yukl (2012, p. 8) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating

individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives”. Northouse (2019, p. 3) on the other hand defined leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”. These definitions suggest several components central to the phenomenon of leadership. Some of them are as follows: (a) Leadership is a process, (b) leadership involves influencing others, (c) leadership happens within the context of a group, (d) leadership involves goal attainment, and (e) these goals are shared by leaders and their followers. The fact that leadership is defined as a process implies that it is not a quality or attribute that just a few people are born with. Leadership is defined as a process that occurs as a transaction between leaders and their followers.

Leadership is often thought to be the most important factor in whether or not an institution succeeds (Hassan, Gallear & Sivarajah, 2018; Bass & Bass, 2009). Since Weber's research in 1946, leadership has become more systematic, which has allowed for the development of many different theoretical perspectives on leadership (Kaufman & Clatter, 2017). Therefore, Niesche and Gowlett (2019, p. 17–34) assert that "educational leadership schools infuse their programmes with the theory of business leadership". Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2017), however, argue that schools should be led by persons who appear to be superhuman. This ideal leader in the school will inspire and motivate teachers and other staff to work toward the vision of the educational institution. Bligh (2017) bolstered the argument made by Glickman et al. (2017) that leadership theory is based on trust and that trust is necessary for an organisation to succeed. This corroborates Asencio and Mujkic's (2016) assertion that interpersonal trustworthiness is necessary for leadership.

Collinson and Tourish (2015) point out that leadership theory is widely taught in schools and institutions of higher education, such as universities and colleges. Similarly, leadership is evident in business, politics, and every other field of human endeavour (Bolden, Hawkins, Gosling & Taylor, 2011). According to Wenner and Campbell (2017), society now expects much more of school leaders and in recognition of the enormous roles school leaders play, additional duties and responsibilities are imposed on them that are difficult to bear. Not only is the school leader accountable for academic achievement, but also for fostering a learning environment for both students and staff (Day, Gu & Sammons, 2016). In the case of a college principal, demonstrating your uniqueness by adhering to ethical codes and standards that earn your tutors' trust is extremely rewarding. Thus, ethics must be taken more seriously in colleges and other institutions of higher learning because tutors and administrators (principals) "face ethical dilemmas daily and are also responsible for future generations of moral education" (Haynes, 2002, p. 17).

The history of ethical leadership dates back to Plato and Aristotle, who were credited with developing ethical theory (Tuominen, 2016). The word ethics comes from the Greek word *ethos*, which means "customs", "behaviour", or "personality" (Gülcan, 2015). This is the origin of the term "ethical leadership". Primarily, ethics is concerned with defining and prescribing moral standards and behaviour (Ellemers, 2017). Ethics is a collection of values and moral principles that govern a person's or group's behaviour regarding what is right or wrong (Donaldson, 2016). For instance, Neher and Sandin (2017, p.3) thought of ethics as "the study of situations in which one can raise a question about whether something is right or wrong". This offers a set of procedures for determining for each individual what is right or wrong, good or evil.

Ethical leadership is defined as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2005, p. 120).

According to Benevene, Dal Corso, De Carlo, Falco, Carluccio and Vecina (2018), every organisation requires ethical leadership. Ethical leadership is critical to the management and administration of a successful college. However, reports indicate that there are “repetitive ethical scandals such as trick and corruption in corporate and public sector organisations today” (Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan & Prussia, 2013 p. 38; Kim and Brymer, 2011, p. 680). People are reportedly becoming irritated and dissatisfied with their leaders' performance as a result of the aforementioned (Brown et al., 2005). Employee awareness of these ethical issues is a factor in the recent increase in attention given to ethics and integrity concepts (Qing, Asif, Hussain & Jameel, 2020).

Leaders are expected to conduct themselves ethically when directing organisational members or employees (Qing et al., 2020). The beliefs and values of an ethical leader are founded on concepts such as trust, candour, consideration, charisma, and fairness (Deshpande, 2018). In recognition of the positive influence that ethical choices have on employees, greater emphasis has been placed on ethical research in recent times. Özan, Özdemir and Yirci (2017) indicate that ethical behaviours are classified into six broad categories: tolerance, justice, accountability, honesty, democracy, and respect. Tolerance requires both respect for alternative points of view and empathy (Pohling, Bzdok, Eigenstetter, Stumpf & Strobel, 2016). Justice ensures that rules are applied consistently (Conant & Conant, 2018). Accountability, according to Wiczorek and Manard (2018),

entails completing tasks and internalising professional principles. Honesty also implies avoiding deception and fraud, conducting business openly and truthfully, and treating others with justice and fairness. Honest people do not however intentionally lie, they do not even steal from others, and they do not claim untrue things (Kozodoy, 2020). Democracies protect individual consciences and necessitate deference to divergent points of view (Brettschneider, 2016). Respect establishes the ground rules for administrators' relationship development with their direct reports (Güngör, 2016).

The classroom environment is ideal for students to apply and internalise ethical principles. As such, Özan et al. (2017) assert that students develop their identity in school through teacher imitation. This is why schools must instil moral values in future generations, thereby ensuring social peace. Consistent with the above, Johnson (2021) also postulates that ethical principles dictate the moral obligations of school personnel. However, professional ethics is only beneficial if it is completely internalised and followed (Venkateswarullu & Srilatha, 2017). As a result, Shapiro and Stefkovich (2016) believe that ethical leadership is a substantial part of good school leadership today. This is because, without these fundamental ethical values, schools will be imperilled.

Ethical leaders take the necessary steps to make sound decisions which result in increased productivity, improved service quality, a more trusting environment, improved communication, and increased stakeholder flexibility (Stronge & Xu, 2021; Hitt, Miller, Colella & Triana, 2017). Thus, an ethical leader can influence others and help them reach a goal. For a long time, ethics has been looked at from many different angles as a subfield of philosophy (Brendel, Mirbabaie, Lembcke & Hofeditz, 2021). According to Jones, Michelfelder and Nair (2017), ethics education entails addressing global and

interdisciplinary issues across a variety of disciplines, including leadership. During the twentieth century, there was an "ethics boom," with an increased emphasis on ethics courses integrated into a variety of disciplinary curricula (Mitcham & Englehardt, 2019). This was attributed primarily to the importance of developing and implementing professional ethics in our daily work (Crane, Matten, Glozer & Spence, 2019).

Concerns have been expressed about the need to strengthen leadership ethics in institutions like the college because as Kondalkar (2020) noted, one of the most critical issues confronting organisations nowadays is poor ethical behaviours and a complete lack of ethical leadership, and that trust in leadership is gradually eroding as a result of a weak economy. Engelbrecht, Heine and Mahembe (2017) believe that ethical leadership is not limited to the characteristics the leader possesses. It is rather on value-based management, which entails adhering to ethical standards through communication and reward. Downe, Cowell and Morgan (2016) assert more broadly that ethical leadership encompasses both ethics and leadership. This is because ethical leadership is more than inspirational, values-based leadership. It is quite endearing to note that ethical leadership contains a transactional component that many people overlook. Hence, communication and a reward system encourage people to be more ethical (Usman, Hameed & Manzoor, 2018). It is a fact that the internationalisation of higher education has led to more demand for accountability and transparency, which has led to the development of quality culture and the need to address the challenges of globalised higher education (Smidt, 2015). As a result of the above, colleges of education in Ghana that train teachers need leaders who inspire trust, have charisma, and show integrity to be successful. Satisfying needs and desires in today's world

of work has increasingly come to mean satisfying individuals such as teachers to improve their lot and promote effective work (Nhunta & Nhuta, 2017).

In recent years, these assurances of satisfaction have developed a strong emotional component (Fernandez-Lores, Gavilan, Avello & Blasco, 2016). Employee job satisfaction is influenced by several factors (Judge, Zhang & Glerum, 2020).

Job satisfaction is a person's overall evaluation of his or her job as favourable or unfavourable. Job satisfaction means doing the work one likes, doing it well and being rewarded for own efforts (Aziri, 2011; Kaliski, 2007). Job satisfaction is a type of satisfaction that describes the contentment/happiness or cognitive attitude a worker or employee feels in doing the job or the task assigned (Olusegun, 2011).

Research on teacher efficacy demonstrates that a variety of variables affect teachers' job satisfaction and ultimately performance (Donohoo, 2018). College principals or school heads are among these factors, as they are the primary agents in establishing a relaxed, comfortable and desirable work environment (Khun-inkeeree, Yaakob, WanHanafi, Yusof & Omar-Fauzee, 2021; Dinger, 2018). Due to their social obligations, school authorities must interact with a wide set of individuals, including students, teachers, other staff members, parents, and inspectors, to ensure the success of each student (Agih, 2015). School leadership that is committed to strengthening teachers' willpower fosters attachment and typically results in increased effort, job satisfaction, commitment, and goal achievement (Agu, 2017). Research indicates that many people are changing careers (Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015). Employees are seeking organisations that provide opportunities for fulfilment in their work (Norbu & Wetprasit, 2021; Baruch, 2015). Hence,

job satisfaction is unquestionably becoming an increasingly important factor to examine in today's job-hopping society (Sims, Ruppel & Zeidler, 2016). It is believed that effective and efficient ethical leadership for teachers to stay and grow can make them happy and more committed to their jobs (Cansoy, 2019; De Nobile, 2017).

Organisational commitment of employees has also become a major concern in institutions including schools and colleges globally (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Since 1990, when Allen and Meyer published their scale on organisational commitment, the importance of organisational commitment has become a hot topic for discussion. It is argued that more should be done to develop measures of relevant commitment mindsets by doing a more in-depth, new, and comprehensive study of them (Jeanes, 2021).

Organisational commitment (OC), is defined as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation” (Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi 2019, cited Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979, p. 226). Jaiswal, Raychaudhuri, Rahman and Khan (2019) argued that OC indicates an employee's level of commitment to the organisation as well as identification with the organisation's values and aims. Darcy (2010) confirms that the current climate of organisations is sceptical regarding ethics. This lack of ethics and trust can be attributed to what Frank (2002, p. 81) calls the “shadow side” of leadership. These shadows include the negative influences of “power, privilege, deception, inconsistency, irresponsibility, and misplaced loyalties”. Unfortunately, over time followers become exposed to the consequences these shadow behaviours cause and lose trust in the integrity of their leader.

Leadership roles are frequently thought to require agentic qualities (e.g., speaking assertively, competing for attention, influencing others), which are typically associated with men, whereas communal qualities (e.g., accepting others' direction, supporting and soothing others, contributing to the resolution of relational and interpersonal problems) are typically associated with women. Because agentic traits are often required to succeed as a leader (Eagly and Carli, 2007), a mismatch between the female gender role and the leadership role may create internal hurdles that hinder more women from feeling themselves qualified for top positions. Women may reject applying for a job or a promotion if they perceive they lack any of the stated qualities, but men are more likely to apply if they possess even a few of the mentioned talents (Dickerson & Taylor, 2000).

According to organisational behaviour literature, gender discrepancies remain in institutions (Yadav & Rangnekar, 2015). There is broad agreement that gender inequalities exist in numerous workers' job perspectives (Piercy, Cravens and Lane 2001; Moncrief, Babakus, Cravens and Johnston 2000). Gender influences how individuals act and how their behaviour is interpreted (Aftab, Ali Shah & Khan, 2020). The role played by gender goes a long way to affect leadership, job satisfaction and commitment within the particular setup. In this direction it is prudent to factor this in the study. Research shows that females are perceived to be kind, relationship-oriented, and social, whereas males are perceived to be competent, achievement-oriented, and self-sufficient (Langford & MacKinon, 2000). In their 1986 study, Eagly and Crowley suggested that women are expected to take care of the personal and emotional needs of others, to deliver routine forms of personal service, and, more generally, to facilitate the struggle of others towards their goals (Thompson,

Bergeron & Bolino, 2020). Females exhibit more organisational commitment, according to studies (Taylor, Huml & Dixon, 2019; Aydin, Sarier & Uysal, 2011).

While the college of education community in Ghana expects tutors to support the principal to succeed, it is required of principals to ensure tutors' contentment with their jobs and to be committed to the college's vision and mission. In line with the Transforming Teaching, Education and Learning (2016) a college leader is any individual or group of individuals with the legitimate responsibility to lead or guide other individuals, teams, or the entire college organisation to accomplish the college's vision and mission.

The principal's role as a college leader is unique. The principal must use all of the skills and attitudes that are associated with ethical leadership to make sure the college succeeds. Hence, the principal's leadership effort in achieving the college's vision and mission is quite crucial just as it is for the other staff.

In Ghana, forty-six (46) colleges of education are currently campuses of public universities and are regulated by the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC). Principals are the administrative heads in the day-to-day running of the colleges of education and report to the college council. Hence, principals' ethical leadership expertise in achieving success in their daily business cannot be underestimated. This iconic leader (principal) in the college influences tutors' jobs and to a large extent their satisfaction and commitment.

Tutors are but one of the most important groups of employees at the colleges of education in Ghana. Tutors constitute a pivot around which students' overall success can be measured and the entire vision and mission of the college achieved. Given this, principals must work

towards achieving tutors' trust, job satisfaction as well as commitment. A lack of these factors has been linked to decreased productivity (Luz, de Paula & de Oliveira, 2018).

Many people are changing careers (Barley, Bechky & Milliken, 2017). This is because organisations, society, and labour markets are undergoing rapid change. Employees are seeking organisations that provide opportunities for fulfilment in their work (Siripipatthanakul, Jaipong, Limna, Sitthipon, Kaewpuang & Sriboonruang, 2022; Tomlinson, 2012). Therefore, job satisfaction is unquestionably becoming an increasingly important issue to examine in today's job-hopping society (Sims, Ruppel & Zeidler, 2016). In Ghana, teacher attrition is a problem that is frequently attributed to a lack of job satisfaction (Seniwoliba, 2013). According to Asare (2016), college tutors who do not like their jobs may look for jobs in other fields or in schools that teach the same thing and a lack of job satisfaction undoubtedly may affect one's commitment to work (Jackson, 2018).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Ethical leadership is an essential management technique that promotes effective and efficient schools (Göçen, 2021). However, this vital tool seems not to be applied productively by principals of colleges of education (Stronge & Xu, 2021). Principals perhaps lack essential ethical leadership behaviours needed for the effective and prudent management of colleges of education.

An informal interaction with some tutors of colleges of education in Ghana appears to reveal that some principals do not have concern for their staff members. Principals appear not to provide the needed support regarding tutors' motivation and job satisfaction. Other principals probably fail to relate well with the members of the college community. The tutors sounded dissatisfied with the job as some of them were leaving to join the traditional

public universities and technical universities in Ghana (Abdul-Rahman, 2021). Dampson (2010), cited Vendepuuye and Somi (1998) that teachers in Ghana were significantly dissatisfied and demotivated to perform owing to low remuneration and poor teaching conditions. These circumstances provide a bleak picture of teacher retention in Ghana. The above finding makes the problem of tutor job satisfaction and commitment critical. Furthermore, in an address at the World Teachers' Day Celebration in Ghana (2023), the Registrar of the National Teaching Council stated that the nation's education sector's high attrition rate poses a significant threat to Ghana's education and development. According to the Registrar, early this year (2023), approximately 16,000 Ghanaian teachers applied to the Department of Education in the United Kingdom for employment, and by June 13, 2023, 10,000 of the applicants with Ghana Teacher Licences had been certified to work in the United Kingdom without any further assessment (qualified teacher status test) by the UK government. (Addai-Poku, 2023, 8:37).

The available literature reveals that principals today lack ethical leadership behaviours that are essential for success (Stronge & Xu, 2021; Kaplan & Owings, 2017). Patience, honesty, justice, respect, communalism, concern for others (altruism), and role modelling are just a few of the ethical leadership activities that ought to be considered by principals. Abdul-Rahman (2021) reports that between September 2020 and June 2021 over 140 tutors across the 46 public colleges of education left to seek greener pastures. In Ghana, teacher attrition is a problem that is frequently attributed to a lack of job satisfaction (Seniwoliba, 2013). Tutors' job satisfaction and commitment are also influenced by ethical leadership behaviours (Ayers, 2010). According to Aytac (2015), female tutors have higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Eleswed and Mohamed (2013) also found that

job satisfaction tends to be higher for women and rises with age. Nartey, Annan & Nunoo (2018) postulate that research on college tutors' commitment is limited in Ghana. Therefore, the above discourse creates a huge gap for further investigation.

To fill this gap, the current study sought to find out the ethical leadership of principals, tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment in colleges of education in Ghana.

1.2.1 Gaps to be filled

To begin, Karakose (2007) conducted a quantitative study of tutors' perceptions of their school leaders' ethical leadership. The study utilised Yilmaz's (2006) ethical leadership scale which includes four dimensions: ethical communication, ethical climate, ethical decision-making, and ethical behaviour. The study was entirely demographic. As a result, further investigations need to be done on the dimensions of ethical leadership and its relationship with other educational constructs. The current study sheds light on ethical leadership behaviours in addition to job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Contextual factor such as geographical location is another gap the current study sought to address. Most of the works on ethical leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been conducted in the Western world (Damini, 2017). These works are different from the Ghanaian context because of cultural differences, values, and history among others. Hence, those works are less applicable to the Ghanaian context.

Besides, because there are no former studies on ethical leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the sampling of colleges of education in Ghana, it is hoped that this study will fill in a significant gap in this domain.

Again, multi-level analysis is also a gap narrowed by this study. Many studies focus solely on the individual-level analysis between ethical leadership and teacher outcomes. For instance, Arar, Haj, Abramovitz and Oplatka (2016) conducted another study on ethical leadership in education and its relationship with ethical decision-making in Israeli Arab school leaders (principals, vice-principals, and managerial staff such as directors and counsellors). A convenient sample with 150 school staff members was used. However, the current study used a multi-stage sampling procedure with a variety of methods to get a representative sample of tutors.

Aggrey-Fynn (2020), Nyarkoh (2016), Atiku (2013), Newman (2013) and Abdulai (2012) explored challenges encountered in colleges of education in Ghana but did not tackle ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and commitment. The study, therefore, sought to fill these gaps.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the ethical leadership of principals and to ascertain the ethical leadership behaviours they demonstrate and their effects on tutor job satisfaction and commitment in Ghanaian colleges of education.

1.4 Objectives

The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. Examine whether principals' ethical leadership predicts job satisfaction in the colleges of education in Ghana.
2. Examine whether principals' ethical leadership predicts organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.
3. Investigate whether job satisfaction predicts organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.
4. Investigate the moderating effects of organisational commitment on the relationship between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction in the colleges of education in Ghana.
5. Determine the role of gender as a moderator between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction in the colleges of education in Ghana.
6. Determine the role of gender as a moderator between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

1. H₁: Principals' ethical leadership will significantly predict job satisfaction in the colleges of education in Ghana.
2. H₁: Principals' ethical leadership will significantly predict organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.
3. H₁: Job satisfaction will significantly predict organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.

4. H₁: Organisational commitment will significantly moderate the relationship between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction in the colleges of education in Ghana.
5. H₁: Gender will significantly moderate the relationship between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction in the colleges of education in Ghana.
6. H₁: Gender will significantly moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of the study contribute significantly to the field of leadership studies by demonstrating how to transform educational institutions and organisations in general into more ethical institutions that model ethical behaviours and ultimately affect employees' work lives. The study's findings might influence the development of ethical qualities in educational leaders and the leadership behaviours taught in our schools.

The outcomes of this study shed light on how college leadership works to foster growth among tutors and other staff members. Again, the findings shed light on the ethical leadership influence that principals have on college climates. Again, the study will prompt principals to evaluate their leadership styles to improve the college climate. Vice principals, particularly those aspiring to be principals may use the outcomes of this study to develop a leadership approach that can improve their organisation. Tutors who want to become leaders in colleges or other educational institutions can also use the outcomes of the study to learn about ethical leadership behaviours that help institutions grow.

Education policy-making and regulatory bodies in Ghana, particularly the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC), the National Teaching Council (NTC), the Ministry of Education (MOE), and the Ghana Education Service (GES), as well as the governing councils of colleges of education and other supporting agencies such as the Transforming Teaching, Education and Learning (T-TEL), will be informed of policy decisions affecting colleges of education and teacher education in general. For instance, best leadership practices and incorporates into their training sessions in a bid to promote tutor job satisfaction and commitment. This research will enhance our collective understanding of ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment and add to the existing knowledge base on ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.

The theoretical significance of ethical leadership resides in its ability to affect tutors' conduct and attitudes. It has the potential to alter the ethical environment of an educational institution, such as the CoE, by influencing tutors' moral thinking, ethical decision-making, and overall ethical behaviour. Ethical leadership may also help to foster a culture of trust, fairness, and justice, which can boost tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In this study, the theoretical significance of job satisfaction stems from the fact that pleased tutors are more likely to demonstrate positive attitudes, such as greater levels of motivation, engagement, and commitment. Job satisfaction has been linked to a variety of organisational outcomes, such as teacher retention, productivity, and performance (Baluyos, Rivera & Baluyos, 2019; Wolomasi, Asaloei & Werang, 2019). It is hypothesised that when teachers are happy with their professions (Lavy & Bocker, 2018), they are more likely to engage in actions that benefit both themselves and the organisation for which they work.

The theoretical importance of the concept organisational commitment stems from its ability to impact tutors' conduct and performance. Tutors who are more committed to their organisation (college) are more likely to display characteristics such as a desire to go the additional mile, more engagement in organisational activities, and fewer aspirations to leave. According to the theoretical importance of these three variables, ethical leadership can favourably affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment among tutors. When ethical leaders build a helpful, fair, and ethical environment, tutors are more satisfied with their profession and more committed to the organisation (Sabir, 2021). This theoretical knowledge is critical for driving research, devising interventions, and enhancing educational leadership practices to improve tutors' well-being and performance.

In terms of the study's socio-economic significance to Ghana's growth, ethical leaders are more likely to maintain a fair and transparent educational environment, which develops trust among stakeholders and attracts investments. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment result in enhanced production, creativity, and efficiency, all of which benefit overall economic performance (Saha & Kumar, 2018). Ethical leadership is critical to preventing corruption inside organisations and throughout society (Gorsira, Steg, Denkers & Huisman, 2018). Leaders who exhibit strong ethical beliefs and integrity create an example that inhibits unethical conduct, bribery, and other corrupt acts. This contributes to a more open and accountable workplace, resulting in long-term socio-economic benefits. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are critical determinants of a country's ability to recruit and retain talent. Employees who are satisfied with and devoted to their organisations are more likely to stay with them, lowering turnover rates. This consistency

and continuity allow organisations to grow and maintain skilled workforces, promoting economic development and decreasing the phenomenon of brain drain.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study was restricted to variables such as ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, decision-making ethics, and behavioural ethics), job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work and communication), and organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitments). The study was restricted to principals and tutors in eighteen public colleges of education in Ghana.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Some respondents' readiness to participate in the study was marked with mixed feelings as they were sceptical about the implications of the responses and findings on their principals. Again, not all colleges of education in Ghana were covered which intrinsically limits the study. The study may also specify a need to triangulate self-reported data of tutors from their principals.

1.9 Definition of Key Terms

Leadership: Any deliberate strategy for persuading followers within an organisation to collaborate toward a common goal (Solomon, Costea & Nita, 2016).

Ethical leadership: It involves showing followers the right way to act, do things, and interact with others, as well as promoting these things through two-way communication, reinforcement, and making decisions (Igwe, Takwi & Gani, 2020).

Job satisfaction: It relates to the level of a person's job happiness. It is a state induced by a positive job evaluation. Thus, the term alludes to an employee's emotional investment in employment (Jalagat, 2016).

Organisational commitment: The degree to which a person recognises and belongs to a specific group (Hanaysha, 2016).

Affective commitment: The nature of a staff's inner thoughts and attachment to the organisation, as well as the choice to continue with the organisation and feel emotionally attached (Rodrigo, Aqueveque & Duran, 2019).

Continuance commitment: Commitment is based on the expense of leaving one's job or the need to remain because the cost of leaving is prohibitive (Galanaki, 2019).

Normative commitment: The moral and ethical obligations that compel staff to remain in an organisation (Tyler, 2021).

1.10 Organisation of the Study

The first chapter is on the background of the study. Statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research hypothesis, significance of the study, delimitations, limitations, and definition of terms were included. The second chapter addresses a review of the literature. The review consists of philosophical, theoretical, and conceptual frameworks as well as an empirical examination of the subjects under consideration. The third chapter explains the study's methodology, including the research design, research instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis plan. In chapter four, the study's findings and analysis are provided. The last chapter derives pertinent summaries, conclusions, and recommendations from the research findings.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Chapter two of the thesis examines the theoretical, conceptual, and empirical literature on leadership, ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Furthermore, various themes of ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment were also reviewed.

Finally, the review of the literature concludes with an in-depth examination of the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction, as well as ethical leadership and organisational commitment, gender and its relationship with ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.

2.0.1 Collection and Analysis Strategies for the Literature Review

In preparing the literature review for the thesis, the researcher looked for four types of sources. To begin, the researcher searched two offline libraries for books written in the areas of interest, ensuring that each source addressed the primary themes of this research: leadership, ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Another way the researcher added to the literature review was by using online databases of textbooks, peer-reviewed journal articles, and reputable web content to get more information. As a result, the most critical topics for the research were leadership, ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. These themes helped the researcher find many sources of information that were relevant to the study.

2.0.2 Literature Sources

To evaluate the sources, the researcher conducted a thematic literature review. This is a survey of the literature organised around pre-identified areas of interest, which are detailed in the preceding sub-sections. The analysis began by identifying the study's primary themes of interest and then categorising them under numerous sub-headings that assisted in the achievement of the objectives of the study. The researcher then carried out an in-depth examination of each source, stressing the implications of each pre-identified theme. This approach was used to collect, summarise, and examine the most informative and pertinent literature following the study's objective and overall purpose.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Social Learning Theory

The Theory of Social Learning is a psychological theory that was popularised by Albert Bandura (Allan, 2017). According to this theory, through observation, imitation, and modelling, people learn from one another (Umjaun & Narod, 2020). Individuals acquire new behaviours, attitudes, and values by observing and imitating others. The theory posits that behaviour is prejudiced by the consequences of one's actions and that people are more likely to repeat behaviours that lead to desirable consequences and less likely to repeat behaviours that lead to undesirable consequences.

To explain the main way that ethical leaders affect their followers, social learning theory (SLT) has been applied to ethical leadership (Masina, 2015, Mayer et al., 2009; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Brown et al., 2005; Thomas, Schermerhorn Jr. & Dienhart, 2004). According to the social learning theory's central tenet, humans can learn through both direct experience and observation (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012; Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Positive reinforcement of conduct and appealing role modelling are two components of the social learning theory that helps people influence others. The honesty and selfless drive of ethical leaders make them extremely alluring. Furthermore, they are seen as credible due to their stature and power within organisations. The modelling process works better when it can influence behaviour and manage rewards. Role modelling is a vital component of leadership and ethics, as it has been suggested by academics over time and social learning theory is aligned with their work (Zehndorfer, 2020; Raybourne, 2018; Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2008; Brown et al., 2005; Bass, 1999).

When employees observe what their leader pay attention to and track, the organisational culture can be reinforced (Ketprapakorn & Kantabutra, 2022; Schein, 2009). One way to incorporate both of these into the routine of an organisation is through reward systems. Although perceived ethical leaders frequently acted as consideration-oriented leaders. Gencel (2022) and Trevino et al. (2003) found that they also made use of transactional leadership skills. They frequently combine dependent rewards with unfavourable reinforcement to sway followers. A caring leader and a positive role model together may improve an employee's attitudes and behaviours at work. Leadership that upholds moral principles may influence how employees behave and perform at work (Peng & Kim, 2020; Dadhich & Bhal, 2008).

The social learning theory, which emphasises the role of modelling and observing behaviour, has substantial implications for ethical leadership. Specifically, ethical leadership is strongly influenced by the behaviour of leaders and their followers' learning from them by observing their behaviour. Research has supported the social learning theory in various contexts. For instance, studies have found that children are more likely to imitate

aggressive behaviour when they see it being rewarded and that people are more likely to adopt healthy behaviours if they see others being successful at those behaviours (Bandura & Hall, 2018). The theory has also been applied in the workplace, with studies showing that employees are more likely to adopt new practices and skills when they see others successfully using them (Allan, 2017). However, the social learning theory has also been criticised for being too simplistic and not accounting for factors such as motivation and individual differences in learning styles. Again, some have pointed out that the theory places too much emphasis on observational learning and ignores the role of innate factors in shaping behaviour (Bandura, 2021). The following are some of the ways social learning theory can influence ethical leadership: Ethical modelling: Ethical leaders need to model ethical behaviour if they want their followers to behave ethically (Asarkaya & Akaarir, 2021). The social learning theory proposes that followers tend to learn ethical behaviour by observing their leaders' actions. Therefore, ethical leaders need to model ethical behaviour consistently. The concept of Vicarious Learning in social learning theory suggests that people can learn from other's experiences without experiencing themselves (Illeris, 2018; Mezirow, 2018). Ethical leaders can use this approach to teach ethical decision-making by sharing stories about ethical dilemmas, describing the consequences of different ethical decisions, and discussing how to resolve ethical conflicts. Again, the social learning theory emphasises the importance of reinforcement in shaping behaviour. Ethical leaders can reinforce ethical behaviour by praising or rewarding those who behave ethically. Social learning theory also recognises the role of punishment in shaping behaviour (Rumjaun & Narod, 2020). Ethical leaders need to be willing to take disciplinary

action against those who behave unethically, as this sends a message that unethical behaviour is not acceptable.

The social learning theory is rooted in the belief that individuals acquire knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors through observation and imitation of others. Within the context of ethical leadership in a school, the social learning theory can be applied in the following ways:

The social learning theory's application in ethical leadership in a college highlights the importance of cultivating a culture where positive ethical behaviors are modeled, observed, and rewarded. By providing consistent examples of ethical conduct, leaders can influence individuals' actions and contribute to the development of an ethically aware college community. Thus, the social learning theory can significantly influence ethical leadership by helping leader model ethical behaviour, employ vicarious learning, reinforce ethical behaviour, and punish unethical behaviour. Ethical leadership is essential for building a strong organisational culture of ethics and accountability, and social learning theory guides the most effective ways to develop ethical leaders.

2.1.2 Cognitive Moral Development Theory

Another theoretical framework used for the ethical leadership of principals is the cognitive-moral-development theory. Lawrence Kohlberg created this idea, which states that people go through several phases of moral development (Nainggolan & Naibaho, 2022). According to this view, the ethical leadership of teachers entails encouraging moral thinking and ethical decision-making abilities among instructors, as well as establishing an atmosphere that supports moral growth. Kohlberg's theory of moral development describes how moral growth occurs in humans and animals.

Since the advent of psychology as a discipline, the nature and cognitive and affective underpinnings of moral judgement have been objectively explored. Although Piaget (1965) established one of the earliest systematic theories, Lawrence Kohlberg (1969) pioneered the first systematic theory based on actual study. Kohlberg's theory is characterised as a rationalist theory since it claims that logical thinking processes are the primary determinant of moral judgement, although emotional or intuitive processes are assumed to be engaged, at least in part, in moral judgement.

Kohlberg's theory of moral development has three levels (for a total of six stages) in a hierarchical framework (Ahmeti & Ramadani, 2021). These three stages follow a consistent sequence but relate to various forms of moral reasoning. The initial and major motive of the first level of morality (pre-conventional morality), which covers the first two phases (obedience and punishment; individual interests), is to avoid punishment and achieve pleasure. The individual does not comprehend or care that other individual, in addition to their desires, may have comparable aspirations and desires. As a result, the individual in this stage acts egoistically.

The individual then realises, in the second stage, that she can distinguish her desires from the desires of others and authoritative figures. The individual has a motive that is concerned with mutual connections and expectations at the second level (conventional morality), which encompasses the third and fourth stages (interpersonal; authority). Individuals at this level are primarily motivated by the need to be accepted and socially acceptable by others, as well as to carry out the instructions of those who are hierarchically superior. As a result, at this level, people define interpersonal relationships in terms of their standing in society. At the last and third stage (post-conventional morality), the individual develops an

autonomous moral notion, yet in moral judgement, she frequently refers to a universal set of principles (such as justice and fairness). According to Kohlberg, this stage corresponds to a universal set of moral standards that all humans must follow, and moral supremacy is defined as attaining this level. A feeling of universal justice is the normative moral superiority that a rational human being must obtain as a consequence of cognitive thinking, as stated in Kant's categorical imperative. In this stage, the individual views morality as a goal in itself rather than a means to an end.

Kohlberg's theory applies to ethical leadership and the other constructs (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) in the sense that individuals at higher stages of moral development are more likely to engage in ethical leadership behaviours such as promoting fairness, justice, and ethical decision-making. Within a school, research may be conducted to evaluate the link between an administrator's level of moral reasoning and their capacity to develop an ethical culture, lead by example, and make value-based judgements. It can also investigate how workers' perceptions of ethical leadership impact their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to Kohlberg's theory, people in higher stages of moral growth have a better awareness of internalised values and principles.

In a college or school, this may translate into teachers and staff members who are more content with their professions when they are aligned with the institution's mission, values, and ethics. Research may look at how employees' moral thinking connects to their job happiness by looking at characteristics like job autonomy, recognition, and a sense of purpose in their work, all of which are essential components of job satisfaction.

According to Kohlberg's argument, people in higher stages of moral growth have a greater sense of responsibility for adhering to ethical ideals. In a school context, this may imply that workers with more advanced moral reasoning are more likely to feel dedicated to the organisation's aims and ideals. Research can look at how an individual's moral reasoning connects to their organisational commitment, looking at things like loyalty, the desire to go above and beyond their work function, and the willingness to advocate for the organisation's best interests. Furthermore, Kohlberg's theory may be used as a foundation for developing treatments and programmes in colleges to improve ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.

Leadership development programmes, for example, might focus on strengthening moral reasoning abilities among administrators, while staff training programmes can try to cultivate ethical decision-making and behaviour. Such activities can help to create a more ethical educational climate, greater work satisfaction, and higher organisational engagement among staff members.

Overall, the Cognitive Moral Development Theory helps ethical leaders in schools understand the moral reasoning of individuals, develop moral education programmes, serve as role models, create a moral culture, and resolve conflicts effectively, promoting an environment that stimulates ethical behaviour and development.

2.1.3 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, individuals have distinct levels of requirements that must be met in a hierarchical order. The extent to which teachers' fundamental physiological and safety requirements are addressed, as well as their desires for belonging, esteem, and self-actualization, may impact their job happiness. This is the

first and most commonly recognised theory of motivation, created in the 1940s and 1950s by Abraham Maslow (1943). Abraham Maslow felt that everyone is fundamentally good and that everyone has a continually expanding inner drive with enormous potential.

Maslow's (1954) needs hierarchy system is a widely used approach for categorising human motivations. It consists of five kinds of motivations, with lower-level demands at the bottom that must be met before higher-level wants may be considered. Stephen, Robbins and Timothy Judge's (Acquah, Nsiah, Antie & Otoo, 2021) five main levels of needs are depicted in the following hierarchical sequence:

Physiological needs: The first level of Maslow's hierarchy contains fundamental needs such as food, water, and shelter. In the context of employment satisfaction in a college of education, this would imply fair salaries, health benefits, and a safe and comfortable work environment. If these demands are not addressed, employees may become dissatisfied and lose motivation to perform successfully. The second level pertains to the demand for stability and security. This might be accomplished at a college of education by providing employment stability, supporting management, and a clear framework of policies and procedures.

Employees who feel secure in their positions are more likely to experience job satisfaction as they do not have to worry about uncertainty or job instability. **Social needs:** The third level is associated with social connections, belongingness, and acceptance. In the context of a college of education, this could be fulfilled through fostering a positive work environment, supportive colleagues, and strong teamwork. Employees who have social connections and feel valued by colleagues are likely to experience higher job satisfaction.

Esteem needs: The fourth level pertains to the need for recognition, respect, and appreciation. This may be accomplished in a college of education by providing opportunities for professional development, recognising successes, and providing opportunities for advancement. Employees who receive appreciation for their efforts and have the opportunity to advance professionally are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Self-actualization: The ultimate level of the hierarchy is self-actualization, which encompasses the desire to fulfil one's full potential and contribute meaningfully. This may be supported at a college of education by offering autonomy, the opportunity for creativity, and a sense of purpose in the job. Employees who feel fulfilled in their employment and believe they are making a difference are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

The level of aspiration of a person is strongly tied to the hierarchy of wants, and attitudes will influence the individual route that the person chooses to satisfy his needs (Chowhan & Shekhwat, 2015). Maslow's final need category was that of self-actualization. In conclusion, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory can be applied to job satisfaction research in a college of education by emphasising the importance of meeting basic physiological needs, providing job security, fostering social connections, recognising accomplishments, and providing opportunities for growth and self-actualization. Colleges of education may establish a healthy work environment that fosters job satisfaction among their workers by fulfilling these needs.

2.1.4 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

According to the Self-Determination Theory, people have fundamental psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Tang, Wang & Guerrien, 2020). Teachers are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs when they have a sense of autonomy

in their work, believe they are competent and have pleasant social relationships. Self-determination theory (SDT) is a wide theory of human personality and motivation that focuses on how an individual interacts with and is influenced by his or her social environment.

SDT addresses intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and explains how these motivations impact situational reactions in several areas, as well as social and cognitive development and personality. SDT focuses on the fundamental psychological requirements of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, as well as their critical role in self-determined motivation, well-being, and progress (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Finally, SDT shows how the social and cultural environment may either help or hinder people's fundamental psychological needs, perceived sense of self-direction, performance, and well-being.

Ryan and Deci (2000) define self-determination theory (SDT) as a metatheory of human motivation and personality development. It is regarded as a metatheory in the sense that it is composed of multiple "mini-theories" that combine to provide a full knowledge of human motivation and functioning. Individuals naturally and deliberately orient themselves towards progress and self-organisation, according to the fundamental humanistic assumption. People attempt to develop and understand themselves by incorporating new experiences, cultivating their needs, wants, and hobbies, and interacting with others and the outside world. However, SDT contends that people might become dominated, fragmented, and alienated if their core psychological demands for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are disrupted by an inadequate social context. In other words, SDT is based on the idea that the person is always engaged in a dynamic interaction with the social world, both aiming for need satisfaction and responding to environmental

situations that either support or obstruct needs. People become interested, curious, connected, and whole as a result of this person-environment interaction, or they become demotivated, ineffectual, and alienated.

SDT's basic components, namely its six mini-theories, work together to provide an account of human behaviour across life domains such as work (Fernet, 2013), relationships (La Guardia, and Patrick 2008), education (Reeve and Lee, 2014), religion (Soenens et al. 2012), health (Russell and Bray 2010), sports (Pelletier et al., 2001), and even stereotyping and prejudice (Legault, Green-Demers, Grant & Chung, 2007). In the following ways, SDT theory may be used to work satisfaction among tutors in CoE. First, Autonomy Support: According to SDT, persons who have a sense of autonomy are more satisfied with their work. In the context of a college of education, this might include giving instructors and staff autonomy over their teaching techniques, curriculum design, and professional development opportunities.

Research might look into how autonomy-supportive practices affect job satisfaction among professors and administrators. SDT emphasises the significance of feeling competent in one's profession. Opportunities for professional advancement, skill development, and recognition of one's competence can all impact job satisfaction at a college of education. The link between perceived competency and work satisfaction among various jobs within the institution, such as academics, staff, and administrators, may be investigated through research. SDT emphasises the importance of establishing positive interactions and connections with others. Strong collaborative networks, helpful colleagues, and pleasant encounters with students can all improve job satisfaction at a college of education. The function of social support and relatedness in generating work satisfaction within the college

community may be studied. **Intrinsic Motivation:** According to SDT, individuals are more satisfied when they discover intrinsic value in their job and enjoy it. Investigating elements that promote intrinsic motivation at a college of education, such as engaging teaching techniques, meaningful curriculum, and purposeful professional objectives, might shed light on the link between intrinsic motivation and work satisfaction. **Fulfilment of Basic Psychological Needs:** According to SDT, work satisfaction is linked to the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Investigating the extent to which these fundamental psychological requirements are addressed inside the college of education might give insight into aspects that increase work satisfaction among teachers and staff.

Overall, applying self-determination theory to job satisfaction research in a college of education can provide a framework for understanding the factors that contribute to a fulfilling work environment and aid in the identification of strategies to improve job satisfaction among the various stakeholders in the college community.

2.1.5 Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) is a theoretical framework that explains social interactions as a series of exchanges involving costs and benefits. This theory has been widely used in social psychology, sociology, and organisational behaviour to study the nature of social relationships as well as the motivations that underlie them. According to the social exchange theory, people connect with others and form relationships when they may reap advantages and rewards that are at least as significant as the expenses and sacrifices involved (Garba, Babalola & Guo, 2018).

Scholars such as Blau (2017) and Homans (1958) established the Social Exchange Theory (SET) to explain what impacts social behaviour. In an essay titled "Social Behaviour," Homans (1958) was interested in the psychological circumstances that lead people to engage in trading. Dijkstra (2015) cited Homans (1958) as saying that social behaviour includes the exchange of both material and non-material items. Homans (1958) believes that individuals who give a lot to others seek to receive a lot in return, while those who receive a lot from others are under pressure to give a lot to them. To balance the trades, this influence mechanism tends toward equilibrium. In a school, what you contribute can be a cost, while what you receive can be a benefit. Blau (2017) was fascinated by the exchange as the cornerstone of social existence and social structures. Blau (2017) examined exchange processes as the micro foundation of macro social events. Blau (2017) says that reciprocal relationships happen when people who have made commitments to each other keep those commitments.

The social exchange theory posits that human resource management (HRM) practices establish a positive exchange connection in which staff reciprocate with good attitudes and behaviour toward the organisation and/or employment (De-Winne, Marescaux & Sels, 2019). The primary idea of SET, according to Jose and Mampilly (2015), is that employees see satisfactory HRM practices as an organisation's commitment to them. Staff pay back by exhibiting good behaviour, such as employee commitment. As a result, they are more prone to trade their devotion for resources and benefits from their employer. Individuals who obtain economic and socio-emotional resources from their organisations, for example, feel obligated to repay the organisation in kind. According to the social exchange theory, obligations result from a sequence of interdependent, reciprocal interactions between

individuals. The theory also suggests that individuals are motivated by a sense of fairness, equity, and reciprocity in social exchanges (Stafford & Kuiper, 2021; Cross & Dundon, 2019). This means that individuals tend to interact with others who provide similar levels of benefits and costs, and they are more likely to remain in relationships where there is an equitable balance of benefits and costs.

The social exchange theory's research has revealed that, based on their particular needs and preferences, people tend to assess the advantages and disadvantages of social contacts differently. The advantages of a job, for instance, may be valued more highly by those who prioritise monetary rewards than by those who prioritise social relationships and emotional pleasures.

The core assumption of SET is that relations progress over time into trusting, loyal, and reciprocal commitments if the parties adhere to particular "exchange standards." Norms of exchange typically contain reciprocity or repayment standards, whereby the actions of one party elicit a response or action from the other. SET is the theoretical basis for research such as that of Chatzoudes & Chatzoglou, (2022) and Chew & Chan (2008). The social exchange theory has been assessed for its focus on rational decision-making and its failure to account for the complex emotions and motivations that underlie social exchanges, despite its usefulness in explaining social interactions. Some critics have suggested that the theory fails to address the role of trust, intimacy, and other emotional factors that play a significant role in shaping social interactions.

Despite these criticisms, social exchange theory is still a popular theoretical framework for analysing relationships and motivations in employee commitment. It offers a useful instrument for researching the dynamics of social relationships and a framework for delving into motivations in a range of contexts, from friendships to workplace interactions.

In conclusion, the SET arguments suggest that social exchanges between employees and organisations, such as leadership and HRM practices, can contribute to employee commitment. By analyzing colleges through the Social Exchange Theory lens, researchers and educators can better understand the motivations, interactions, and dynamics within the educational setting. This knowledge can inform the development of strategies to enhance positive social exchanges and create a conducive learning environment.

2.1.6 Job Design Theory

Job Design Theory argues that job qualities such as skill diversity, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback influence employee motivation and commitment. Teachers' commitment to the organisation tends to be stronger in schools when they are provided relevant and demanding duties, have autonomy in decision-making, receive feedback on their performance, and regard their work as significant. Job design is defined as: “the specification of the contents, methods, and relationships of jobs to satisfy technological and organizational requirements as well as the social and personal requirements of the job holder” (Armstrong & Taylor, 2023, p. 494). According to another definition, job design “is the function of arranging tasks, duties and responsibilities into an organisational unit of work” (Yusof, Masrek, Noordin & Johare, 2012, p. 4). Job design should begin with a study of job requirements, or what has to be done, and then incorporate the following motivational characteristics: autonomy, responsibility, choice, and,

eventually, self-control (Oo, 2019). Job design is the specification of the content, methods and relationship of jobs to satisfy technological and organisational requirements as well as the social and personal requirements of the job holder (Belias & Sklikas, 2013). The following criteria for job design were proposed: maximise the degree of specialisation; minimise the time required to do the job; minimise the level of skill required; minimise learning/training time; maximise the use of machines; and minimise the degree of flexibility in the performance of the job.

Job design theory seeks to create a work environment that is happy and meaningful, as well as one that improves employee performance. The Work Characteristics Model (JCM), created by Hackman, Lawler and Oldham, (2015), is a well-known work design theory. Job qualities such as skill diversity, task identity, work relevance, autonomy, and feedback, according to this concept, impact an individual's psychological state, motivation, job satisfaction, and overall commitment to the organisation. Using job design theory to improve organisational commitment in colleges may be advantageous in several ways. For starters, broadening the variety of skills necessary can make the work more exciting and demanding for employees. Schools and colleges can provide chances for teachers to acquire and use a variety of skills, such as organising events, mentoring students, or participating in developing curricula. Second, giving people a sense of responsibility and ownership for the entire endeavour helps boost their commitment.

Colleges may assign specific projects or tasks to tutors, such as directing a research study or designing a new course, that allow them to see the real results of their efforts. Employees are more devoted when they believe their effort is having a positive influence on others. Colleges can emphasise the significance of instructors' involvement in influencing

students' lives, emphasising how their efforts help to build future generations. Employees' job happiness and dedication can also be increased when they are given autonomy and control over their work. Schools and universities can allow teachers to pick their teaching techniques, establish their curriculum, and adjust instructional materials to fit the specific requirements of their pupils.

Individuals can enhance their performance by receiving regular and constructive feedback. Performance assessment systems may be used in colleges to offer tutors feedback on their teaching effectiveness, student results, and professional growth possibilities. Finally, achieving work-life balance is critical for employee commitment. To improve job satisfaction and commitment, colleges should create rules that encourage flexible work hours, promote employee wellness programmes, and provide chances for professional growth. Implementing these job design theory-aligned practices can lead to increased organisational commitment in colleges, resulting in more engaged and productive tutors.

2.1.7 The Social Role Theory (SRT)

The Social Role Theory is a theoretical paradigm that examines gender as a moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction (Yordanova & Dineva, 2022). Gender disparities, according to the SRT, are caused by the roles that men and women play in society rather than by fundamental biological differences (Elprana, Felfe, Stiehl & Gatzka, 2015). Gender inequalities in the workplace can appear as gender inequality, including inequities in pay, promotions, and opportunities for training and development.

According to the SRT, people take on roles in society based on their gender. These roles involve culturally determined expectations, conventions, and actions connected with being

male or female. Certain gender-related assumptions and stereotypes are likely to exist in the environment of a college, impacting leaders' and workers' perceptions and actions.

Gender may affect the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction in colleges, according to this theory. Female leaders, for example, may face greater challenges or be held to different standards than their male colleagues. This can influence their capacity to lead ethically and, consequently, their work satisfaction. Female principals may face greater pushback or have to work harder to be viewed as ethical leaders, which may have an impact on tutor job satisfaction. Gender roles are taught through socialisation, which takes place through interactions with family, classmates, and institutions such as universities and the media, according to the SRT (Eagly & Wood, 2012).

Occupational segregation is a fundamental workplace expression of SRT. Women tend to be concentrated in particular jobs and industries, such as teaching, nursing, and clerical work, whereas men tend to be concentrated in other occupations and industries, such as engineering, finance, and construction (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2021). Because male-dominated industries tend to pay more and provide more possibilities for promotion than female-dominated sectors, occupational segregation can contribute to gender inequality (Schneider & Bos, 2019). In the context of workplace disparities in gender, research has shown support for social role theory. For example, Eagly and Karau (2002) discovered in a meta-analysis that women in male-dominated jobs were more likely to face discrimination than women in female-dominated occupations, implying that occupational segregation leads to gender disparity. However, SRT has limits in explaining gender disparity in the workplace. Critics of social role theory say that it fails to address the

possibility of discrimination and prejudice in hiring, promotion, and salary choices, which can lead to gender disparity in the workplace (Correll, Benard & Paik, 2007).

According to the SRT, those who comply with their gender roles are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. In a college context, this might imply that individuals who adhere to gender stereotypes, whether consciously or subconsciously, may have a higher feeling of belonging, fulfilment, and alignment with their duties, favourably boosting job satisfaction. It is crucial to note, however, that these gender-related variables are not deterministic or fixed, and that the actual impact of gender on the link between ethical leadership and work satisfaction may vary based on a variety of factors.

2.1.8 Psychological Contract Theory

The Psychological Contract Theory serves as a theoretical foundation for organisational commitment as a moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. According to this idea, employees and their organisations have a psychological contract that contains reciprocal expectations, duties, and promises (Schalk & De Ruiter, 2019). Yale (2020) postulates that a psychological contract generally describes any trading relationship in which two people transfer valuable items. When employees believe their leaders are ethical, they believe the organisation follows through on its commitments and duties. This view reinforces their commitment to the organisation, resulting in greater job satisfaction.

The central tenet of this theory is that social relationships have always consisted of undefined responsibilities and the allocation of uneven power resources (Blau, 2017). Psychological contracts are formed as a result of an individual's social and organisational experiences. In terms of organisational analysis, social exchange conceptions are visible in the work of Hansen (2019). Conway and Pekcan (2019) introduced the phrase

'psychological work contract' to explain the embeddedness of perception power and the values held by both sides (organisation and person) to the employment relationship.

Significantly, this earlier study demonstrates that employment relationships are affected by both social and economic transactions (Nienhüser & Warhurst, 2018). Rogozińska-Pawelczyk's (2020) efforts to conceptualise the psychological contract as a sort of social trade was motivated by the need to comprehend the function of subjective and ambiguous exchanges between two parties: employer and employee.

To this end, the expectations of both parties, as well as the amount of mutuality and reciprocity, had to be evaluated simultaneously to explain the causes of agreement and divergence. Employees frequently join organisations with preconceived assumptions about their commitments (e.g., loyalty, acting in the best interests of the firm) and their employer's obligations in return (e.g., skill development opportunities, competitive remuneration). The early shape of the psychological contract is influenced by perceived employer promises made by recruiters and others (Van Wyk, Chrysler-Fox & Van Niekerk, 2019). However, neither the employee nor the employer can specify all of the specifics of what may be an endless employment relationship. As a result, psychological contracts tend to alter over time as a result of new salient information.

Recruiting approaches have less influence on employees' psychological contracts than their post-entry experiences (Clarke & Scurry, 2020). As a result, recruiters, supervisors, formal policy, human resource practices, and colleague experiences within the organisation may all impact employees' psychological contract views during their employment. It is worth emphasising that these theories are not mutually exclusive and may be used in tandem to

explain the moderating influence of organisational commitment between ethical leadership and job satisfaction in schools of education.

In terms of gender in college, two theories (the social role theory and the psychological contract theory) suggest that societal expectations and stereotypes can impact male and female academic experiences and choices. They also emphasise the significance of implicit agreements and expectations between students and tutors, which can lead to gender disparities in treatment and opportunity. Efforts may be made to promote more equal educational experiences for all students, regardless of gender, by recognising and addressing the influence of these beliefs.

2.2 The Concept of Leadership

Leadership has become increasingly visible in recent years across a broad range of disciplines and cross-disciplines, and the study of this critical concept is rapidly becoming the focus of organised curricular and campus programmes (Akerstrem & Grnbk-Pors, 2016). The study of leadership dates back to the early nineteenth century and the term "leader" first appeared in a text dating back to 1300 (Kirby, 2020). In contrast to Northouse's (2019) assertion that leadership studies began in the twentieth century. The concept of leadership is all about the ability to inspire, support, and instil confidence in the individuals required to accomplish corporate goals (Dubrin, 2016). Leadership was defined by Daft (2015) as an influential association among leaders and followers that seeks authentic alterations and results that reflect their shared purpose.

Leadership is a reciprocal relationship between a leader and those who are led (Smith, Escobedo & Kearney, 2020). In schools, it usually entails efforts to improve the school's ability to achieve its objectives effectively. Diaz (2021) suggests that every school has a

set of situational imperatives that school administrators and others attempting to lead schools must address. There are five different types of demands placed on school leaders: first, administrative (to keep things running smoothly). Secondly, instructional (to provide teachers and students with the assistance they need to succeed). Thirdly, the government (influences how scarce resources are allocated). Four, interpersonal communication (effectively collaborating with and through teachers and others to complete tasks), and five, attitude (promoting deliberate dialogue and influencing decisions about competing standards of "good" practice judgments and choices). Leadership entails setting project objectives, exerting an influence (on other people, organisations, and society), achieving impact (on the project's outcome), and maintaining integrity (honest project dealings) (Al-Malki & Juan, 2018). Nicolaidis (2019) sees leadership as a broad, process-oriented approach that encompasses activities such as questioning processes, demonstrating how to act, motivating others to act, and establishing a common goal for the organisation. Schoemaker, Heaton and Teece (2018) however, see leadership as someone who is a visionary and risk-taker equipped with critical thinking. Additionally, they claim that leadership is about demonstrating creativity, daring, invention, and adaptability to change, as well as having the ability to look ahead; by doing so, you overcome failures and learn from others. Van Dun, Hicks and Wilderom (2017) assert that leaders are efficient, persistent, organised, administrative, and detail-oriented individuals capable of delegating work effectively to their followers. As a result, Goleman (2021) believes that effective leaders are collaborative individuals who get along well with others. These are the ideas that leaders should espouse and strive to emulate throughout the organisation. As Kuenzi, Mayer and Greenbaum (2020) emphasised, an organisational leader is a role model, who

teaches employees their expected roles, and rewards and punishes behaviours. The leader serves as the role model in this scenario; the leader guides the project team through goal setting and action to ensure the project's success. Dwight Eisenhower, on the other hand, demonstrated what it takes to lead. A leader is someone who others will follow. Eisenhower was blatant with this one (Sanders, 2021).

Blackmore (2017) also thought that leaders were assessed for what they did and how they did it. Until the twentieth century, the why of leadership was largely unexplored (Megheirkouni & Mejheirkouni, 2020). During this period, essential leadership ideals arose. Since then, leadership theories have been developed, tested, and assessed to ascertain the characteristics and situations that foster the development of effective and sustainable leaders. Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) were of the view that leadership is a relative concept that changes depending on the historical context, environment, culture, institution, and social identity. Hence, Bratton (2020) noted that effective leaders may establish the principles, begin with the results, design the future, establish a leadership brand and ensure their leadership's sustainability. Senge (2017) held a similar view, stating that a leader must begin with the results, as leadership is about what an individual can accomplish. In other words, leadership is about an individual's identity, abilities, and knowledge. Bligh (2017), however, postulates that certain leadership outcomes (e.g., organisational capability and employee productivity) are felt within an organisation, while others are delivered within the organisation (e.g., investor confidence, consumer share, and community reputation). It is as a result of the above that, Tyler (2021) thought of leadership as establishing the fundamentals and adhering to and understanding certain fundamental standards, while those who do not are considered poor leaders. More broadly, Peters and Austin discussed

"educational leadership" in detail in a chapter titled "Excellence in School Leadership" (Azhar, 2018, p. 18). According to the authors, an educational leader should demonstrate the following characteristics: "Symbolism and vision" The head teacher or principal is responsible for communicating the institution's values to faculty, students, and the broader community. It enables the institution to maintain an unwavering focus on its primary customers. Educational leaders must encourage creativity in their staff and be prepared for the inevitable failures that will inevitably occur. The leader must cultivate a sense of community among the institution's pupils, students, parents, teachers, and support personnel to create a "family" culture (Lenzi, Sharkey, Furlong, Mayworm, Hunnicutt & Vieno, 2017). It is, therefore, necessary that a good educational leader needs to have vision, rhythm, passion, fervour, and zeal. Thus, leadership is seen as a pattern of influence manifested through a personal or a group's inventive ideas and creative accomplishments outside the boundaries of established institutions (Goertzen, Kastle, Klaus & Greenleaf, 2019). Mango (2018) asserts that leadership requires accountability in the sense that the leader is accountable to their followers and accountable for keeping promises. Meanwhile, Dopson, Ferlie, McGivern, Fischer, Mitra, Ledger and Behrens (2019), maintain that leaders who believe in sustainable leadership frequently track and measure their performance as well as the behaviours of their followers.

Ulrich and Smallwood (2012) emphasised that an individual can only achieve sustainable leadership by operationalizing, quantifying, and tracking desired changes and behaviours among followers. Thus, a leader must possess certain unique characteristics to accomplish objectives. Furthermore, a leader must motivate followers to work effectively and efficiently to accomplish the organisation's objectives. Thus, leaders' ability to influence

employees and assist them in developing certain characteristics necessary to achieve their organisation's goals is critical. Investing in the organisation and assisting it in achieving its goals through the effective use of available resources can also contribute to organisational performance improvement (Anderson & Sun, 2015). Nonetheless, leadership success is highly dependent on the personality of the leader. Giltinane (2013) asserts that leaders must possess distinguishing personal characteristics. They must have a strong sense of self-worth, courage, a sense of purpose, be ethical, and be capable of prioritising effectively.

It is evident from the conversation that the school's leadership has a substantial impact on the relationships that shape the school's culture and climate. Therefore, Boyer (1983, p. 219) points out that, "invariably the principal made the difference in schools where achievement was high and where there was a clear sense of community".

2.2.1 Ethical leadership

The principle of ethical leadership has grown in popularity in recent years and has gained increased attention in the academic world. Ethical leadership is particularly important in educational institutions, as leaders are responsible for shaping the minds and characters of future generations. This literature review aims to explore the topic of ethical leadership among college of education principals. It has become clear that leaders are the most important part of an organisation. As a result, ethical leadership has been identified as a key way for our schools to stay open (Chedondo, 2019). Brown et al. (2005, p. 120) define ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making". Ethical leadership has been more broadly defined as a leader's use of social influence to promote

ethical conduct among followers. An ethical leader's primary objective is to foster mutual trust, respect, and social justice among his followers, as well as to identify viable solutions to stakeholder problems (Wong, Wang, Wang & Tjosvold, 2019). Ethical leaders perform these primary objectives without regard for prejudice or suspicion. Saha, Cerchione, Singh and Dahiya (2020) posit that ethical leadership is a management term that describes leaders who integrate ethics into their personal lives and managerial duties. Until recently, there was no distinction between ethics and morals (Zigon, 2020). Indeed, a cursory examination of college course catalogues from any decade or century reveals that course content is largely the same, regardless of course title (morals or ethics), (Wagner & Simpson, 2008). Both ethics and morality refer to action-guiding norms or principles that are designed to better things by guiding appropriate behaviour. Sotirova (2018, p. 55) asserts that "effective leadership and ethical leadership are inextricably linked". To run a school well, educational leaders should think about ethical and moral issues when they act. According to Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015), the ethical leadership of principals is crucial for fostering a supportive learning environment and supporting students' academic performance. Zhu, Zheng, He, Wang and Zhang (2019) assert that ethical leadership entails fostering an open, accepting culture that supports moral conduct, moral decision-making, and moral performance criteria. As a result, ethical college leaders must preserve their integrity and other standards of ethics and provide an example for others to follow.

The dimensions of ethical leadership in educational institutions have been the subject of studies in recent times. For instance, moral awareness, emotional intelligence, personal integrity, justice, and service were recognised as five behaviours of ethical leadership in higher education (Luque-Martnez, Salmerón-Manzano & Garca-Fernández, 2019). The

concept that ethical leaders need to have a strong moral conscience, emotional sensitivity, self-awareness, justice, and a dedication to serving others is reflected in these aspects.

Organisational behaviour scholars have established a systematic framework for defining ethical leadership and examining its consequences in organisations (Thompson, Zald & Scott, 2017). As a result, ethical leaders demonstrate characteristics such as workplace honesty and justice, concern for and respect for employees, and goal orientation combined with ethical boldness (Shakeel, Kruyen & Van Thiel, 2019). Effective ethical leadership practices are critical to the success of any organisation such as the college, as ethical leaders foster an environment of trust within the organisation by assuring employees that someone is looking out for them (Zaim, Demir & Budur, 2021). Ethical leaders motivate employees to work even harder to advance the organisation (Al Halbusi, Williams, Ramayah, Aldieri & Vinci, 2021). Brown and Trevino (2005) believe that ethical leaders strive to model normatively suitable behaviour through their actions or inactions and interpersonal interactions and to promote such behaviour among followers using two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making. A leader serves as an example of ethical behaviour in this regard. By combining these concepts, ethical leadership is seen as the ongoing practice of exerting a positive influence on decisions that are the correct methods of conduct in any circumstance that serves the greatest good (Svara, 2021). This practice must be backed up by a strong leader's moral character and communication abilities. Effective educational leaders must foster an ethical work environment for all employees (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016; Duignan, 2007). Moreover, these leaders are accountable for communicating ethical issues, serving as role models, and establishing the

necessary mechanisms for responsible employee development (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020).

It is said that college principals who act ethically are more likely to appreciate the needs and rights of their employees and treat them fairly (Downe, Cowell & Morgan, 2016). In an attempt to define what an ethical leader is, it was discovered that the term "ethical leadership" can refer to "moral individuals" as well as "moral managers." Zhu, Zheng, He, Wang & Zhang (2019) observed that moral individuals refer to the qualities of an ethical leader, while moral managers deal with how a leader uses tools like leadership to encourage ethical behaviour at work (Rehman, 2016). In this regard, Scholl, Mederer and Scholl (2016) indicate that honesty and trustworthiness are two of the most important characteristics of "moral people," who are defined as ethical and principled decision-makers who care about others and adhere to the highest ethical standards in their individual and professional lives. "Moral managers" establish and disseminate ethical standards, enforcing them through rewards and penalties to ensure that all members of the organisation adhere to them (Mohiuddin & Hossain, 2016). These leaders uphold their convictions and act with integrity in everything they do (Ololube, Elechi & Uriah, 2018). The principal's role as an administrative head at a college of education has evolved steadily over the last few decades. This could be due to Ghana's recent curriculum revisions. As a result, the college principal's position has been dubbed one of the most critical and powerful in the fight to improve educational processes.

Studies have been carried out on the behaviours and leadership styles of effective principals in other jurisdictions across the globe (Stronge & Xu, 2021). The impact of ethical leadership behaviour on outcomes including student engagement, and academic success

has been the subject of some studies. A study by Cheng, Hu and Wang, (2019). for instance, discovered that ethical leadership was favourably linked with teacher job satisfaction, which in turn was positively related to student engagement and academic success. In a similar vein, studies by Zhang and Wu (2020) and Joosten, Belfi and Harth (2018) discovered a positive connection between ethical leadership and academic achievement in students.

Despite the necessity of ethical leadership in higher education, there are still certain difficulties. For instance, according to some research, college principals may encounter ethical dilemmas while balancing conflicting demands or pressures from various stakeholders, such as parents, students, and government officials (Cheng & Jaramillo, 2019). In line with Fakhar, Naveed-ul-Haque and Asif (2019), some college principals may also lack the education or support necessary to encourage ethical behaviour and hold others responsible for it.

Aryati, Sudiro, Hadiwidjaja and Noermijati, (2018) assert that ethical leadership can result in positive outcomes and mitigate the risk of numerous negative outcomes within an organisation. Because of this, ethical leadership may be the most important part of creating a system that encourages ethical behaviour. When examining how ethical leadership affects results, it became clear that the most critical process is social learning theory modelling (Javed, Rawwas, Khandai, Shahid & Tayyeb, 2018). This means that if an ethical leader exemplifies ethical actions and behaviours, followers will almost certainly emulate them. From the foregoing, followers of ethical leaders are more likely to recognise the organisation, have a greater sense of self-efficacy, and have a stronger leader-follower association (Ilyas, Abid & Ashfaq, 2020).

As leaders, ethical college principals educate their students about their identity, who they are, and what they can become, as well as how to live and live well (Gerpott, Van Quaquebeke, Schlamp & Voelpel, 2019). Effective principals are adept at securing funds, technical assistance, community support, and other practical contributions that increase the college's flexibility in the pursuit of innovation, adaptation, and improvement as an institution (Horn & Staker, 2017). However, without ethics, these objectives are unattainable. Ethical leadership can be viewed through the lens of love's curative and rejuvenating powers, with the recognition that leadership is a reciprocal relationship with followers. The ethical leader's objective is to assist, and his enthusiasm for leadership is motivated by compassion (Friedman & Gerstein, 2017). The fact that people are attempting to reduce ethical leadership to love demonstrates this trend even more clearly (Harris, Carrington & Ainscow, 2017). On the other hand, Speight (2016) argues that observing and quantifying unethical behaviour can be difficult due to the rarity of certain leadership characteristics. Any attempt to quantify immoral behaviour in isolation may prove insufficient. Again, individuals who engage in unethical behaviour are more likely to conceal it and avoid detection. Rather than viewing ethical leadership as a way to keep people from doing the wrong thing, Kalshoven, van Dijk and Boon (2016) argue that it should be viewed as a way to empower people to do the right thing. An ethical leader upholds fundamental ethical standards of behaviour (Alshammari, Almutairi & Thuwaini, 2015). To be an ethical leader, you have to follow a more universal standard of right and wrong (Svara, 2021). Thus, ethical leadership is viewed as both an inquiry process – inquiring about what is right and wrong and a way of setting an instance for followers and others regarding the correctness or incorrectness of particular actions (Mbonu & Worlu,

2018). According to Lam, Loi, Chan and Liu (2016), an ethical leader empowers followers by giving them a voice and empowering them to communicate concerns and issues to management. This is consistent with the findings of Khokhar and Zia-ur-Rehman (2017) who discovered that when it comes to leading group-level behaviour, ethical leadership requires a distinct realm of extra-role behaviour. Thus, ethical leaders are expected to solve problems and bring out the best ideas from others, which benefits the entire organisation and its constituents. Ilyas, Abid and Ashfaq (2020) and Brown and Mitchell (2010), also thought that leadership is the most crucial element in promoting ethical behaviour in organisations. This discovery supports the earlier assertion. Additionally, according to Brown and Trevino (2005, p. 595), "a more descriptive and predictive social science approach to ethics and leadership has remained undeveloped and fragmented, leaving researchers and practitioners with little solutions to even the most fundamental problems, such as what constitutes ethical leadership." The definition of ethical leadership, according to Brown and Trevino (2005, p. 120), is "the demonstration of normatively appropriate behaviour through one's actions and interpersonal relationships, as well as the promotion of such behaviour to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making." Brown et al. (2005) looked at how leadership might promote ethical behaviours. Brown, et al., developed a measure of ethical leadership and investigated the construct's supervisory-level validity. They hypothesised that ethical leaders have a considerable impact on the ethical behaviour of their followers through social learning.

Employees appreciate leaders and the ethical standards they build or fail to establish because leaders are critical authority figures in organisations, capable of capturing staff attention and holding them accountable for ethical standards adherence. Yet again,

because ethical leaders are courteous and fair, their interactions are based on mutual benefit and reciprocity (Wang, Zhou, Bao, Zhang & Ju, 2020). It has been found that employees' opinions of their supervisors' ethical leadership are related to how likely they are to bring problems to management, how committed they are to their jobs, and how happy they are with the supervisor (Thornton, 2021). This demonstrates that ethical leaders' behaviour serves as a model for followers' behaviour and ethical leaders communicate and justify their behaviour to followers (Kirby, 2020). Furthermore, ethical leaders desire to act ethically consistently; they do so by establishing ethical standards within the organisation, promoting ethical behaviour among employees and penalising unethical behaviour (Mthembu, 2017). This means that an employee's willingness to voice their concerns is contingent on the leader's behaviour (Ashford, Sutcliffe & Christianson, 2009). Given this, the most significant findings from the research on ethical leadership may be how the subject benefits not only the college principal but also the entire college community (Day & Sammons, 2016). It is a fact that ethical leaders contribute to the improvement of the workplace. This is because, Engelbrecht, Heine and Mahembe (2017) discovered that when an organisation's leadership adheres to ethical standards, the work environment improves and becomes more positive. After all, each employee is aware that they will be treated with respect, which also contributes to a more pleasant work environment. Furthermore, it makes the workplace more inviting. Many people believe that ethical leadership is inclusive, which corroborates what Engelbrecht et al. (2017) stated. These leaders are willing to listen to others' perspectives and, once again foster an accountability culture. Ethical leaders aspire to be highly respected and take their jobs very seriously (Babalola, Stouten, Euwema & Ovadje, 2018).

As an ethical leader, Perry and Perry (2018) and Mendonca and Kanungo (2006) say that you need a lot of help from other people to be successful. In that sense, the college principal requires that everyone, particularly the executive team, be on the same page (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016). Hence, when a leader acts unethically, apathy grows. It can be difficult to halt the spread of apathy down the hill. This means that an ethical leader needs followers to stay loyal to be successful. Cohen (2017) said that someone who changes his or her ethical standards can harm the whole group. While some people believe that their job requires them to act a certain way, others may disagree (Ciulla, 2020). That is why this style of leadership places a high premium on structure and rules. Again, ethical leadership must be unambiguous at all times (Shakeel, Kruyen & Van Thiel, 2019). There is no room for doubt in the structures of ethical leadership. At all times, communication must be candid and open. Those who collaborate on a project spend significantly more time ensuring that everyone is on the same page. Thus, ethical leadership encourages everyone to work together and avoid being divided at all costs. "Moral manager" and "moral person" were the two terms used by Khan and Javed (2018) and Trevino, Brown and Hartman (2003, 2000) to describe ethical leaders. Some characteristics are believed to distinguish ethical leaders. The traits that people exhibit over time are characteristics. Integrity is a key trait of the individual leader, according to studies on the qualities of ethical leaders (Algahtani, 2014; Kouzes & Posner, 2008; Brown et al., 2005; Khuntia & Suar, 2004; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002). Honesty, competence, fairness, and humility have also been linked to ethical leadership (Ugu & Tantua, 2021). The effectiveness of a leader's honesty, integrity, and trustworthiness is a key theme in a lot of leadership studies (Saha, Cerchione, Singh & Dahiya, 2020; Brown et al., 2005).

When leaders exhibit certain characteristics and actions, followers can identify them and predict their future conduct. Leaders are regarded as ethical when they act per moral standards (Trevino, Hartman & Brown, 2000). Ethics-driven leaders show consistency in their words and deeds. This constancy in ethical leadership builds trust among followers when combined with integrity, fairness, and concern for others (Zhu, May & Avolio, 2004). Positive follower attitudes and behaviours are related to employee trust in their leaders (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009). The conclusion that ethical leadership may be linked to higher levels of staff job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour is therefore logical.

Ethical leaders extend their behaviour into their decision-making by using frameworks that are founded on values (Lowery, 2020). They make an effort to take the larger community into account when making decisions and to do so fairly and objectively. A moral person is a composite of qualities, actions, and choices that collectively define the leader's reputation for moral leadership (Pasricha & Rao, 2018). These qualities are crucial for building a rapport of trust with followers. Employees who think their leaders are reliable display higher levels of pro-social attitudes and behaviours (Sharma, Lal & Sharma, 2021; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009). Greater staff work-related attitudes and behaviours, such as civic engagement, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction, may be evidence of this pro-social behaviour (Biswas & Mazumder, (2017).

An ethical leader must be a moral person first. However, finding a moral leader is only one aspect of ethical leadership. It hinges on the acts of the leader. The moral person is referred to as the ethical component of ethical leadership. In line with Trevino et al. (2000), the second "pillar" of ethical leadership is the moral manager.

DuBrin (2022) indicates that leaders' actions help to highlight actions that are appropriate and acceptable inside the organisation. Employees can see how leaders act, which helps to build their reputation and show that they support moral principles. It is an additional method through which organisational members can decide what matters most within the organisation. Therefore, a leader's actions must be consistent with the shared ethical norms. Since these standards encompass honesty, integrity, and consideration for others, the reliability with which they are upheld enables staff members to develop stable and dependable opinions of their manager, behaviour expectations, and working conditions (Choi, 2021). Employees may therefore have a more favourable opinion of their employer, which could result in more upbeat and effective attitudes and behaviours (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Moral leaders stress the significance of moral conduct (Ouakouak, Zaitouni & Arya, 2020). They include values in organisational discourse. Ethics are also frequently discussed. Through constant communication, ethical leaders convey that ethics and values are important to both the leader and the organisation. "Being values-based managers, ethical leaders are regarded as "tenacious," "steadfast," and "uncompromising." "These fundamental concepts remain constant from day to day, month to month, and year to year" (Trevino, Brown & Hartman, 2003, p. 18).

Moral leaders employ praise and punishment as an allowance for verbal communication to signal desired behaviour (Mostafa, Farley & Zaharie, 2021). This is also true of ethical leaders. To influence followers' behaviour, it is essential to reinforce ideals while achieving goals. It serves as a reminder that upholding moral principles and achieving performance goals are both crucial (Trevino et al., 2003; Trevino et al., 2000).

2.2.2 Dimensions of Ethical Leadership

Many people in the world want more work and accountability from the leaders of business groups and organisations. People who read about leadership have not paid as much attention to ethical issues as they have done to other leadership concepts. They have only looked at ways and strategies that focus on other leadership concepts instead of ethical issues. However, being a leader without ethics is undesirable.

2.2.3 Communicative ethics

Communicative ethics is founded on social science norms. This is a meta-ethical examination of the strategies that actors (individuals and groups) can employ in an attempt to resolve (economic, political, and every day) conflicts of interest (Van't, 2021). When Aristotle wrote "Nicomachean Ethics," he discussed how to be a good person when speaking with others (Kenny, 2016). According to Bowles, Collingridge, Curry and Valentine (2020), this was a sort of agreement on how individuals and groups can develop virtues or positive characteristics.

It was evident in ancient Greece, where much debate centred on how to use speech to persuade others to agree with you on public issues (Herrick, 2020). There was much discussion of bravery, temperance, honesty, and justice during those debates in ancient Greece. When in charge, ethical leaders are expected to pay special attention to how they speak, write, and act (McCray, Beachum & Reggio, 2021; Gerpott, Van Quaquebeke, Schlamp & Voelpel, 2019). This is because, in the field of communicative ethics, justifications are made for or against specific communication behaviours, words, and actions (Gălăţanu & Sandulovici, 2022). Recent works in communicative ethics have emphasised both practical leadership and compassion in civic and public spheres, which is

what this work is about (Tronto, 2020; Lipari, 2017). As an employer, Shapiro and Stefkovich (2016) assert that it is critical to consider how to make and justify a decision that is made for the right or proper reasons. To a larger extent, communicative ethics examines how to make judgements based on what has occurred in written and spoken form (Priest, Goodwin & Dahlstrom, 2018).

All of these are critical components of communication in organisations such as the college: understanding communication theories, knowing when to follow rules and when to question them, exercising discernment and judgement in particular situations in the principalship, environments, and audiences, and articulating sound and just reasons for a decision among your staff. This is evident in the way people communicate with one another when communicative ethics is used (LaFollette, (Ed.). 2020; Yang, Kang & Cha, 2015).

The Jewish intellectuals Martin Buber and Emmanuel Levinas of the twentieth century were two of the most important thinkers in this field of communicative ethics (Idjakpo, 2021; Schröder, 2020). Based on Buber (1996) cited in Kent (2017), people should treat one another with mutuality and reciprocity and should regard one another as "I-It" and "I-Thou". "I-it relationships" are those in which we treat others as objects and keep them at a distance. Relationships in which we treat one another as vulnerable individuals are referred to as "I-Thou" relationships and these relationships are characterised by trust and intimacy (Hess, 2021; Taylor, Kent & Xiong, 2019).

Christian, Susanta and Putra, (2020) assert that communicative ethics is about putting another person's needs ahead of one's own and not viewing them as an extension or carbon copy of one's own. Kent (2017) extended and supplemented the discussion by

demonstrating how communicative ethics make sense of values, identities, relationships, cultures, and groups. If you understand what these virtues are and how they are defined, you will agree with Chen, Hung-Baesecke and Chen (2020), who examined the role of communicative ethics in achieving community action that values openness, interdependence, and the value of others. Iphofen (2016) said that making decisions about communicative ethics, especially when it comes to ethical behaviour, is not always easy and can be time-consuming and unpleasant.

Communicative ethics affects how we make decisions and interact with the world around us. This helps us figure out what it means to be an ethical human communicative agent in a diverse world. Individuals interested in learning about these ethics must become more conscious of their communication style and deliberate over their words and actions (Huda & Teh, 2018). Ethical leaders who practice communicative ethics are part of a postmodern trend that calls into question traditional ethical perspectives such as virtue, duty, and consequentialism (Johnson, 2020). This transition is referred to as "postmodernism" (Chedondo, 2019). Postmodernism examines prevalent human assumptions to "deconstruct" the notion that humans are free, autonomous, and rational agents. Furthermore, because humans are communicative creatures, they are interdependent, interconnected, culturally based, and irrational. According to this view, ethical choices concerning how we treat others, take into account cultural, contextual, and rational factors in our work and interpersonal environments (Cornish, 2020). Individuals interested in communicative ethics examine both theoretical and practical entry points (Treadwell & Davis, 2019; Banks, 2016). They employ a variety of strategies and have a lengthy history.

Communicative ethics is thought to be a group of persons who share a common goal of identifying what is good and maintaining civil and ethical discourse through research that examines both the positive and negative aspects of communication (Sunstein, 2016). It makes no difference what method or approach is used, because the objective is to comprehend and investigate the nature of communication ethics across a variety of contexts and expressions, and the method plays little role in that (Thompson, 2013). Arnett, (2017) and Ballard, Bell McManus, Holba, Jovanovic, Tompkins, Charron and Swenson-Lepper (2014) indicate that as part of its centennial celebration, the National Communication Association's (NCA), Communication Ethics Division recommends that leaders teach communication ethics in a way that takes into account the idea that communication shapes the world in which people communicate. Ting-Toomey and Dorjee (2018) said that to live in a more ethical world, it is important to teach ethically mindful communication. To be an effective and competent communicator, a great deal of skill and knowledge is required. These groups of people are honest when they communicate. They take responsibility for the effectiveness of their words and how they affect people in a variety of situations. It is necessary to engage people in moral debates for them to recognise how important it is in their own lives. Wang and Hackett, (2016) thought that ideas about what is good, right, and virtuous are demonstrated. A lot of people use these ideas when they talk about virtue and utilitarianism, as well as the categorical imperative and theories of justice (Lindebaum, Geddes & Gabriel, 2017).

Communicative ethics research is not only adaptable but also pervasive. It is, therefore, crucial in our school system. Communicative ethics research can be used in any situation or environment where communication takes place and decisions are made, so it can help

people make better decisions (Pearson, 2017; Varis, 2015). What distinguishes the concept as a whole, however, is its emphasis on assisting us in comprehending "how should I respond?" as it exists within and emerges from all forms of communication. Wilde (2016) argues in this context that communicative ethics has a lot to say about how we live together in a world of extreme and frequently incommensurate differences, particularly in an organisation attempting to realise its vision and goal.

2.2.4 Climatic ethics

Ethics is the ability to tell the difference between what is right and wrong, good and evil, and to act under what is good and right (Ciulla, 2020). When an ethical code is present, it establishes a set of rules or principles to be followed. Hence, noncompliance can have several negative consequences, including expulsion from the organisation. According to Katitaş, Doğan and Yildiz, (2022), organisational climatic ethics refers to an agreed understanding of what constitutes ethical conduct and how ethical issues should be treated inside the establishment. Their analysis is predicated on Teresi, Pietroni, Barattucci, Giannella and Pagliaro's (2019) observation that a single organisation can have multiple climates.

The ethical climate or climatic ethics is viewed as a subset of the organisational climate in this instance. The majority of research findings emphasise the critical nature of evaluating climatic ethics from a multifaceted perspective (Chen & Hou, 2016). Engelbrecht, Mahembe and Wolmarans (2017) assert that an organisation's climatic ethics is determined by its members' perceptions of what is right and wrong within the organisation. Again, they argue that corporations are social actors responsible for the ethical or unethical behaviour of their employees.

A study by Xu, Caldwell and Anderson (2016) showed how employees use different ethical standards and different ways to think about moral issues. Manroop, Singh and Ezzedeen, (2014) cited Kohlberg's (1981) three types of climatic ethics: egoism, altruism, and principle, as well as three types of analysis: individual, local, and global. Egoism seeks to maximise personal interests. Benevolence also seeks to maximise pleasure and/or minimise inconvenience for an organisation as a whole, and the principle places a premium on accountability in following laws, rules, and standards (LaFollette, 2020). Cross-classifying these dimensions shows that there are nine different types of ethical environments. However, some studies have put friendship and team interest in the caring category, while self-interest and corporation interest have been put in the instrumental category (Saliani & Eslami, 2016).

2.2.5 Ethics in decision making

Shapiro and Stefkovich (2016) postulate that the first thing in the process of making ethical decisions is moral awareness or the identification of moral dilemmas. They emphasised that defining a moral issue requires an interpretive process in which a person assesses if a situation involves a moral dilemma or whether a moral norm or principle is applicable. Identifying an ethically significant challenge is crucial since it probably facilitates the initiation of ethical decision-making and so enhances the chances of ethical behaviour (Schwepker Jr, 2017).

The ethical decision-making process has long been recognised as a critical criterion to consider when forming an effective organisation such as a college (Roszkowska & Melé, 2021). To ensure ethical decision-making in an organisation, it is necessary to first understand how ethical choices are made by individuals in an organisational setting (Ferrell

& Fraedrich, 2021). As a result, Kinicki (2008) also postulates that individuals in organisations are frequently expected to make ethical choices in the same way they do in other areas of their personal lives, and as Kinicki (2008, p. 249) correctly stated, "the success of an organisation is more hinged on its management's ability to make sound and effective decisions."

In general, moral awareness research has followed one of two paths. The first method was used by the researchers, who looked at people's ethical or moral sense (Schwartz, 2016). Ethical decision-making is the ability to think about the moral consequences of a decision (Vitell, 2021). As demonstrated by Ciulla (2014) in her leadership book, ethics is the lifeblood of leadership. Indeed, leadership and ethics must be inextricably linked. Ciulla (2014, p. 13) defines "good" in her book entitled: *Ethics the Heart of Leadership* as "morally and technically sound or effective". According to Ciulla (2014), leadership is ethical, and an effective leader is both ethical and effective. Meredith, Shafer and Mantel Jr. (2017) designed a simulation exercise in ethical management in which there was a competition between college students and professional managers. In contrast, the student and younger age groups that make the most unethical judgements, the study found that groups with higher performance made the most moral decisions. As a result, the link between group performance and ethical behaviour remains a mystery. Sendjaya, Pekerti, Hartel, Hirst and Butarbutar (2016) investigated the idea that members of organisations with varying levels of moral development may render less accurate ethical judgments. They found no evidence of this effect. They also failed to identify any ethical benefits of collective ethical decision-making. So, we do not know if organisations can improve their morals more than the average of their members (Kohlberg, 2016). Similarly, Bazerman and

Banaji (2004, p. 150) stated that "efforts to enhance ethical decision-making should focus on increasing our understanding of our psychological proclivities". However, Zollo, Pellegrini and Ciappei (2017) opine that the framework of ethical decision-making in organisations is based on the idea that contextual factors have a big impact on how people make decisions and act is contingent on the stages of a person's cognitive and moral growth, with the latter stages being less vulnerable to contextual effects (Oboh, Ajibolade & Otusanya, 2020).

2.2.6 Behavioural ethics

Yasir and Mohamad (2016) defined behavioural ethics as individual behaviour that is evaluated or subjected to universally accepted moral standards of behaviour. Thus, behavioural ethics research focuses on explaining individual conduct in the context of broader social prescriptions. Several researchers have concentrated their efforts on immoral behaviours such as lying, cheating, and stealing. Therefore, the study of behavioural ethics is the systematic and expectable ways in which individuals make ethical decisions and assess the moral character of others that go against intuition and the greater good. Swayer (2018). As implied by this description, leaders are interested in scrutinising not only their actions but also the judgements of others' decisions. For instance, ethical leaders are concerned with researching the systemic deviations of humans from our intuitive expectations and social goals (Griffin, Phillips & Gully, 2016).

In the field of ethics, similar research that focused on social rather than situational factors showed that the way other people act can affect how we act. Hildreth, Gino and Bazerman (2016) and Gino and Galinsky (2012) have demonstrated that the moral activities of just one other person affect human moral behaviour. Cadsby, Du and Song (2016) also

discovered that when individuals are exposed to an in-group member's unethical behaviour, they are more likely to engage in unethical behaviour. Thus, they are more likely to emulate the behaviour and act dishonestly. This is supported by Stanish (2017) who explained that drawing on past research on social norms, the extent to which people are impacted by social norms of dishonesty is partially determined by the association between the initiator and the follower.

Gino (2015) points out that people always view dubious behaviours displayed by members of their in-group (or people who are similar to them) as more satisfactory than those displayed by members of their out-group (or people whom they perceive as dissimilar). Even when the relationship we have is extremely brittle or faint, the behaviour of others can impact our own. For example, sharing a birthday or first name with someone who has acted dishonestly may cause us to act unethically as well (Gino & Galinsky, 2012). Another characteristic of behavioural ethics is organisational linguistic practices (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2019). Lindebaum and Geddes (2016) show through empirical data collected across four organisations to indicate that the degree to which persons freely debate ethics within an institution is an accurate predictor of ethical behaviour within that organisation. Similar to personal situations, "moral muteness" in organisational settings appears to encourage unethical behaviour (Csillag, 2019). When all other factors are held constant, this relationship has a lot to do with the impact of language on the development and content of cognitive schemas, and consequently on moral awareness and decision-making. Donaldson (2016) indicates that at any point in time, people may answer differently when asked about their morality. "People's thoughts and behaviour are frequently governed by a "working" level of moral self-esteem that fluctuates in response

to situational influences," (Monin & Jordan, 2009, p. 10). Situations can affect aspects of the self-concept and thus influence behaviour through this mediator, as opposed to mediating the link between self and behaviour.

Persons assess their previous moral and immoral behaviours while they keep track of moral credits (good deeds from the past) and moral debits (bad deeds from the past) when deciding whether or not to do something immoral (Lin, Ma & Johnson, 2016). Gino and Ariely (2016) established that enhancing a person's sense of how moral they are can give them the freedom to do bad things in the future. Behavioural choice research tells the difference between System 1 and System 2 thinking, which may help explain why our moral preferences are not always the same inside an organisation (Bazerman & Sezer, 2016). The initial system of thought (system 1) embodies our instinctive decision-making, which affects employee behaviour and work production (Litvaj, Ponisciakova, Stancekova, Svobodova & Mrazik, 2022). This is perceived as being natural, effortless, implicit, and emotional. The second system of thought (system 2) is natural and efficient, and it is appropriate for the great majority of daily decisions. System 2 refers to the way we think when we are systematic and ordered. This system is more conscious, explicit, purposeful, and logical (Shaked, Schechter, Ganon-Shilon & Goldratt, 2017). The most important thing that research on System 1 versus System 2 thinking and joint versus separate preference reversals has taught us is that changing how we think can change how we act and this has a major effect on how we make ethical decisions. This has ramifications for both individuals and societies. Our choices have the potential to cause significant harm to organisations. Behavioural ethics sees an opportunity to assist professionals such as college principals to better understand their ethical behaviour and compare it to their ideal ethical

behaviour. We think that people can only do the things (and meet the ethical standards) that their more reflective selves tell them to do if they think about their ethical failings and the differences between what they want to do and what they do.

In light of the foregoing, Chamorro-Premuzic (2016) claimed the idea that a person's dissimilarity can interact with problem features to influence moral awareness. Considering attention from a social cognitive perspective, Tu and Lu (2016) argue that individuals' cognitive predispositions can influence their ability to pay attention to information. They stressed the alterations among utilitarians, who prefer to focus on the outcomes of ethical decision-making, and pragmatists/formalists, who prefer to concentrate on the means of ethical decision-making. To demonstrate a hierarchical link in which formalism offers a more comprehensive and all-encompassing framework for ethical decision-making, they connected these frameworks with Kohlberg's (2016) stages of moral expansion. Both utilitarians and formalists identified moral issues including injury. However, utilitarians were much less likely to recognise moral problems involving simple infractions of behavioural norms. The most influential social science theory of ethical decision-making is still Kohlberg's (2016) theory of cognitive moral development. In reply to hypothetical moral issues, the Kohlberg interview elicited reasoning. Kohlberg discovered that with time, ethical reasoning grows increasingly sophisticated. Six stages of moral assessment are proposed in the theory, each of which is subsumed into three main categories.

With regards to this theory, persons pass through stages in a fixed, unalterable order because higher stages demand cognitive capacity that is absent in earlier levels. The person makes moral decisions based on either respect for authority and aversion to punishment, which is Stage 1; or reciprocity in links (e.g., one hand washes the other), which is Stage

2, at the lowest two phases (pre-conventional level). The middle two stages (conventional level) of moral judgment are more externally focused and are based on either the expectations of significant individuals (Stage 3) or conventions or regulations (Stage 4). The highest level (principled) individuals make moral decisions for themselves while taking into account accepted norms of justice and human rights. According to research, the majority of adults operate at the conventional level, which means that rules and conventions as well as significant persons in their lives have a significant influence on their moral decisions (Waddock, 2017). As there is little empirical support for Level 6, it is crucial to reiterate that it is only a theoretically stated stage. These findings have important implications for organisational behavioural ethics. Al Halbusi, Williams, Ramayah, Aldieri and Vinci, (2021) maintain that if the majority of individuals' conceptions of right and wrong are very sensitive to external influence, it becomes critical to regulate such behaviours through consideration of norms, peer conduct, leadership, reward systems, climate, and culture, among other factors.

In conclusion, this literature review highlights the relevance of ethical leadership of college principals in promoting a positive college climate. Ethical leaders are expected to possess the moral consciousness, emotional empathy, personal integrity, justice, and service needed to foster ethical behaviours. As tutors and students especially look up to college principals as role models, ethical leadership is crucial in shaping the ethical character and moral outlook of future generations.

2.3 Job satisfaction

In a variety of contexts, job satisfaction is viewed as an essential element of a staff member's working experience. Job satisfaction is characterised as the relationship an individual has with his or her job, coworkers, and attitude, which influences how people feel about both positive and negative organisational environments (Inuwa, 2016). It deals with an employee's overall happiness with precise aspects of the job, including the actual work, coworkers, supervision and compensation, working conditions, organisational policies and procedures, and advancement opportunities (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014).

College tutors' performance is inextricably linked to job satisfaction, defined as what the tutor receives and feels in exchange for professional services (Lam & Lam, 2019). Indeed, job satisfaction is the expansion of a positive emotional attitude and love for one's job (Shafique, Kalyar & Ahmad, 2018), which is what it means to be happy at work. The college tutor's work morale, discipline, and performance all reflect this mentality. Tutors are unavoidably responsible professionals who fear being undisciplined, performing poorly, and opting out of being present at work, communicating effectively with students, colleague employees, leaders, and more importantly, not fully committing to the organisation (Bugdol, 2018). Singh and Onahring (2019) use the concept of planned behaviour to demonstrate that the connection between satisfaction and performance is the same as it was in the past. In line with Putranto, Setiajatnika and Fahmi (2018), there is no disagreement about the link between job satisfaction and individual success. However, there are some discrepancies in the data that suggest that job satisfaction is not necessary for performance growth.

Kuwaiti, Bicak and Wahass (2020) indicate that compensation, job security, working conditions, prospects for advancement, recognition, and relationships with coworkers are all elements that affect job satisfaction in higher education institutions. According to the authors, a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic variables unique to each employee affects job satisfaction. Delic, Kozarevic, Peric and Civic (2014) cited Locke's (1976, p. 130), most frequently used definitions of job satisfaction, which is "a pleasant or favourable emotional state that results from a positive assessment of one's job experience". Similarly, Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016) discuss job satisfaction and emotional responses to various aspects of contemporary life. When employees are satisfied, it reflects on their psychological health and well-being (Olaniyan & Hystad, 2016). Thus, Čulibrk, Delić, Mitrović and Čulibrk (2018) took into account job satisfaction and considered it as the attitude of a person toward his or her job. This concept was expanded to include the positive exhilaration that occurs as a result of people's job experiences, although levels of people's satisfaction also vary according to individual motivations and demands. Job satisfaction, concerning this view, is based on the difference between an individual's expectations and needs, or values, and what that individual's feelings or perceptions have been able to obtain or accomplish through their work. A person will be content if there is no discrepancy between his desired and perceived realities, as long as the necessary minimum threshold is met (Renyut, Modding & Bima, 2017). Again, as Toropova, Myrberg and Johansson (2021) note, job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct. Thus, according to Gopinath (2020), an individual may be comfortable with coworkers but dissatisfied with workplace conditions and advancement opportunities. Hence, in professional contexts, job satisfaction is influenced by many factors such as pay, compensation, promotion, coworkers, the work

itself, and managerial style in organisations including colleges and schools (Bashir & Gani, 2019).

Guest (2017) notes that employees always have positive and negative feelings, values as well as perspectives on their jobs. These factors include the job at hand, management, interpersonal relationships with coworkers, compensation, working conditions, labour pressure, promotion, training, job security, and career advancement. It is as a result of this that, Darmody and Smyth (2016) affirm that job satisfaction is the emotion experienced by an individual after performing given tasks. So long as employees' employment serves their primary requirements and aligns with their expectations and values, employees will feel it is satisfying and welcoming. Consistent with these, Goleman (2017) asserts that leadership is a critical construct for positive work environments to produce a contented and motivated workforce. Even though Nwagboso, Onuoha and Akhigbe (2016) say that the path-goal theory of leadership has been used to predict some outcomes, such as job satisfaction among subordinates, this theory has not been tested yet.

Concerning the preceding, Inuwa (2016) explains that the employee's assessment of their job and work environment constitutes job satisfaction. In other words, it is an evaluation of how the job is seen, how the work environment is, and how the job makes the person feel. Thus, job satisfaction is all about an individual's attitude toward the distinctive characteristics of his or her employment. Individuals have different priorities, which may also vary in terms of their perceived job ideals (Yousef, 2017). College of Education tutors may be content with certain aspects of their jobs but dissatisfied with others. For example, a tutor may be satisfied with his or her coworkers but displeased with his or her job

responsibilities (Szromek & Wolniak 2020). This is because as Taskinen (2019) said, job satisfaction can fluctuate over time and in response to external factors.

Herzberg's research on "The Motivation to Work" is a frequently cited classic work on job satisfaction (Avoseh & Mejai, 2018). This research lays the groundwork for understanding that when extrinsic hygiene variables aimed at minimising job dissatisfaction are combined with internal motivation factors aimed at increasing job satisfaction, employee motivation, attitudes, and intentions to leave are positively impacted (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl & Maude, 2017). Numerous factors, including compensation, advancement, autonomy, the work environment, coworkers, and support supervision, all influence employee job satisfaction (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2020). Furthermore, the events were associated with both external and internal factors, dubbed "motivators" and "satisfiers," respectively (Guan & Frenkel, 2019). For instance, "satisfiers" were referred to as internal variables such as work experience. Accountability, acknowledgement, accomplishment, and work were all included in this list of satisfiers. On the other hand, external factors, commonly known as "hygiene factors" include organisational policy, compensation, and supervision (Nilsen & Ringholm, 2019). As a result, George and Zakkariya (2018) emphasised the significance of job qualities (routine, autonomy, and feedback), how job responsibilities are defined (role conflict and role ambiguity), and the work environment (leadership, stress, promotion opportunities, and involvement) all contribute to job satisfaction.

According to a slew of scholars and their definitions of job satisfaction, most notably; Hoboubi, Choobineh, Ghanavati, Keshavarzi and Hosseini (2017), job satisfaction is about an employee's effective orientation toward their job or work. Job satisfaction is a desirable state of being in which an individual satisfies his or her job values (Trivellas, Reklitis &

Platis, 2013). It has been suggested that when employees are unsatisfied, they feel uncertain about their work, their employers give them less consideration and view their working environment as entirely questionable, which may lead them to believe they are not active members of the organisation (Ruck, Welch & Menara, 2017). Inuwa (2016) again reiterates that being satisfied at work is all about having a good relationship with the options that are available to you at work and that having a good relationship with your performance is also important.

2.3.1 Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been regarded as a perplexing concept due to its applicability across a range of leadership institutions (Rahman, Akhter & Khan, 2017). Yalabik, Rayton, and Rapti (2017) and Spector (1985) have discussed employee job characteristics that have been shown to significantly contribute to employee job satisfaction. Each job dimension is associated with specific personality characteristics that contribute to job satisfaction.

2.3.2 Pay

Luthans (2011, p. 142) defined pay as "the amount of cash compensation received and the extent to which it is seen as equitable in comparison to that earned by others in the organisation". Luthans (2011) further argues that pay and benefits are multidimensional components of job satisfaction because they help employees meet not just their physiological and security needs but also their higher-level wants. Research shows that how much employees think their work is worth might depend on how much money they get from the organisation to meet higher-level requirements such as belonging (Luthans, 2011). On the other hand, Gupta, Conroy and Delery (2012) explored whether compensation variances across organisational hierarchy aid in accomplishing the

organisation's strategic objectives and whether the variation affects employee performance. They thought of pay and its variation as the degree to which compensation changes within a collective group of people. In this context, "collective" refers to a task, a team, a facility, or an organisation (Sudha, Shahnawaz & Farhat, 2016). The study tried to figure out what caused wage differences, and it came up with three types: vertical, horizontal, and overall. They concluded that the reasons for pay disparities can have a profound effect on the outcomes. Pay performs a critical role in one's job satisfaction. Thus, the employee's perception of their pay is important (Kossivi, Xu & Kalgora, 2016). Likewise, Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller and Hulin (2017) assert that individuals with a positive mindset appear to be happier with their salary than individuals with a negative mindset. They observed that positive and negative affectivity are both significant predictors of job satisfaction. People think that pay is a better way to measure job satisfaction than a job title (Pepe, Addimando & Veronese, 2017). Other research, such as the one conducted by Luz, de Paula, and de Oliveira (2018), established pay as the most significant predictor of job satisfaction. While additional research corroborated this finding, it indicates that while low pay contributes to dissatisfaction, high pay is not always associated with satisfaction (Okeke & Mtyuda, 2017).

While conclusions have been conflicting regarding the relationship between compensation and job satisfaction which seems to be altering, previously, it was assumed that pay was positively correlated with job satisfaction (Luz, de Paula & de Oliveira, 2018). However, other research has discovered no correlation between pay and job satisfaction (Bakotic, 2016). Contrary to the above, the researchers discovered that pay did play a role up to a point during an employee's tenure at the organisation (Herzberg, 2017).

2.3.3 Promotion

Promotion is crucial in the workplace, not only for selecting and placing qualified employees in appropriate professions but also for motivating superiors or leaders to develop a personnel strategy that encourages subordinates to grow and achieve (Kondalkar, 2020). To Razak, Sarpan and Ramlan (2018, p. 19), "promotion is a technical term that refers to a movement inside an organisation from one position to another that entails either wage increases or a status increase." With the preceding description in mind, promotion is described as a shift within an organisation from one job to another accompanied by income and status gains. People think that getting a promotion will be a big part of how each employee grows since getting a promotion shows confidence and acknowledgement of a person's skills and ability to stay in a high position (Kondalkar, 2020; Osborne & Hammoud, 2017).

According to Luthans (2011) due to the range of job types, promotion prospects have a varying impact on job satisfaction and associated benefits. Luthans (2011), postulates that a staff who is promoted only based on seniority will experience greater pleasure than one who is promoted based on performance. Asaari, Desa and Subramaniam (2019) on the other hand pointed out that the more pay, recognition, or rewards an associate gets from the promotion, the more satisfied they will be with their new job. Another piece of evidence from Luthans (2011), said that, given the pulling down of organisations and the fewer chances for promotion in organisations than there were a few years ago, it is important to emphasise how important it is to have a workplace where employees are encouraged, supported, and provided with adequate resources to learn and improve their skills. As a result, Du Plessis and Mestry (2019) say is the best and most appropriate way to get people

promoted because it promotes those who have the most experience and the best skills, so it does not have problems with promotions based on experience or skills.

2.3.4 Supervision

The term "supervision" has been defined differently by various authors and sources. Koren (2021) defines supervision as a superior's ability to influence the behaviour of subordinates while they are performing specific tasks or actions. The superior is required to exert influence over subordinates with the hope of achieving organisational objectives. Lee and Kusumah (2020) also emphasised how the effectiveness of superiors on job performance habits and how the job is accomplished is demonstrated by the quality of supervision. Employees in an institution play a substantial role in determining an organisation's performance (Qureshi, Ab Hamid, Jeihoony, Ali, Brohi, Magsi & Shah, 2018). Employees of an organisation, such as college tutors are accountable for maintaining the college's efficiency. Thus, as employee performance improves, organisational performance improves as well and supervision serves as a tool for achieving this (Syamsuddin, Kadir, & Alam, 2020). Thus, Hamida, Haming, Semmaila and Bijang (2020) say that supervisors are responsible for the work environment and their employees' experience. For instance, the involvement of supervisors such as the college principal in the work of the tutor will enhance the tutor's experience in terms of work quality.

In line with this, Rulandari (2017) confirmed that regular supervision is a component of several managerial recommendations for improving workforce performance. Indeed, consistency and the sense of urgency with which employers and institutional leaders regard worker supervision, all other factors being equal, result in success (Johnston, Noble & Gray, 2016). This affirms Leonard and Trusty's (2016) claim that effective supervision and

the ability to regulate the job, as a managerial competency that must be owned and used, are critical to performance effectiveness. Murtiningsih, Kristiawan and Lian, (2019) therefore, maintain that supervisory oversight and harmonious relationships between the head (principal as the supervisor and the tutor) and the subordinate consistently increase productivity.

In comparison, insufficient supervision has a detrimental effect on an organisation's operations, including profit margins and employee commitment (Sabella, El-Far & Eid, 2016). Therefore, for an effective supervisor-employee relationship to work, the supervisor needs to be able to do their job well and also be able to teach their subordinates what the job is (Omisore, 2014). Since the technical hand of the supervisor and relationships are evident in colleges of education throughout the world, it is prudent for the principal, department, and section heads to devise modern and effective supervisory mechanisms to ensure that the staff works effectively to accomplish the institution's goals.

The following indicators for organisational supervision were proposed by Rowe, Mackaway and Winchester-Seeto (2012). First of all, assistance should be given. Assistance here refers to the responsibility of a supervisor to guide subordinates. Secondly, education is necessary. Based on Rowe et al. (2012), the ability to convey both technical and general knowledge to subordinates is required of supervisors. In this area, teaching tactics include monitoring subordinates' development, ensuring they remain "on track," providing practical recommendations to enhance performance and recognising subordinates' success and strength. Thirdly, there is a managerial/administrative component. A capable manager is required to improve subordinates' experiences and effectively supervise routine activities. The next indicator is guardianship. This position

falls under the category of task-oriented in a forward-thinking organisation. This entails acting as the profession's gatekeeper and contributing to its future development. As a result, supervisors act as gatekeepers for the profession, ensuring compliance with established quality standards.

As a regulatory body, the GTEC, in collaboration with the MOE, Ghana, is responsible for ensuring the effective supervision of college tutors and the entire teacher education staff through the establishment of policies and procedures that guide the daily operations of principals. Similarly, tutors must be informed of procedures and policies to guide their behaviour within the institution. By instituting this practice of effective supervision, it is hoped that a safe college environment will be created for tutors and other staff to grow in their abilities and knowledge of their jobs, as well as reflect on their practices.

2.3.5 Fringe Benefits

Fringe benefits are additional (monetary or non-monetary) benefits employees receive as members of an organisation in addition to their regular salary or wages (Mokhniuk & Yushchyshyna, 2018). Benefits such as maternity leave, vacation, and others such as recreational facilities, cafeteria subsidies, Christmas gifts, and profit-sharing bonuses that go hand in hand with supporting and motivating employees are also considered fringe benefits (Carey, Sheldon & Andriescu, 2018). Fringe benefits are those things that are given to an employee as a form of motivation or are provided as a result of employment or office (Rasheed, Humayon & Awan, 2016). Due to this, they (fringe benefits) represent an additional monetary benefit to the worker. Chukwudumebi and Kifordu (2018) call fringe benefits indirect compensation that is given to an employee or group of staff as a condition of their membership in an organisation. Similarly, Konrad and Piotr (2020) consider fringe

benefits as an addition to base pay and performance pay. Fringe benefits are again seen to be a component of the entire compensation package for employees. They are considered extras because they are not earned and are usually given to all employees of an organisation, no matter how well they do their job. Some examples are annual leave allowances, pay raises, and educational assistance (Adeniji & Osibanjo, 2012). It is quite clear that, in addition to wages and salary, organisations are required to give employees a variety of non-cash benefits known as fringe benefits (Sirkin & Cagney, 2021). Furthermore, Sirkin and Cagney (2021) allude that workers' compensation is in the form of social security and unemployment insurance, housing, group insurance, disability and income protection, retirement benefits, daycare, tuition reimbursement, sick leave, profit sharing, education fund, and other specialised benefits, among others (Galbraith, 2017). Considering the idea of fringe benefits, it is quite crucial to find out the immediate return of these visible benefits to the employer. For instance, if a worker's spouse is sick and the worker has no means of curing such a dependent, the person is completely absent-minded and unable to produce at his or her best, even if he or she is physically present at work. This is in line with the principal-agent theory (Roach, 2016), which claims that an employee's rational self-interest and effort aversion create moral hazard, affecting his or her output to a large extent (Ortiz Gómez, 2017). Even though fringe benefits are important, there is not much agreement on how different types of fringe benefits affect managerial decisions and, as a result, agency costs (Ren & Chadee, 2017). The agency theory literature generally confirms that cash benefits alone do not provide sufficient incentive to reduce agency conflicts. In an ideal world, employers could simply structure benefit contracts to accommodate agents' preferences for fixed compensation, such as wages or salaries

(Edmans & Gabaix, 2016). However, Okeke and Mtyuda (2017) maintain that financial rewards are not a significant source of positive motivation in contemporary organisational societies, even though dissatisfaction with them impairs performance. Furthermore, Madu and Madu (2013) said that fringe benefits can be beneficial in aligning employees' actions with desired organisational outcomes. Shankar and Batcha (2017) cited Murphy's (1985) study on the relationship between compensation and performance of 501 managers in 72 organisations. It came to light that salary, bonus, and total fringe benefits are all favourably correlated with total shareholder return and firm sales growth. Unfortunately, many employees are unaware of these additional benefits because they have never been told how much they are worth (Krueger, 2018). Carey, Sheldon, and Andriescu (2018) say that very few job seekers think about the value of each prospective employee's fringe benefit package.

Hoole and Hotz (2016) added that the total reward model is a compensation plan that includes learning and development, as well as features of the work environment, as part of the benefits package. Both tangible and intangible rewards are deemed valuable in the total reward system. Thus, Beck-Krala (2020) postulates that tangible rewards arise from employer-employee transactions and include compensation, individual bonuses, and other benefits. Education, development, and professional experience are linked to intangible rewards (Peluso, Innocenti & Pilati, 2017). These sorts of rewards include opportunities for growth, recognition from employers and peers, personal accomplishments, and social life.

Fringe benefits, a significant component of employee compensation, have grown common in recent years (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019). The majority of employees believe that they

work simply for their weekly or monthly take-home pay and that fringe benefits such as health, accident, and hospitalisation insurance are merely bonuses (Gabriel, Amah & Okocha, 2021). In today's extremely competitive labour market, a competitive benefits package is essential and can help an employer attract and retain key personnel. With an effective fringe benefit system, tutor attrition and turnover can be reduced (Mabeya, 2019). These benefits are a significant component of an employee's compensation, and employers should ensure that employees understand the value of their fringe benefits to both parties. Boella and Goss-Turner, (2019) reiterate that fringe benefits are tax-free and improve a worker's real income. However, the employer's net cost is less than the necessary compensation increases to cover them. This is almost always true when benefits are tax-deductible, and it may be true even when benefits are not tax-deductible (Lazear, 2018).

Artz (2010) said that certain fringe benefits can help reduce employee dissatisfaction, while others can help increase satisfaction. For example, most people think that health insurance is important, so giving it will reduce employee dissatisfaction. On the other hand, bonuses on special occasions do not always make employees happy. However, it will also prevent employee dissatisfaction (Pasztor & Valent, 2016). Again, paid vacation is not a requirement in many workplaces, so offering it can boost employee satisfaction (Totenhagen, Hawkins, Casper, Bosch, Hawkey & Borden, 2016).

2.3.6 Contingent rewards

Appropriate recognition and rewards are critical for engagement. According to Frinlicia and Nilasari (2019), and Ghosh et al. (2016), rewards can be viewed as outputs in comparison to employee inputs such as effort and expertise. Many employees prefer to be recognised and again rewarded uniquely for their exceptional performance (Tepayakul &

Rinthaisong, 2018; Fung & Gordon, 2016). Incentives can encourage subordinates to come up with new ideas, but teachers' engagement is often linked to how much money they get (Xu & Wang, 2018). Rewards enable school organisations to demonstrate the value of their employees (tutors), and that the extent of rewards is an important component of the work experience (Nazim, 2016). Furthermore, the level of rewards namely, vigour, dedication, and absorption also predict all three developed measures of employee engagement (Schaufeli & De Witte, 2017). Nthebe, Barkhuizen and Schutte (2016), on the other hand, point out that insufficient financial, institutional, or societal rewards would make individuals more susceptible to burnout.

Contingent rewards, such as pay, refer to workplace arrangements in which some or all of an employee's compensation is contingent on a performance metric (Shields, Rooney, Brown & Kaine, 2020). Individual employees' performance with their contribution to organisational performance (individual-based incentive) or the profit earned by the organisation in which the employee works (organisation-wide incentive) may determine contingent rewards (Ogbonnaya, Daniels & Nielsen, 2017). A contingent reward could be used to motivate any appropriate organisation, such as a college, and tutors, in particular, to teach per standards (Meixner & Pospisil, 2021; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Once again, this contingent reward system directly establishes their objective in the school. In this way, all tutors would be rewarded for their good work and reprimanded for bad work, which shows that colleges must work hard to get rewards or avoid penalties (Torlak & Kuzey, 2019).

2.3.7 Operating conditions

Job and operating conditions necessitate that senior human resource managers pursue objectives to improve working conditions (Greer, 2021). Today, there is increasing pressure from stakeholders, and as a result, organisations must consider operating conditions (Bashir, Amir, Jawaad & Hasan, 2020). This is because operating conditions have been recognised as one of the features that contribute to the level of energy with which staff performs in any workplace. Operating conditions have changed from a narrow focus on health, safety, and hygiene to a broader definition (Pires, 2018). Taking into consideration the recommendations of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2019) about the International Labour Organisation Report: Operating conditions comprise a wide range of topics and issues, from working hours (hours of work, rest periods, and work schedules) to pay and the physical and mental demands of the job. This includes things like how much money people get and how hard their jobs are on their bodies and minds. Operating conditions cover a variety of terms and conditions associated with an employee's employment, in addition to the actual working environment (Geiger & Pivovarova, 2018).

From the perspective of job quality, this includes career and employment security; workplace health and well-being; skill and competency development; and work-life balance (Joo & Lee, 2017). Hence, Pires (2018) asserts that work-life balance is critical to workers' operating conditions. It is a person's valuation of how well his or her various responsibilities in life are balanced. Lazar, Osoian and Ratiu (2010) believe that work-life balance is often linked to employer support for child care, flexible work options, and family or personal leave; implementing these practices would benefit both recruiting and retaining

workers, as well as positively impact individual performance. These practices would be beneficial for recruiting and retaining workers (Pires, 2018).

Kiazad, Kraimer and Seibert (2019) opine that employees nowadays also tend to demand improved operating conditions. Poor operating conditions hurt staff happiness and performance (Guan & Frenkel, 2019). Guan, and Frenkel (2019); Agbozo, Owusu, Hoedoafia and Atakorah (2017) carried out a study to explore the effect of operating conditions on employee satisfaction and the effects of work conditions and absenteeism on productivity. When discussing operating conditions, the authors said it is critical to consider the organisation's entire work environment. This is because it is well established that an unhealthy workplace is associated with absenteeism, decreased job satisfaction, physical complaints, burnout, and underperformance on the job (Bashir, Amir, Jawaad & Hasan, 2020). "High staff turnover, low employee satisfaction, and poor performance are most likely caused by bad operating conditions" (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017, p. 6).

Yildiz and Kiliç (2021) and Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015) emphasise the critical nature of operating conditions. The authors define operating conditions as safety, job security, healthy connections with coworkers, performance recognition, performance motivation, and participation in decision-making. When these conditions are not met, the employee's performance suffers. According to Nurendra (2018), a high workload, emotional demands, and work-home conflicts make it cumbersome for employees to engage effectively in their work, as they must divide their efforts and attention, resulting in decreased work performance. These issues must be addressed as part of the higher education system's operating conditions to ensure optimum efficiency. Workplace factors and employee satisfaction may serve as useful benchmarks for assessing future work changes and

advancements (Shafique, Kalyar & Ahmad, 2018). Moreso, favourable operating conditions and an enabling environment compel workers to adopt a more positive attitude, resulting in improved performance (Wang & Wang, 2020). The literature on the positive effects of operating conditions (payment and performance) is extensive. Pires's (2018) work succinctly summarises the general postulate that operating conditions result in greater effort than would have been the case without them.

2.3.8 Co-workers

Coworkers and their relationships have numerous definitions and theories that may be applied to them. Specifically, according to social network theory, relationships among coworkers occur within a network in which individuals are represented by dots and relationships by lines (Zarankin & Kunkel, 2019). Luthan (2011, p. 142) defined coworkers in this context as: "the extent to which colleagues are strictly competent and socially supportive". It has been shown that having nice, helpful, and skilled coworkers does not make a big difference in how happy you are with your job. Similarly, Luthans (2011, p. 143) stated that "jobs that require coworker interdependence will have a higher level of satisfaction". Solid lines connect individuals with strong relationships, while dashed lines connect individuals with weak relationships.

The relationship between superiors and subordinates may also affect an individual's perception of workplace safety. This is because support, not control, and positive relationships with the leader foster the perception and feeling of psychological safety which can enhance their creativity (Deci, Olafsen & Ryan, 2017). The implication is that "those who perform better are somehow more connected" (Burt, 2017, p. 25-30).

The social network theory differentiates between various types of relationships based on the network type. Again, individuals who are appreciated by their coworkers will have psychological significance in the workplace (Bailey & Madden, 2016). Employees will also indicate their availability if they believe their coworkers and supervisors care about them (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013). When individuals are treated with dignity, respected, and valued for their contributions outside of their role as executors, they will experience meaningful interaction. It is about the quality of the relationship. To concur with Tam, Korczynski, Shire, Frenkel, Shire and Tam (2018), social and professional interactions with others on the job are entirely about coworker relationships. According to Abdulkhaliq and Mohammadali (2019), there are numerous ways to increase job satisfaction. These include promotional opportunities, interesting work, a supportive supervisor, and friendly coworkers.

There are instances where an employee dislikes his supervisor but admires his peers (Kuenzi, Brown, Mayer & Priesemuth, 2019). In general, the term coworker relationship can be in a variety of ways. Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl and Maude (2017) claim that there are three distinct types of workplace relationships: those with peers, those with supervisors, and those with subordinates. "Relationship with supervisor" refers to the connection between an employee and his or her supervisor (leader). As with the preceding, the relationship with subordinates is motivated by authority and position within the organisation. Psychological safety will be enhanced by interpersonal relationships between employees who are supportive and trustworthy (Newman, Donohue & Eva, 2017).

Interpersonal trust can be cognitive or affective (Park & Kim, 2018). Consistency and loyalty to others are associated with cognitive beliefs. Coworkers and supervisors who can

rely on one another and respect one another will foster and increase one's confidence and enhance one's psychological condition necessary for a secure and strong commitment to work. Thus, Ragins and Verbos (2017) believe that workplace relationships are those that occur between individuals in the workplace and are critical to organisational life. Ragins and Verbos (2017), further indicate that the relationship with coworkers is about the respondent's personal and professional interactions with the other people with whom he or she works. There is a relationship between two or more people. Thus, this is a discussion of relationships between people (coworkers or peers) at work. This relationship can be viewed in terms of its characteristics, specifically:

Cooperation. Thus, being helpful to other members of one's immediate workgroup or connecting employees with other members of one's immediate workgroup (Buljubasic, 2008). Cooperation is a procedure in which each person is responsible for solving a share of an issue. It encourages conversation and engagement among coworkers and builds mutual trust. Team spirit is a dynamic attribute that evolves and adds to the effectiveness of a team. It highlights the need for a shared vocabulary that teams can utilise to comprehend and enhance their work together (Bashan & Holsblat, 2017).

Support. The best definition of social support is a network consisting of a group of individuals from whom a person can expect aid in times of need (Feeney & Collins, 2015). Support, therefore, occurs when individuals are helpful. This has to do with the idea that someone will help them in the future, or what is called the exchange relationship (Bryant & Merritt, 2021). Interpersonal trust is a fundamental part of organisational existence. Interpersonal trust refers to how confident or willing a person is in the actions, words, and

decisions of others (Rutten, Blaas-Franken & Martin, 2016). Trust empowers people to take risks. There is a confidence that will not be used wherever there is trust.

Exchange of information. This is initiated by newcomers. Important in this case is relatedness (DiMatteo, 2020) or affiliation (Chipunza & Matsumunyane, 2018). Newcomers who have significant unmet needs for relatedness in the workplace would be encouraged to seek interpersonal relationships that can meet these needs (Seele & Eberl, 2020). The exchange of information in a social setting, such as eating lunch together, taking coffee breaks together, or talking about weekend activities, can help newcomers get used to their new work environment and make friends.

An atmosphere among peers is how it feels to work in a specific area (e.g., calm and comfortable, tentative, tense, or hostile) and can be described in terms of a team or the social-emotional context in which employees operate (Harris & Sherblom, 2018). The peer environment is impacted by the developmental stage of the team, the interpersonal skills of the leader, and the quality of interpersonal interactions (Day, Gu, Townsend & Holdich, 2021). Along with developing enthusiasm, peer atmosphere is influenced by team spirit, commitment to the team, and identity. Indeed, having these relationships happen in a college or school setting will impact the tutors' commitment to work (Richardson, 2017). Therefore, peer relationships are a preventative measure that averts many of the negative consequences of low morale in organisations. However, a positive relationship with peers is not the end of the story, but rather the beginning. That is why it is critical to place a premium on motivators. In line with Taskinen (2019), when interactions with peers are acceptable and accomplished, recognition might be fostered. Recognition and accomplishment, occasions in which employees achieve success or find answers to

difficulties, instances in which their ideas are accepted, and instances in which they are rewarded, all contribute to total job satisfaction. When an employee does not receive these motivational benefits, he or she will be neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. The employee adopts a neutral posture (Alfayad & Arif, 2017). It is critical to understand that in this case, the employee's relationship with peers must be satisfied first. This means that recognition and achievement are contingent upon the quality of one's relationships with peers (Premo, Cavagnetto & Davis, 2018). Peer relationships serve as a sort of foundation. Hence, Lysova, Allan, Dik, Duffy and Steger, (2019) reiterate that a shoddy foundation increases the likelihood that staff will be displeased with their job. To Mahmood, Uddin and Fan (2019), employee satisfaction in the workplace is influenced by coworker relationships and relationships with other employees.

Coworker relationships are critical in assisting coworkers and have a beneficial effect on employee satisfaction (Lysova, Allan, Dik, Duffy & Steger, 2019). Employees do develop relationships with their coworkers to foster friendships. Employees who have a sense of friendship with their coworkers will always experience mental and physical well-being, which is ideal in the workplace. It is founded on the sense of security and self-confidence of those associated with the work, as well as a desire to foster workplace friendships. More broadly, Biggs, Swailes and Baker (2016) imply that employee-employee relationships are distinct from supervisor-employee relationships. Qi and Ming-Xia (2014) say this happens because employees interact with their supervisors based on their position in the authority hierarchy, but they do not interact with their coworkers in the same way. Indeed, relationship with coworkers is an integral part of employees' daily lives and experiences at work. The consequences of such a relationship are detrimental to the institution's success.

Employee relationships are characterised by a lack of power imbalance if any (Ariani, 2015). It is believed that trust in coworkers can also influence organisational confidence, thereby improving organisational performance.

Coworkers demonstrate to the membership organisation that they share the same power and authority and that they are persons who constantly interact with the organisation's employees (Hassan, DeHartDavis & Jiang, 2019). Coworkers play a critical role in forming spontaneous and unplanned informal networks within the organisation. This is because coworkers share information more horizontally within the organisation. Bakker and Leiter's (2017) research show that people prefer to talk about work ideas and problems with coworkers rather than with a more formal person like their supervisor. Thus, trust in coworkers can generate enormous amounts of social capital (Hauser, Perkmann, Puntcher, Walde & Tappeiner, 2016). Coworker relationships also have an effect on an employee's secession or resignation from the workplace. This is because of the rules and formal policies that create an atmosphere of distrust in the workplace. Secession or resignation can occur as a result of social or structural factors. Indeed, when coworker support is high, employees will enjoy and value their relationships with coworkers, resulting in increased employee engagement (Ahmed, Majid, Al-Aali & Mozammel, 2019). Berscheid and Regan (2016), therefore conclude that humans, in general, have an innate desire to form and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, as well as endure and experience significant cohesion. Almost all of these relationships affect one's life to accomplish a personal or group objective.

Individual relationships are dynamic, not static (Kucharska, 2017; Baumeister, 2011). Given this, relationships must be developed, maintained, and terminated via

communication. Coworkers' social support may take the form of providing information, work resources, support, empathy, mentoring, and a variety of other types of materials that assist employees in their work (Dunstan & Maceachen, 2014). Employee relationships with coworkers and peer support will motivate employees to perform not only the tasks specified in their job description but also to feel at ease in the organisation.

2.3.9 Nature of work

Successive organisations are expected to adapt to, exploit, and integrate the forces present in their external environments (Rosenberg & Ferlie, 2016). Human institutions are groups of people who have come together purposefully to accomplish a goal through the use of planned objectives that are organised and coordinated. Organisations, as a result, function in a variety of external settings and are internally structured and organised to meet both external and internal demands and opportunities (Christensen, Laegreid & Rvik, 2020).

As work evolves, the nature of the work and the surrounding environment are impacted. It is reasonable to anticipate that the nature of connections between employers and employees will similarly alter (World Bank, 2018). In the informal "psychological contract" between employers and employees in the new work environment, each party anticipates the other's competency development, ongoing training, and work-life balance. In comparison, the previous psychological contract was entirely focused on job security and steady advancement within the organisation (Quratulain, Khan, Crawshaw, Arain & Hameed, 2018). Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (2018) observe that new information technologies have been associated with profound changes in organisational structures, skills, and the nature of work since the late 1980s. There is considerable room for productivity improvement throughout the product realisation chain, though this has taken time. Among

other things, Reid and Sanders (2019) say that all over the world, functions like planning, logistics, maintenance, and quality assurance have become more integrated, job assignments have become more flexible, and local units have taken more responsibility for how we work.

It has been established that when employees experience a more pleasant work environment, this affects the individual's level of satisfaction, thereby influencing the worker's job performance (Loan, 2020; Sarwar, Ishaq, Amin & Ahmed, 2020). The external environment of an organisation is all-inclusive, encompassing all external factors and effects that affect the organisation's operation (Bratton, 2020). To sustain its operational flow, the organisation must respond or react immediately (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2019). In the absence of advancement opportunities, many management scientists see clouds forming on the horizon, including decreased loyalty and commitment (Ugboro, 2016). In the absence of advancement opportunities, employees feel less committed to organisational goals and more committed to their learning and development. Employees' knowledge and technological skills are transferable and are not lost when they change jobs (Callanan, Perri & Tomkowicz, 2017). Moreover, there are increased time constraints. Years of outsourcing and downsizing have resulted in what Perlow (1999) refers to as a "time famine." That is the sensation of having a lot to do and having insufficient time to accomplish it (Michel, 2017). According to reports by the Bureau of Labour Statistics and the Centre for Workforce Development, many workers are working longer hours to keep up with workloads, altering the nature of organisations and work in general (Messenger, 2018). The sociocultural environmental forces, which comprise values, beliefs, attitudes, practices, traditions, habits, and lifestyles, are another crucial area touched by the organisation's

character (Harper & Snowden, 2017). To be more specific, societal cultures include education, language, law, politics, religion, and social organisations, as they reflect the organisation's nature and external environment (Sorokin, 2017). Organisations need to improve social inclusion because of the changing nature of work and people's increasing ambitions (World Bank, 2018). To accomplish this, a social contract should prioritise opportunity equality.

Today's work environment is increasingly characterised by the use of smartphones, tablets, and other portable electronic devices (World Bank, 2018). Workers are responsible for developing the online interfaces that fuel this growth. For instance, tertiary education is more appealing due to the evolving nature of jobs. To start, the demand for higher-order general cognitive abilities has increased as a result of technological development and integration. These abilities include complex problem-solving, critical thinking, and advanced communication, which are transferable across jobs but cannot be learned solely through education. The increased demand for these critical skills has increased the wage premiums for tertiary graduates globally while simultaneously decreasing the demand for less educated workers. More so, tertiary education increases the demand for continuous learning. Manyika, Lund, Chui, Bughin, Woetzel, Batra and Sanghvi (2017) also postulate that workers are expected to have multiple careers throughout their lives, not just multiple jobs. So, it becomes apparent that tertiary education meets this growing demand through its variety of course options and flexible delivery methods like online education and open universities.

Finally, but certainly, not least, tertiary education, particularly universities, and colleges has grown in popularity as an avenue for innovation in a rapidly evolving labour market considering the nature of today's work environment (Djankov & Saliola, 2018).

2.3.10 Communication

Effective communication between authorities and employees is critical to maintaining a positive relationship with employees. Following that, effective communication will result in increased job satisfaction for employees (Dewydar, 2015). When there are differences among the employees who are impacted by the transmission of an imperfect message, the efficacy of communication within an organisation is reduced (Hargie, Dickson & Tourish, 2017). While some communication within an organisation is formal, others are informal. While formal communications are always dictated by the organisation's formal structure, informal communications are not bound by any particular procedure (Nyambeki, 2018). The grapevine is a term for informal communication that happens inside organisations through unofficial channels (Pappas, 2020).

In organisations, communication occurs both internally within the organisation and externally (Sharma, 2015). The majority of research on workplace communication has concentrated on existing interpersonal relationships. Communication is experienced in a variety of ways by organisational employees. Messages travel up and down hierarchical levels, as well as horizontally between people at the same level. Internal communication is critical to organisational effectiveness, but job satisfaction with that communication has rarely been a priority. Chitrao (2014) postulates that pleasant and effective communication can increase job satisfaction while decreasing employee complaints. Communication is a tool that each organisation can use to identify appropriate functions to maximise profit and

progress (Lee, 2021). However, several academics have recently begun to examine the link between internal communication and job satisfaction, as well as its effect on organisational performance (Waters, Bortree & Tindall, 2017). In schools, communication takes a variety of forms, including formal meetings, informal chats, noticeboards, memos, and handbooks (Safitri & Putra, 2021; Zink & Zink, 2017). Additionally, Heath (2020) believes that no instance of communication occurs independently or uniquely and that any transaction can serve multiple purposes. For instance, a single message can fulfil both cultural and directive purposes.

Femi (2014) posits that communication in the workplace is critical for ensuring performance to accomplish organisational goals. Through communication, an employee's roles and responsibilities at work are carried out properly and with complete dedication. Hence, Bisel and Rush (2021) believe that managers employ a great deal of information during the communication process to persuade employees to do what they want. Job satisfaction is also higher when the employee and employer communicate openly, utilising tactics such as data sharing, transparency, directness, climate building, constructive comments, seeking regular inputs, and appropriate disclosure (Mehra, & Nickerson, 2019; Abd-El-Salam, Shawky, El-Nahas & Nawar, 2013). It is believed that the more positive supervisory communication takes place, the higher the level of job satisfaction experienced by staff (Neill, Men & Yue, 2019; Mumby & Kuhn, 2018).

Miscommunication, a lack of information, laziness, and increased job rotation can all result from communication breakdowns (Schein & Schein, 2018; Velliaris & Pierce, 2017). Ineffective leadership in communicating with employees results in dissatisfaction (Teimouri, Hosseini & Ardeshiri, 2018). Given this, circumstances may have an impact on

employees' job satisfaction. Similarly, when employees lack faith in their management, information flow is impeded, which leads to lower job satisfaction (Bilginoğlu, 2019; Mohajan, 2019). The leader may lead, develop trust, promote a concept of continual learning, and motivate employees through effective communication (Husain, 2013). Undoubtedly, employers and employees must collaborate on understanding the concepts of active communication and communication hurdles in the workplace to achieve the organisation's goals (Kent, Goetzel, Roemer, Prasad & Freundlich, 2016). While a free and open flow of knowledge is an excellent beginning point for avoiding organisational weaknesses, it is a gross simplification (Sanders & de Los Monteros, 2020). Indeed, increased communication has the potential to reveal as well as eliminate problems and even obscure and confuse existing ones. Rheinberg and Engeser (2018) demonstrate that increasing access to information does not always result in increased knowledge absorption or desired attitude changes. It has been demonstrated that when workers are informed about critical issues, they can concentrate totally on their work due to factors such as organisational rules, performance feedback, command tasks, and role responsibilities (Chan & Lai, 2017; Rajhans & Shome, 2016). Research shows that communication has a substantial correlation with job satisfaction (Türkoglu, Cansoy & Parlar, 2017; Pawirosumarto, Sarjana & Gunawan, 2017).

Overall, the review of the literature reveals that a variety of factors influence job satisfaction. The sense of organisational support, leadership style, job stress, remuneration, working conditions, prospects for promotion, recognition, and relationships with coworkers are a few of these variables. Colleges of education may develop a workplace

that supports a healthy work environment and employee well-being by having a better understanding of these characteristics and their effects on employee job satisfaction.

2.4. Organisational commitment

The role of tutors in colleges of education in Ghana cannot be overemphasised. These tutors play a substantial role in shaping the education system of the country by ensuring that aspiring teachers gain the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to become effective teachers. However, despite the importance of their role, there has been little research on the commitment of tutors in colleges of education in Ghana (Nartey, 2018).

Commitment is the bedrock of all employee relationships. It has been studied from a variety of angles including educational leadership and ethical leadership (Kang & Sung 2017). Sharma (2016, p. 143) thought of commitment as a construct in the 1970s when an attempt was made to define commitment as an "attitude or orientation toward an organisation that connects or attaches the person's identity to the organisation". Supporting and emotionally bonding with an organisation's goals and beliefs is due to the organisation itself, rather than its instrumental values, which is what organisational commitment entails (Taghinezhad, Safavi, Raiesifar & Yahyavi, 2015).

Organisational commitment, according to Betanzos-Daz, Rodriguez-Loredo and Paz-Rodriguez (2017, p. 499), is "the willingness of social actors to devote their energy and loyalty to social systems, the add-on of personality systems to self-expressive social relations." Mulugeta and Hailemariam (2018) also see organisational commitment as "multidimensional in nature," taking into account a worker's allegiance to the organisation, willingness to put forth effort on its behalf, degree of purpose and value alignment with the organisation, and desire to stay as a member. Motsaathebe (2023) and Suryani, (2018)

postulate that organisational commitment refers to the level of engagement and dedication team members feel toward their jobs and the organisation. It describes the different reasons professionals remain with an employer rather than seek opportunities elsewhere.

In connection to Hsu, Chiang, Chang, Huang and Chen (2015), organisational commitment was rated high. However, organisational commitment was rated moderate (Shoorideh, Nabizadeh, Khazaei & Alavi-Majd, 2014; Yang, Liu, Chen & Pan, 2014). For example, Nurses' organisational commitment was low according to a study by Krestainiti and Prezerakos (2014). This contradiction demonstrates that a variety of factors can influence organisational commitment and result in a variety of outcomes. Affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment are the three characteristics Malaysia (2016) uses to categorise organisational commitment.

Three elements that support organisational commitment were proposed by Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi (2019): a strong belief in and receipt of the organisation's ideals; a willingness to put in substantial work on behalf of the organisation; and a desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Commitment is regarded as a critical factor affecting tutors' performance and the implementation of a college of education programmes. According to Valaei and Rezaei (2016), "employee commitment" is a relative term that refers to the worker's level of involvement and loyalty to the organisation for which they work. Studies have been done to determine the link between ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment, all of which are dependent on other work-related issues (Qing, Asif, Hussain and Jameel (2020).

Consistency in commitment is crucial for an organisation's growth. This should be accomplished not only by management, more specifically in the case of college principals but by all members of the institution such as tutors. To fulfil the organisation's goals, regulations must be obeyed (Bryson, 2018). Employee commitment to their organisations has long been a focus of organisational behaviour research (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2019; Yahaya, & Ebrahim, 2016). It is in line with this that Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979, p. 226) thought of organisational commitment as "the relative strength with which a person classifies with and participates in a particular organisation". These authors also covered how employees' identification with the organisation's values and goals results in organisational commitment.

College education is an important stage in academic training because it prepares students for their chosen career path. Tutors play an important role in student's academic success by providing guidance and support throughout their academic journey. Educational leaders, like other institutional leaders and the human resources department of an organisation, when it comes to inspiring and retaining personnel in the twenty-first century, things have become increasingly complicated (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Singh and Gupta (2015) indicate that globalisation and the advancement of technology have increased the difficulty of leaders' and managers' work. Their tasks are becoming more difficult as their role is attracting talent and establishing an atmosphere in which those individuals can underwrite as long-term assets to the organisation. Thus, Faloye (2014) claimed that when organisations can recruit and retain qualified personnel, the organisation's overall stability is preserved, both in terms of productivity and financial sustainability.

Employees commitment to the organisation predicts employee retention (Tuna, Ghazzawi, Yesiltas, Tuna & Arslan, 2016; Meyer & Allen, 1997, 1991). Furthermore, organisational commitment has been investigated as a predictor of staff performance in carrying out the leadership of the organisation's mission and vision (Singh, & Gupta, 2015). Positive attitudes toward organisations and their goals are necessary components of the concept of organisational commitment proposed by Faizan and Zehra (2016). This means that organisational commitment is a link between an employee and his or her employer, or between the organisation and itself (Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2018). Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 61–89) see a committed employee as an individual who remains with an organisation reports consistently, and works a full day.

Factors that have been discovered to positively influence tutors' commitment in the college of education context include Job satisfaction (Kim, Lee & Lee, 2020), effective support systems (Lin & Heald-Taylor, 2020), and possibilities for professional development (Saunders & Anderson, 2020). Tutors who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to be committed to providing quality services, and strong support systems enable them to deal with any issues that may arise. Organisational commitment concepts always emphasise issues such as a willingness to exert significant influence on behalf of the organisation, as well as a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's ideals and aims (Geldenhuys, Taba & Venter, 2014; Sahi & Mahajan, 2014).

2.4.1 Components of Organisational Commitment

The idea of organisational commitment has gained popularity in the educational and organisational psychology literature (Cilek, 2019). An earlier study on organisational commitment described the term as a single dimension based on an attitude perspective and

comprising documentation, involvement, and loyalty (Mete, Sökmen & Biyik, 2016). Given the complex nature of organisational commitment today, Allen and Meyer's (1991) three-component approaches are gaining ground. These are affective, continuance, and normative commitments.

2.4.2 Affective commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 253) define affective commitment as "identification with, participation in, and emotional attachment to the organisation". Affective commitment entails an emotional add-on and a sense of self-involvement in the organisation's objectives. In this regard, affective commitment has been demonstrated to be the most beneficial to various organisations (Gupta, Agarwal & Khatri, 2016). This is because the concept as a whole is linked to good work habits, like going above and beyond to be a good corporate citizen (Kashive & Khanna, 2017). It comprises cohesiveness or connectedness to social relationships that absorb an individual's emotive resources, as well as communion, or being a part of a broader whole through the mingling of the self with a group (Methot, Rosado-Solomon, Downes & Gabriel, 2021; Miandar Esfahani, 2017). It is an attitude toward a company that connects or attaches the employee's identity to the company (Osemeke, 2016). Affective commitment is defined by Esther, Byron, Debra, Ntonghanwah, James and Thabo (2019) as a psychological connection to the organisation as well as joyful feelings and social attachment to it. It is an attitude-based form of commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), that includes "identification" or the alignment of individual values with organisational values, "involvement" or feelings of care for the organisation, devotion, and dedication to the organisation, pride in the organisation, willingness to put in extra effort for the organisation, making sacrifices for

the organisation's benefit, and loyalty or a strong desire to uphold membership in the organisation.

The theory of attitudinal commitment is founded on a person's desire to stay in the organisation (Mercurio, 2015). Mercurio (2015) noted that, while many conceptualisations of organisational commitment have depicted it as having three equally weighted components (affective, normative, and continuance) since the 1960s and 1970s, the affective construct of commitment has continued central and consistent across a wide range of theorising and multidimensional conceptualisations of organisational commitment. A key basic element of the organisational commitment notion was demonstrated through affective, emotional, and behavioural attachment to the organisation. It appears to serve as a historical and theoretical foundation for theories of organisational commitment and is the most important, enduring, necessary, and central feature of organisational commitment (Mercurio, 2015). It is the central core, not other components or prescribed types of commitment that has the most influence on work behaviours, sentiments, and individual views.

Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi (2019) discuss several strategies for ensuring organisational affective commitment. These are a collaboration between an individual and colleagues, upper management, the ability to provide input and consultation to the organisation's human resource department, particularly regarding the hiring or transferring of employees; the ability for an individual to grow professionally and find career expansion opportunities within the organisation that the individual considers fair; and a perceived correlation between worker performance and remuneration.

2.4.3 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to an understanding of the costs and benefits of leaving an organisation (Umukoro & Egwakhe, 2019). Staff who are committed to retention stay with the organisation because they owe it to themselves. According to a classic psychological study, a person's commitment to action increases when he or she invests, and that investment may be lost if the person does not continue to act (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). In the words of Cesário and Chambel (2017), organisational commitment and work engagement must be linked to staff performance.

Continuance commitment is more calculative because it refers to a person's willingness to continue working for an organisation. Giri et al. (2016) emphasise the relevance of organisational culture in determining continuance commitment, and when an employee believes an organisation to be positive and helpful, the employee will have a higher degree of continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is concerned with alternative work opportunities as well as the cost of quitting the organisation (Anitha, 2016). Thus, with continuance commitment, the cost of quitting a certain organisation is so great that an individual is willing to stay there. These costs include years of employment, personal relationships, retirement benefits, and any other organisation-specific benefits. Employee loyalty and retention are critical organisational factors that contribute to continuance commitment (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). The material sacrifices associated with leaving a job are all about maintaining a commitment to the job (Ćulibrk et al., 2018).

Individuals may have motivations, such as advantages, that cause them to feel they are in the organisation to meet a need. Indeed, these ideas can be undermined by circumstances that influence people's attitudes (Ortiz, Lau & Qin, 2013). Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi (2019);

Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (2017) noted that, when considering side-bet theory, the authors identify a new dimension of organisational commitment called continuance commitment, which views the employee as less effective and more calculative in terms of benefits such as pensions and security. A change in attitude in this regard does not imply that people will no longer have to make material expenses if they quit the organisation (e.g., lose their benefits); rather, it refers to their ideas about it. After all, attitudes have the power to influence perceptions and beliefs (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller & Hulin, 2017). As Jaskyte, Butkevicien, Danusevicien and Jurkuvien (2020) have said, engagement can affect how people think and feel.

Meyer and Allen (1991) go on to say that staff whose primary connection to the organisation is based on continuance commitment do it out of necessity. This highlights the distinction between endurance and emotional commitment inside an organisation. Continuance commitment can be observed as an instrumental add-on to the organisation, in which the individual's involvement with the organisation is dictated by the economic benefits acquired (Karmakar, 2020; Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). College tutors develop continuance commitment as a result of the favourable extrinsic benefits gained through the effort bargain, while not connecting with the organisation's goals and beliefs (Pachua, 2018). The perceived cost of quitting the organisation impacts the grade of continuance commitment, which is related to the desire to stay (Shafiq & Rana, 2016).

Cao and Hamori (2016) assert that organisational commitment will be impenetrable when alternatives are scarce and investment volume is high. This argument demonstrates that when employees are presented with better alternatives, they may leave the organisation (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursiere & Raymond, 2016). Similarly, Bashir and Gani (2020) assert

that accumulating assets and limited employment opportunities tend to compel individuals to retain their line of conduct, resulting in these individuals remaining committed out of necessity. This means that individuals remain in the organisation as a result of other accumulated investments, such as pension plans, seniority, or organisation-specific skills that they may lose. The requirement to remain is a "profit" associated with continued participation, whereas the requirement to terminate service is a "cost" associated with leaving. Bhatti, Bhatti, Akram, Bilal and Akram (2016) substantiate the profit concept by expressing organisational commitment as an exchange structure in which performance and loyalty are traded for material benefits and rewards. Thus, to retain individuals who are consistently devoted, the organisation must place a higher value on and recognise those characteristics that contribute to an employee's morale and ability to be effectively committed (Manap, 2017).

2.4.4 Normative Commitment

Cesário and Chambel (2017) cited Allen and Meyer (1990) for an additional component, resulting in an understanding of the organisational commitment that includes not only affective and continuance commitment but also normative commitment. According to Cesário and Chambel (2017), normative commitment is a belief that one has a responsibility to stay with an organisation. It is founded on widely accepted principles regarding the reciprocal obligations of organisations and their staff. This is congruent with the "social exchange theory," which holds that when a person receives a benefit, that person is under a strong "normative" (i.e., rule-governed) obligation to repay it in some form (Liu et al. 2020). This means that, when an employee receives something more from their employer, they have a social obligation to repay it in some way (Ahmad, 2018). Additional

training, compassionate leave, and other options are possible. Meyer and Allen (1991) therefore thought of normative commitment as a staff commitment motivated by a sense of obligation. Staff with strong normative commitment understand that remaining with the organisation is a moral obligation and an ethical standard, even if they dislike it or receive fewer benefits than other options (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). This is the societal expectation, according to which one should remain faithful to the employer who compensates for services rendered (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Again, Ahmad (2018) considers employees' work-related behaviour driven by a sense of obligation, duty, and devotion to the organisation as normative commitment. Employees of an organisation continue to be committed for moral reasons (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019; Singh & Gupta, 2015). Regardless of the degree of status or happiness supplied by the organisation over time, the normatively committed employee remains in the organisation because it is ethically proper to do so (Aranki, Suifan & Sweis, 2019). The strength of normative commitment is determined by a personal acceptance of rules and the reciprocal link between the organisation and its staff (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich, 2017).

A person who receives a benefit is subject to a strong normative obligation or rule to repay the advantage in some form, according to the social exchange theory (Fietkau, 2018; Singh & Gupta, 2015). This is the foundation of reciprocity. According to Allen (2016), normative commitment is given even less consideration in research than continuance commitment. However, conflicts over the normative commitment scale, which has repeatedly shown a positive relationship between affective and normative commitment (Jaros, 2017), may contribute to some of these difficulties. As a result, some scholars have questioned the validity of the scale. Although affective and normative commitment have a

positive relationship, Singh and Bhardwaj (2017) argue that this does not mean that normative commitment is necessary. They discovered that normative commitment had modest relationships with various factors that generally correlate strongly with affective commitment (e.g., distributive justice), hinting that the normative commitment scale has some discriminant validity (Omwenga, 2017).

In normative commitment, the staff is obligated to remain in an organisation, which may be the result of normative pressures applied to an individual before employment (Luz, de Paula & de Oliveira, 2018; Yousef, 2017). Individuals remain committed to an organisation in the hope of repaying it for putting money into their training and development (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Socialisation appears to be a more important influence on normative commitment than on the other commitment characteristics (Allen, 2016). Socialisation can affect normative commitment, but this means that factors like engagement could also affect normative commitment in an organisation.

2.4.5 Levels of Organisational Commitment

There are various organisational commitment levels, and each is related to the growth of the organisational commitment of the individual (Karmakar, 2020). According to Morin (2016), employee commitment can range from low to moderate to high. High organisational commitment suggests strong adherence to the organisation's ideals and a willingness on the side of the employer to try to keep the employee.

According to Miller (2003, p. 73), "strong organisational commitment" entails "identification with one's employer". The concept of "will to stay" means that, at this level, behavioural tendencies are intimately tied to the affective dimension of commitment, in which persons stay because they want to. A moderate level of organisational commitment

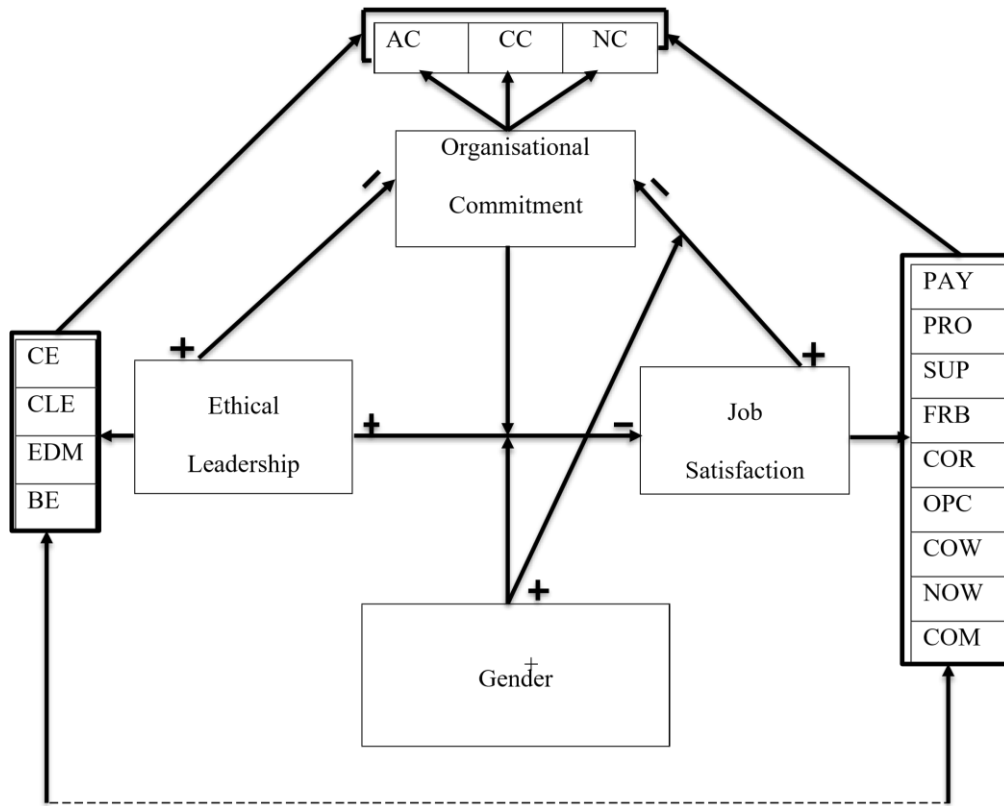
is characterised as an employee's reasonable acceptance of the organisation's aims and values, as well as their willingness to put in a lot of effort to stay with the organisation (Kipkebut, 2010). This level of commitment can be seen as sensible or average, which implies partial commitment. The willingness to remain is a quality associated with a moral commitment's normative dimension (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012). Persons stay in organisations because they have to do so.

Low organisational commitment, on the other hand, implies neither the acceptance of the organisation's goals and values nor a willingness to work hard to stay with the organisation (Saridakis, Lai, Muoz Torres & Gourlay, 2020). An employee at this level is dissatisfied with the organisation. However, such an individual may continue to work to fulfil the continuance dimension (Grego-Planer, 2020; Tadesse, 2019). Without a doubt, if given the opportunity, they will leave the organisation.

Tutors' commitment is critical to students' academic progress and the entire college experience. As a result, institutions of higher learning must engage in measures that encourage tutors' commitment, such as offering chances for professional growth and support systems.

2.5 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework created by the researcher in Figure 1 serves as the study's direction which helps in the examination of ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment in the colleges of education in Ghana. This framework served as the foundation on which decisions regarding methodology and hypotheses formulation are derived.



Note: Communicative ethics (CE), climatic ethics (CLE), ethical decision-making (ED), and behavioural ethics (BE).

Pay-PAY, Promotion-PRO, Supervision-SUP, Fringe benefits-FRB, Contingent rewards-COR, Operating conditions-OPC, Co-workers-COW, Nature of work-NOW, Communication-COM.

Affective commitment AC, Continuance commitment-CC and Normative commitment-NC.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the respective variables to test the relationship of ethical leadership of principals, tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Ghanaian CoE.

The model considers how the relationship between ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment influences each other. Figure 1 depicts the factors used in the investigation. ethical leadership is an independent variable. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment were the dependent variables. According to the literature reviewed, Yilmaz (2006) has four sub-scales that influence the success of the individual in the organisation. These include communicative ethics, climatic ethics, decision-making ethics, and behavioural ethics are all examples of ethics. There are nine major indicators on the job satisfaction scale. Pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment are the three dimensions of organisational commitment.

2.6 Empirical Review

2.6.1 Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

It makes sense that ethical leadership would have an effect on job satisfaction given the association between leadership style and job happiness. According to a study by Brown and Trevino (2005, p. 122), there is a strong correlation between ethical leadership and employee job satisfaction. This is because a moral leader "disciplines wrongdoers, treats their followers fairly and considerately, and demonstrates transformational leadership style."

Semra (2016) studies administrators' servant leadership and ethical leadership behaviours as well as the predictive efficacy of these behaviours on teachers' job satisfaction. The data was analysed using the mean score, standard deviation values, Pearson's product-moment correlation and multiple regression analysis. According to a correlation analysis, ethical

leadership, job satisfaction, and servant leadership, all have a negative relationship. There was a negative relationship between job satisfaction and all dimensions of servant leadership. Job satisfaction was positively correlated with ethical leadership. All dimensions of job satisfaction demonstrated a favourable correlation with ethical leadership.

Melis, Vural and Zejnepe (2017) investigate how ethical leadership affects job satisfaction. The studies claim that ethical leadership practices will raise satisfaction levels. 224 administrative staff members from Konya Greater Municipality and the Municipalities of Central Province of Turkey provided the information. According to the results of the SEM analysis, ethical leadership behaviours have a positive effect on employee job satisfaction.

In his research study, Yates (2011) examines the consequences of low and high levels of ethical leadership on staff job satisfaction. According to the statistics, ethical leadership and job satisfaction are positively and moderately correlated, and staff of the highly ethical leaders reported higher job satisfaction than those of the less ethical leaders.

2.6.2 Ethical Leadership and Organisational Commitment

The relationship between ethical leadership and organisational commitment is examined in Tehran fire organisations by Mohammadkarim, Ghasemi and Hasanpoor (2021). An analysis using descriptive correlation techniques was performed. In the executive and headquarters divisions of Teran's fire department, 200 randomly chosen participants who worked there made up the sample. A questionnaire with three components was utilised to collect data: demographics, organisational commitment, and ethical leadership scale. Amos 24 and SPSS software were used to analyze the data, and frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations (SD), and Pearson's correlation coefficient were used to present the

data. A mean and standard deviation of 3.44, 6.07, and 3.66, 0.62, respectively, were found for organisational commitment and ethical leadership. The affective commitment component had the highest average rating (3.63 \pm 0.75), out of all the organisational commitment dimensions. The highest average (3.79 \pm 0.70) was found in the ethical leadership subset of ethical management. Each aspect of organisational commitment— affective, continuance, and normative commitment—was found to substantially correlate with ethical leadership ($p < 0.05$).

Abayomi (2021) examined the influence of ethical leadership and employee commitment on organisational effectiveness in an academic setting focusing on non-faculty members. The descriptive survey research approach was used, and 200 questionnaires were distributed, of which 181 (90.5%) were considered usable for the study. Three hypotheses were tested, and the result indicated that there is a relationship between ethical leadership and organisational effectiveness. It was found that ethical leadership influences employees' commitment and attitude to work. It was equally established that there is a substantial relationship between ethical leadership, employees' commitment, and organisational effectiveness.

Seita and Mona (2019) investigated the relationship between ethical leaders' behaviour and their continuance organisational commitment, as well as the mediating effect of teachers' loyalty on their relationships. The study took a quantitative approach with 372 samples. According to the study, there is a statistical relationship between ethical leadership and teacher loyalty. The study also discovered that the relationship between ethical leadership and ongoing organisational commitment was supported by teachers' loyalty.

Akter, Uddin, Hossain and Parveen (2016) determined the relationship between ethical leadership and organisational commitment in a railway organisation in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The results showed that organisational commitment is significantly impacted by ethical leadership. The study also discovered that ethical leadership influenced workers' affective, continuance, normative, and, most importantly, commitment behaviours.

Jibrin, Koharuddin, Fauzi, Azhar-Bin, Sabo, Mutawalli and Abubakar, (2021) investigated the relationship between ethical leadership and organisational commitment among academic staff at public universities in Nigeria. The study adopted a quantitative research design, with a survey questionnaire delivered to academic staff. The analysis included a total of 196 samples. Two statistical software packages were utilised to analyse the data: SPSS version 25.0 and Smart PLS version 3.2.8. According to the findings, ethical leadership has a positive and substantial impact on organisational commitment. The study's implication is the importance of ethical leadership to organisational commitment.

Damini (2017) explored how ethical leadership influences employee commitment and the firm's perceived productivity. This study used a quantitative method with a cross-sectional survey methodology to examine 564 employees working in 7 organisations in North India's service sector industries. This population group yielded a non-probability, convenience sample. Per the outcomes of the study, ethical leadership has an impact on organisational commitment.

Siegel (2013) investigated the link between ethical leadership and organisational commitment in the Canadian Armed Forces, using a sample of 468 Canadian Armed Forces

Army personnel. Perceived supervisor/ethical leadership was found to be a direct and positive predictor of employee affective and normative commitment, but not of employee continuance commitment. Furthermore, there was no difference in female military personnel's perceptions of supervisor ethical leadership compared to male military personnel. Brown et al. (2005) as a result concluded that ethical leaders are more likely to have a positive effect on a subordinate's commitment to the organisation.

Khuong and Dung (2015) examined the impacts of ethical leadership on organisational commitment in the tourism sector. The majority of the data was collected quantitatively, with questionnaires issued to 300 official employees of tourist businesses such as travel agencies, tour operators, tourist locations, hotels, and restaurants. The findings indicated that employee sociability, involvement, and mission culture all exhibited a positive association with organisational commitment among employees. In addition to that, the research suggested that to increase organisational commitment, businesses should: a) hire employees with sociable characteristics; and b) internalise an involvement and mission culture. Again, Qing, Asif, Hussain and Jameel (2020) indicate a correlation between ethical leadership and subordinate organisational commitment, but the study relied on self-reported measures of organisational commitment.

Sabir (2020) investigated ethical leadership perceptions and their impact on teacher commitment in Pakistan. The empirical study was based on primary data collected from 320 teachers. With a cover letter stating the study's goal and a structured questionnaire as the research instrument, a survey was employed to gather data. According to the study's conclusions, teachers thought their bosses were moderately ethical, and there was a strong positive correlation between the two. (Ali, Ahmad, & Saeed, 2018). Once again, neither

the employees' age nor gender affected the leaders' ethical leadership behaviours. The study discovered that seniority affected an employee's perceptions of ethical leadership behaviour.

2.6.3 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

According to some experts, job satisfaction has a favourable impact on organisational commitment. The educational sector was analysed by Zandi et al. (2018), small and medium-sized enterprises by Valaei and Razaei (2016), and civil aviation by Karim and Rehman (2012). According to Torlak, Kuzey, Sait Dinç and Budur (2021, p. 81) "Overall job satisfaction refers to good feelings about a job, resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics that include the nature of work, administration style, relationships with co-workers, remuneration, working conditions, and job security", and "Organisational commitment also refers to whether an employee wishes to continue working for an organisation or leave it" (Jigjiddorj et al., 2021, p. 1). Organisational commitment and job satisfaction have received a lot of attention in the modern workplace. This is so because it's commonly acknowledged that these factors can predict organisational performance and effectiveness quite well (Miah, 2018; Tolentino, 2013).

In the Uganda Colleges of Commerce, a higher education institution, a study by Odoch and Nangoli (2014) found a substantial correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Dalkrani and Dimitriadis (2018) conducted research in Greece utilising correlation and regression analysis to examine the link between organisational commitment and job satisfaction for workers in the private sector. Employee commitment was found to be positively impacted by job satisfaction as evaluated by the workplace and job features.

Promotions and prizes, however, did not significantly influence organisational commitment.

Through job satisfaction, Ashraf (2020) looks into how demographic factors affect organisational commitment in Bangladeshi private universities. The findings show that demographic factors affect job satisfaction indirectly even when they have no direct effect on organisational commitment. As a result, Martin and Kaufman (2013), indicate that job satisfaction is a key determinant of a staff's commitment to their employer, and low job satisfaction may result in a lower degree of commitment at work (Bashir & Gani, 2019).

Syed (2010) examined the nature of the relationship between demographic characteristics (such as age and length of employment) and the components of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Additionally, the study was designed to determine the effects of demographic variables and job satisfaction characteristics on organisational commitment. 128 employees from the service sector were selected at random as the sample. Employees were given the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) questionnaire as well as the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). To examine the data, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analyses were utilised. The study's findings indicate that the mean values for organisational commitment and job satisfaction are on the moderate side. Among job satisfaction factors, demographic traits, and organisational commitment, a moderately strong positive link was found. Significant indicators of organisational commitment included compensation, age, length of employment, and general job satisfaction.

Willy and Allida (2021) investigated the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among employees of a selected higher educational institution in Northwest Haiti. A questionnaire was used to obtain data from 55 employees. Employees have a modest level of job satisfaction and a high level of continuance and normative commitment. It was also shown that there is a substantial positive link between job satisfaction and affective commitment and a weak positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment.

According to Kelly's (2015) research, measures of organisational commitment include job satisfaction levels and the link between those two concepts. A sample of 62 commissioned officers was used, and the sampling method was quantitative non-probability convenience sampling. The study's findings showed that respondents' levels of organisational commitment across all three components and overall commitment were below average. Additionally, a statistically substantial and robust positive correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction was discovered.

There is a direct correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Eliyana & Ma'arif, 2019). Furthermore, Cherian, Alkhatib, Aggarwal and Cherian (2018) discovered that nurses' strongest attitudes toward organisational commitment and job satisfaction stem from a strong sense of organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Again, Daneshfard and Ekvanian (2012) examined job satisfaction and organisational commitment among employees, managers, and delegation members at Islamic Azad University (IAU) in Kogiluyeh and Boyer Ahmad provinces. They discovered a positive and substantial relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among employees. Iqbal (2012) conducted research in Pakistan on the effects of job

satisfaction and job control on organisational commitment among the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) air traffic controllers. The study also discovered that job satisfaction had a beneficial effect on organisational commitment.

Moynihan and Pandey (2007), Harrison, Newman and Roth (2006) assessed job satisfaction and organisational commitment to determine work motivation. They identified substantial correlations between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in both public and private organisations in the United States. Eliyana, Yusuf and Prabowo (2012) provided a correlation between job satisfaction factors (ability utilisation, salary, colleague relationships, working conditions, recognition, and achievement) and organisational commitment among Jaya Readymix Concrete Production employees in Indonesia. This corroborates Goleman's (2017) assertion that satisfied employees are more likely to report to work, stay with the organisation, report on time, perform well, and engage in organisationally beneficial behaviours. This demonstrates the inextricable link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Yousef, 2017).

Jigjiddorj, Zanabazar, Jambal and Semjid (2021) indicate that job satisfaction and organisational commitment has garnered a lot of attention in workplace research. This is because it is commonly recognised that these variables can be predictive factors of organisational performance and effectiveness (Miah, 2018; Tolentino, 2013).

Ismail (2012) researched to determine the link between organisational commitment and job satisfaction among employees at Kelantan's institutes of higher learning. Job satisfaction was found to be unrelated to each of the three categories of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. The researcher explained why the relationship was irrelevant

in light of the study's context and stressed the importance of the study's context in determining the association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among nurses working in hospitals in the Iranian city of Kazeroon was also studied by Mehdi, Zahra and Mahshid in 2013. The study found a substantial, positive relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and job satisfaction. Mohamed, Kader and Anisa (2012) discovered a link between job satisfaction and each of the three categories of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) in two private banking firms in India's Tiruchirappalli District.

Brenda (2017) also conducted another quantitative study on job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and ethical climate among higher education administrators in Maryland's public and private schools and universities. The objective of this research was to conduct an empirical evaluation of the current study. This quantitative study sought to examine the linkages among higher education administrators at all two and four-year schools in Maryland regarding perceived job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and ethical atmosphere. This study's objective was to inform higher education administrators on the elements that affect workplace commitment to the organisation, job satisfaction, and degrees of ethical commitment. During the 2016 fall semester, an online survey was administered to 278 higher education administrators at public and private universities in Maryland. The survey outcomes were compared to the demographics of the participants, their job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and ethical climates. MANOVA, Chi-Square, and descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. The findings show that job satisfaction, gender, and administrative position all have a big impact on how people think

about the ethical climate. On the composite measure of job satisfaction, a median split was discovered. 69.00 was determined to be the median. Scores below the median indicate dissatisfaction with one's job, while scores above the median indicate satisfaction with one's job. It came out that, job satisfaction is inextricably linked to a hospitable ethical climate.

2.6.4 Ethical Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Celik, Dedeoglu and Inanir (2015) investigated the role of organisational commitment as a partial mediator in the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction with the staff of four and five-star hotels in Turkey. The results showed that job satisfaction was moderately impacted by ethical leadership. However, when organisational commitment and ethical leadership are combined, ethical leaders encourage staff to be more satisfied with their jobs through strengthening organisational commitment.

Negiş-Işik (2020) investigated how affective commitment and job satisfaction serve as mediators between ethical leadership and school effectiveness. Due to this, 306 teachers completed tests on ethical leadership, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and school effectiveness. The results corroborated the positive associations between ethical leadership and affective commitment, job satisfaction, and school effectiveness. The results also showed that work attitudes, such as affective commitment and job satisfaction, somewhat moderated the association between ethical leadership and school effectiveness, showing that ethical leadership had both direct and indirect effects on school effectiveness.

Amoah, Jehu-Appiah and Boateng (2022) investigate ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment among Ghanaian healthcare staff. A quantitative cross-sectional survey design with structured questionnaires was utilised. The study included 617

health workers, including doctors, nurses, pharmacists, physician assistants, and laboratory technicians. As analytical tools, Pearson's correlation and linear regression were used. It was discovered that ethical leadership and job satisfaction had a favourable impact on organisational commitment. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, was found to have a larger effect size than ethical leadership.

Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) discovered a highly positive association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment using data from staff in both the industrial and service sectors. According to the study's findings, job satisfaction is a concept that acts as a predictor variable for organisational commitment. Eslami and Gharakani (2012) discovered a favourable relationship between job satisfaction and normative, affective, and continuance commitment. The study looked into factors of job satisfaction related to promotions, personal relations, and perceptions of a pleasant working environment. Other research has found a moderate to significant link between job satisfaction and affective commitment (Anari, 2012; Zehir, Erdogan & Basar, 2011).

Researchers discovered that organisational commitment is required for job satisfaction. Imran, Arif, Cheema and Azeem (2014) explored the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction in teachers and discovered that a shift in organisational commitment resulted in an improvement in job satisfaction. According to Nafei's (2015) research, organisational commitment comes before job satisfaction.

Indartono and Chen (2011) discovered that organisational commitment influenced job satisfaction by investigating the impact of organisational political views on both organisational commitment and job satisfaction. According to Nayir (2012), one of the

numerous predictor variables for organisational commitment is job satisfaction, which is also influenced by perceptions of organisational justice, the organisational reward system, and the amount of assistance the organisation provides to staff.

Sedat, Bekir and Inanir (2015) explored the relationship between ethical leadership style, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry, intending to reveal the function of organisational commitment as a mediator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. The study included 371 individuals who worked at Antalya's four and five-star hotels. The study's conclusions indicate that ethical leadership is beneficial for organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and that organisational commitment is beneficial for job satisfaction. More so, it was demonstrated that organisational commitment serves as a lone mediator between ethical leadership and fulfilment at work.

2.6.5 Gender, Ethical Leadership and Organisational Commitment

Gender is one demographic factor that has an impact on how people perceive, evaluate, act, and behave at work. It is recommended that the participants' gender be assessed in educational contexts (Hall & Quinn, 2014). In the workplace and in general, men and women play different roles (Karakuş, 2018). Males typically exhibit agentic behaviour patterns, which cause them to act in a competitive and goal-oriented way (Fjendbo, 2021). Females, on the other hand, often demonstrate social behaviour patterns that urge them to engage in a nurturing and socially focused manner (Greguletz, Diehl & Kreutzer, 2019). Females prefer to engage in interpersonal and cooperative behaviour more commonly through communal behaviour to strengthen their bonds with others, gain social support, and contribute to their feelings of belonging (Bormann, Backs & Hoon, 2021; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris & Zivnuska, 2011; Kidder, 2002).

Based on teacher's age and gender, Karakuş (2018) investigates the relationships between the ethical leadership behaviours of principals and the organisational commitment levels of teachers. A set of 403 elementary school teachers (199 women and 204 men) were given the questionnaires. The level of commitment among female teachers, however, was more strongly influenced by ethical leadership actions. Furthermore, when compared to their younger colleagues, older male teachers were more critical of the ethical leadership practices of their superiors.

2.6. 6 Gender, job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Organisations place a tremendous deal of emphasis on the outcomes of organisational commitment. The idea that employees who feel connected to their organisations work harder and perform better is likely the driving force behind this interest in organisational commitment (Akter, Rahman, Al-Amin & Ferdousy, 2021; Celep, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A study on the link among gender and teachers' organisational commitment is investigated in a meta-analysis (Dalgic, 2014). The link was examined both generally and in terms of the organisational commitment's three sub-dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative. The 33 investigations were conducted between 2000 and 2014, using the Allen and Meyer (1991) organisational commitment scale. There were 11,690 teachers in the sample (female 6,232, male 5,458). The results indicate that gender is not a significant variable in determining teachers' level of organisational commitment. The mean effect sizes for overall, affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment show that the effect of gender on the organisational commitment of teachers is in favour of females.

A study by Aftab, Ali Shah and Khan (2020) demonstrates that the link between organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour is moderated by gender in Pakistani university teachers. This association between organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour among university teachers was tempered by gender. Concerning the study, there is no relationship between organisational commitments for men and women, although there is a substantial positive relationship for women. For female teachers, the relationship between organisational commitments is important. The findings allude that, having more female teachers is crucial for a healthy interaction between organisational commitments. Only female teachers exhibit this link, which may be because men do not always act as ethically as women do (Aftab, Ali Shah & Khan, 2020, cited Beu et al., 2003). Gender was found to be a moderator in a study of the relationship between organisational commitment and nonwork-related activities (Aftab, Ali Shah & Khan, 2020). The results showed that organisational commitment had a stronger effect on the conduct of women. Considering the above discussions, it is clear that there are factors that support the claim that organisational commitment is more likely to influence women's behaviour. The finding proves that it is imperative to have more female teachers to have a strong correlation between organisational commitments throughout the school.

It has been acknowledged that gender inequalities predominate in various employees' opinions of their jobs (Aftab, Ali Shah & Khan, 2020; Piercy et al., 2001; Moncrief et al., 2000). Gender affects the methods that people of all sexes are inclined to use and the methods that are used to understand their conduct (Oakley, 2016; Tannenbaum, Greaves & Graham, 2016). Gender, when taken into account as a personal characteristic, may

influence how someone perceives their workplace and how they interact with people there (Triana, Jayasinghe, Pieper, Delgado & Li, 2019). Besides, the gender of an employee may have an impact on whether or not their colleagues offer them opportunities, social support, and various forms of information (Clark, Rudolph, Zhdanova, Michel & Baltes, 2017; Kim, Henly, Golden & Lambert, 2020). The findings of studies on the relationship between gender and job satisfaction have been conflicting (Eleswed & Mohammed, 2013). There are no discernible differences in job satisfaction between the sexes, according to research on gender as a moderating factor (Suki & Suki, 2012). Gender did not alter sub-variables associated with job satisfaction such as the potential for promotion, job stability, and relationships with coworkers (David, Gidwani, Birthare & Singh, 2015). Despite women reporting slightly lower job satisfaction than males, the differences between the sexes were not statistically significant, according to the findings of a study by Bonte and Krabel (2014) involving more than 2,000 university graduates. When investigating the relationship between gender and job satisfaction among higher education administrators, no statistically substantial differences were found (DiSorbo, 2017; Howard-Baldwin, Celik & Kraska, 2012).

In contrast, Aytac (2015) discovered that female teachers had higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Eleswed and Mohamed (2013) also found that job satisfaction tends to be higher for women and rises with age. A study by Jackson, Albertis, and Snipes (2014), shows that the gender of the manager may affect how satisfied male and female employees are with their jobs. The research was founded on the theoretical supposition that since both the manager and the employee employ demographic biases to filter information, the demographic variations of managers or supervisors lead to higher

job ambiguity for employees. Higher levels of job satisfaction were a result of gender parity between managers and staff. Therefore, when working for male managers, male staff expressed greater job satisfaction, and when working for female managers, female employees expressed greater job satisfaction.

The results of a study conducted by Verma, Bhal and Vrat (2013) suggest that gender inequalities in job satisfaction exist as a result of variations in the methods by which firms treat their staff. Women experience better levels of job satisfaction and are typically on par with males in organisations that adopt gender-sensitive procedures (Baeza, Gonzalez & Wang, 2018). The level of job satisfaction for women is frequently lower than the level of job satisfaction for males in organisations that do not implement gender-sensitive policies (Verma, Bhal & Vrat, 2013). Family-friendly rules, adaptable work hours, and job sharing are examples of gender-sensitive practices. The authors claimed that some techniques that assist female employees in satisfying family duties lowered stress, which had a favourable influence on workplace satisfaction.

According to a study by Magee (2013), women's job satisfaction decreased and increased more quickly than men's in response to organisational practices. In general, unfavourable experiences or perceptions about their jobs had a detrimental impact on both men and women. Women's job satisfaction declined more quickly than men's as a result of the adverse effect. The outcomes suggested that gender-based variations in job satisfaction were not constant over time but instead evolved in response to working experiences.

Due to their lower expectations for work-related outcomes, such as a lower expectation of development, women frequently report higher levels of job satisfaction in a range of work

situations, according to Bonte and Krabel (2014). Men and women may experience different levels of job satisfaction due to different variables, despite these differences existing concurrently. According to the study, women are frequently more satisfied with their jobs than men are, and the factors affecting women's job satisfaction are different from those affecting men's job satisfaction. This implies that a range of factors may affect gender variations in job satisfaction.

The gender-based expectations of employees about behaviour regularly become apparent at work (Ye, Wang, Wendt, Wu & Euwema, 2016). According to Julien (2019), men are perceived as competent, goal-oriented, and autonomous, whereas women are seen as kind, relationship-focused, and social. Women are likely to take care of the personal and emotional needs of others, perform routine types of personal service and more generally, aid the struggle of others toward their goals, (Bat, Dolev & Meni, 2021).

2.7 Summary of literature review

The literature review discusses in detail various concepts and sub-themes of the primary topics: ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. In recent times there has been a noteworthy increment in ethical leadership investigation. Given the evolving complexity of organisational ethics and the growing prominence of leadership ethics, this is not shocking. Some studies on ethical leadership portrayed ethics as a key to leadership because they affect the way a leader is perceived by others, how they interact with their team members, and how they build organisational values. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, is a complex and multifaceted concept that explains a representative's inspiration and motivation for going to work. Job satisfaction can mean different things to different people, and these meanings change with age, gender, and level of motivation,

taking into account the unique organisational characteristics and the inherent essence of the work itself. This undoubtedly may impact employee commitment. The literature reviews on ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment highlight the fact that when leaders execute ethical leadership qualities in organisations it is glaring that job satisfaction levels will increase. In the same manner, it is believed that ethical surroundings may improve job satisfaction (Vitell & Davis, 1990, p. 493) and increase the commitment of staff. Thus, it is clear that ethical leadership studies are necessary to increase tutor job satisfaction and commitment among colleges of education in Ghana and all other employees in an organisation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter sought to describe the methodology employed to assess the ethical leadership of principals, tutor job satisfaction, and organisational commitment in colleges of education in Ghana. After defining the research objectives and writing the literature review, the next most crucial stage in any research process is selecting the most appropriate methodology (Snyder, 2019). Therefore, the chapter discusses the philosophical underpinning of the study, the research design, the population for the study, the sample and sampling procedure, instruments for data collection, data collection procedures, and data processing and analysis.

3.1 Philosophical underpinning of the study

Several research philosophies influence various research methodologies. These philosophies impact the researcher's perspective and the procedures and strategies used during the research process (May & Perry, 2022). The major research philosophies include positivism, realism, pragmatism, constructivism, interpretivism and postmodernism.

A research philosophy is a set of ideas and assumptions regarding the development of knowledge (Kama, 2019). It is precisely what you are doing when you engage in study and build knowledge in a particular field. The knowledge development you are pursuing may not be as spectacular as a new theory of human motivation, but you are contributing to advancement by solving a specific problem in a particular organisation (Bolisani, Bratianu, Bolisani & Bratianu, 2018). At every point of investigation, whether you are conscious of it or not, you will make a variety of assumptions (Morgan, 2012). These include

assumptions about human knowledge (epistemological assumptions), assumptions about the reality you meet in your research (ontological assumptions), and assumptions regarding the extent and method in which your values impact your research process (axiological assumption). These assumptions will unavoidably influence how you understand your research questions and hypotheses, the methodologies you employ, and how you interpret your findings (Tajvidi, Karami, Tajvidi & Karami, 2015). A well-thought-out and consistent set of assumptions will form a believable research philosophy, which will serve as the foundation for your methodological choice, research plan, data collection methodologies, and analysis procedures. This will help you create a cohesive research design in which all study aspects fit together. These assumptions include ontology, epistemology and axiology.

Ontology refers to ideas about the nature of reality (Al-Ababneh, 2020). Although this may appear abstract and unrelated to your original research endeavour, your ontological assumptions impact how you view and understand your research objects. Epistemology is concerned with assumptions about knowing, what constitutes acceptable, valid, and legitimate knowledge, and how we might transmit information to others (Adam, 2014). Epistemology acknowledges that knowledge is historically contextual (that is, it is a product of its time and is peculiar to it) and that universal truths are social constructs agreed upon by individuals rather than existing independently (Letsekha, 2021). This suggests that critical realist concepts of causation cannot be limited to statistical correlations and quantitative methods and that a variety of methodologies are appropriate (Jaksic, Silic & Silic, 2021). Axiology refers to the role of values and ethics in the research process. This

includes considerations regarding how we as researchers deal with our values as well as the values of our research participants.

If research results are to be trustworthy, the role that your values play at all phases of the research process is critical. According to Chouinard and Cousins (2021), our values are the guiding justification for all human action. He goes on to say that researchers display axiological abilities by being able to define their beliefs as a basis for making decisions about what research to do and how to go about it. As a researcher, you must cultivate reflexivity to become aware of and actively shape the relationship between your philosophical viewpoint and how you do your research (Alvesson, Sandberg & Einola, 2022). The philosophical underpinnings include; positivism, pragmatism, realism, constructivism and postmodernism.

Positivist philosophy believes that knowledge can be discovered objectively through observable facts and evidence. It emphasises the scientific approach and seeks objective information through quantitative research methods. Positivists believe in the researcher's independence from the research subject. Positivism is a philosophical viewpoint related to natural science that includes working with observable social reality to develop law-like generalisations. Its roots may be seen in the works of Francis Bacon, Auguste Comte, and the Vienna Circle, a group of philosophers and scientists from the early twentieth century (Fisette, 2018). The term positivism relates to the significance of what is 'posited'. This emphasises the positivist focus on a purely scientific empiricist process that produces pure data and facts free of human interpretation or bias. Positivists seek to develop ideas that apply to people or societies in general.

Pragmatism holds that concepts are only meaningful when they facilitate action (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020). It seeks to balance objectivism with subjectivism, facts and values, accurate and rigorous knowledge, and diverse contextualised experiences. It does this by analysing theories, ideas, hypotheses, and research findings not in abstract terms but in terms of the roles they play as instruments of thinking and action, as well as their practical implications in specific situations. Pragmatists view reality as the practical results of ideas and knowledge as the ability to successfully carry out actions. For a pragmatist, research begins with a problem and aims to contribute practical solutions that inform future practice. Researcher values drive the reflexive process of inquiry, which is initiated by doubt and a sense that something is wrong or out of place, and which re-creates belief when the problem is resolved (Tolymat, Abdelaziz, Salam & Shawky, 2023). Pragmatism finds pragmatic solutions to research problems by integrating parts of positivism and interpretivism (da Silva, de Oliveira Siqueira, Araújo & Dornelas, 2018). It believes that the research technique should be chosen pragmatically, depending on what works best in the particular context. Pragmatists examine numerous methodologies and approaches, including quantitative and qualitative research, to arrive at practical and context-dependent conclusions.

Realism proposes that reality exists independently of human perception and that it can be understood through scientific investigation. It acknowledges the existence of an external reality and believes that scientific principles can aid in understanding it. Smith and Elger (2014) postulate that realism emphasises a balanced approach that combines objective data collection with subjective experience interpretation and analysis. Realism is concerned with understanding what we see and feel in terms of the underlying reality structures that

affect observable happenings. Realism emerged in the late twentieth century as a reaction to both positivism and postmodernism in the work of Roy Bhaskar and it represents a middle ground between these two stances (Ariail Reed, 2023). According to realism, there are two steps to understanding the world. First, there are the sensations and experiences that we encounter. Second, there is the mental processing that occurs after the encounter, when we 'reason backwards' from our experiences to the underlying reality that may have produced them (this reasoning backwards is referred to as 'retroduction') (Ariail Reed, 2023).

Interpretivism emphasises the significance of understanding and interpreting human behaviour and experiences. It emphasises subjective meanings, cultural factors, and social settings (Pervin & Mokhtar, 2022). Interpretivists employ qualitative research methods such as interviews, observations, and case studies to acquire insights into people's viewpoints and experiences. Interpretivism emphasises that people are distinct from physical facts in that they generate meaning. According to interpretivism, humans and their social surroundings cannot be investigated in the same manner as physical facts (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Because different people of different cultural backgrounds make different meanings under different circumstances and at different times and thus create and experience different social realities, interpretivists are critical of positivist attempts to discover definite, universal 'laws' that apply to everyone. Rather, they argue that significant insights into mankind are lost if such complexity is reduced completely to a sequence of law-like generalisations. The goal of interpretivism research is to develop new, richer understandings and interpretations of social environments and settings.

Constructivism also considers individuals actively generating knowledge based on their subjective viewpoints and experiences (Malik, 2021). It implies that reality is socially produced and modified by human interpretations and interactions with the world. Constructivists study the processes by which people build and interpret information, generally utilising qualitative research methods such as interviews and observations. Constructionists are concerned with the lenses through which people view events and the expectations and meanings that they bring to a situation. Constructionists believe that groups of people create and then share understandings.

Postmodernism points out the significance of language and power relations in challenging conventional ways of thinking and giving voice to marginalised views. The purpose of postmodern research is to profoundly question conventional methods of thinking and to give voice and validity to previously silenced and marginalised ways of seeing and knowing (Zyphur & Pierides, 2020). Instead of addressing the organisational world as a collection of objects and entities like 'management,' 'performance,' and 'resources,' a postmodernist researcher would concentrate on the continuing processes of organising, managing, and ordering that constitute such entities. As a postmodernist, you would be willing to deconstruct any type of data, including texts, images, conversations, voices, and statistics. You, like interpretivists, would conduct in-depth research on phenomena. The realisation that power interactions between the researcher and research subjects affect the data generated as part of the research process is central to postmodernist research. Researchers must be honest about their moral and ethical stances since power relations cannot be avoided and you should seek to be radically reflective about your thinking and writing ((Calás & Smircich, 2019; Cunliffe, 2020). Postmodernism holds that reality is not

fully knowable and that truth cannot be defined. At the extreme, some postmodernists believe that nothing can be known and that the most researchers can do is enable individuals to share their experiences and sentiments. Postmodernists claim that impartiality is impossible since everyone has interests and attitudes that impact how topics are chosen, questions are posed, and suitable methods of analysis are used. Since no two researchers are identical, the findings reached by diverse researchers are unlikely to coincide.

It is important to emphasise that various philosophies exist on a continuum, and researchers may use a combination of philosophies based on their research topics, areas of expertise, and personal values. The research philosophy that is chosen serves as the foundation for research design, data-gathering procedures and methods of analysis.

3.1.1 Positivism

This study is grounded in positivism. According to Moses and Knutsen (2019), positivism is a method for studying society that is entirely based on scientific data, such as experiments and statistics, to elucidate the true nature of how society operates. Hasan (2016), indicates that this worldview was introduced by Comte, a French philosopher who coined the term "positivism". Positivism is adamant in its belief that the senses, including measurement, acquire factual information. Mathotaarachchi and Thilakarathna (2021) argue that positivist research takes a logical approach on the whole. In this sense, positivism provides unambiguous and precise information and places a premium on purely empirical scientific methods that produce pure data and facts free of human interpretation or bias (Muhaise, Ejiri, Muwanga-Zake & Kareyo, 2020). Mohajan (2020) and Majeed (2019) also postulate that positivism enables researchers to concentrate on observable and quantifiable facts and

patterns, and only observable and quantifiable phenomena result in the generation of trustworthy and relevant data. Tacconi (2017) asserts that a positivist must maintain an objective and detached relationship with research and data to avoid biased findings. This implies that you would conduct research objectively.

Hughes and Sharrock (2016) demonstrate that when conducting quantitative research using positivism, the researcher is always independent. This means that no reference is made to human concerns in the study. Furthermore, Park, Konge and Artino (2020) indicate that positivist investigations are typically deductive. Positivism is the idea that researchers should pay more attention to facts (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020).

Given the strengths of positivism, this research is founded on quantitative data, which positivists believe is more reliable than qualitative data (Rahi, 2017; Rehman & Alharthi, 2016; Williams, 2011). Throughout studies and debates, positivism adheres to a well-defined structure. Again, positivists argue that because established laws and regulations must be followed at all times by the researcher, there is little room for error (Best & Kahn, 2016). Positivism says that objective deductions and conclusions are often reached after a long time because the observer is objective and does not care about emotions (Mohajan, 2020; Coghlan, 2019). While human behaviour elicits emotional responses, positivism encourages researchers to disregard human emotions and behaviour. However, there is no guarantee that this will occur consistently across studies (Bunge, 2017). Lindenfeld (2020) on the other hand, reminds us that positivists view the world as it is and frequently overlook unexplained events. This concept may discourage individuals from engaging in lateral thinking, which is the process by which they come up with solutions to problems via unconventional and indirect routes.

3.2 Research Design

According to Awe (2022), a research design is the arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy and procedure. Research design is the plan, structure, strategy, and investigation combined to obtain a search question and control variance (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2021). It refers to the overall strategy utilised to carry out research that defines a succinct and logical plan to tackle established research question(s) through the collection, interpretation, analysis, and discussion of data (Marlow, 2023).

There are several types of research designs including experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational, descriptive, observational, case study, longitudinal, action research and cross-sectional designs. These are some of the common research designs, and researchers may choose the most appropriate one based on their research questions, hypothesis, resources and practical considerations.

3.2.1 Cross-Sectional Research Design

A cross-sectional design looks at data at a single point in time (Aggarwal & Ranganathan, 2019). The participants in this type of study are selected based on particular variables of interest (Wang & Cheng, 2020). The objective of this study is to determine the relationship between the independent variable ethical leadership and the dependent variables job satisfaction and organisational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative). A cross-sectional design, also known as a one-shot study was used which is the most common design in the social sciences and quantitative method.

This researcher employed a quantitative method to assess the effect of ethical leadership of principals on tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The independent variable, ethical leadership, was categorised into four dimensions, while job satisfaction is made up of nine dimensions. Organisational commitment consists of three dimensions. The study sought to determine if differences exist between the independent variable and the dependent variables.

The following are justifications for using a cross-sectional research design in the study: the current study explores correlations between variables at a single point in time hence, using cross-sectional design. The study analyses the relationships between variables by gathering data from a varied set of participants, reflecting various characteristics.

Cross-sectional research design allows researchers to measure multiple variables simultaneously. The hypotheses indicate multiple variables tested. This approach permits the analysis of various factors that may influence the research hypotheses, enabling the researcher to examine complex relationships between variables in a relatively straightforward manner. Last but not least, cross-sectional design often involves large sample sizes, providing more statistical power and enabling more robust data analysis. With a large sample size, the researcher can generalise the findings to a larger population, increasing the study's external validity. Considering the above reasons, the appropriate design to use is the cross-sectional research design.

The cross-sectional approach is best suited to studies that use a cross-section of the population to determine the generality of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude, or issue (Gautam, 2021). This design helps researchers to get a general picture of the situation

during the time of the study. Babbie (1989, p. 89) also reiterates that cross-sectional surveys "are meant to analyse a phenomenon by looking at a cross-section of it all at once". The cross-sectional design is extremely straightforward. You decide what you want to learn about, identify the study population, select a sample (if necessary), and then contact your respondents to obtain the information you require (Ihudiebube-Splendor & Chikeme, 2020; Fogelman & Comber, 2002). Cross-sectional designs are relatively inexpensive to conduct and analyse because they only have one point of contact with the study population. Their major flaw, though, is that they cannot track change. It is a type of research design that describes a population, situation, or phenomenon (Pandey & Pandey, 2021; Kumar, 2018; Akhtar, 2016). This design is more concerned with the how, what, when, and where of a research challenge than with the why.

This design allows for a complete look at the people being studied (Blaikie & Priest, 2019; Leavy, 2017). The cross-sectional design is the best approach to gathering and analysing the data in this study (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2014). Again, the design was chosen to reflect the study's underlying positivist premise, which presumes the existence of a numerically definable objective world. The study's defining characteristics were its reliance on statistics and measurement, as well as an examination of their interactions (Hudson & Ishizu, 2016). People who do quantitative research are optimistic because they use scientific methods to test their hypotheses, (Gomm, 2017). Creswell and Creswell (2017) postulate that studies that are looking for important factors or the best predictors of an outcome should use a quantitative cross-sectional approach. Queirós, Faria and Almeida (2017) consider that this design enables researchers to make mathematical inferences about hypothetical data. A cross-sectional design is used in this study because it helps explain

the context of a research problem and get the information needed to do more research (Gray, 2021).

Finally, the cross-sectional design is restricted in scope because it focuses exclusively on the "what" of the research, leaving out information about the "why," thereby limiting the scope of the research (Fayomi, Okokpujie & Udo, 2018).

3.3 Population

The research population is the set or group of all the units to whom the study findings are to be applied (Ali & Bhaskar, 2016). The population is a collection of all the units possessing variable characteristics under investigation and for whom research findings may be generalised (Pandey & Pandey, 2021; Mohajan, 2020).

The target population for the study consisted of all tutors in the public colleges of education in Ghana. There are 46 public colleges of education in Ghana. The public colleges of education are made up of five zones. These are the Central/Western Zone (7 CoE), the Ashanti/Brong Ahafo Zone (13 CoE), the Volta Zone (7 CoE), the Eastern/Greater Accra Zone (9 CoE), and the Northern Zone (10 CoE). The study's accessible population consisted of tutors from eighteen (18) CoE. Ten to twenty (10-20) per cent of the population, according to Levy and Lemeshow (2013) can be chosen to represent the population. For this study, tutors were selected since they were the main subject to determine the ethical leadership of principals, tutor job satisfaction, and commitment. At the time of this study, there were one thousand nine hundred and ninety-five (1,995) tutors in Ghana across the 46 CoE (GTEC, CETAG, 2022). Table 1 displays the distribution of the CoE by zone.

Table 1: Distribution of Colleges of Education by Zone

Zone	Number of Colleges of Education
Central/Western Zone	7
Ashanti/Brong Ahafo Zone	13
Volta Zone	7
Eastern/Greater Accra Zone	9
Northern Zone	10
Total	46

Source: GTEC, CETAG, 2022.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedures

The section of the population that is investigated to draw broad generalisations about the target population is known as a study sample (Creswell, 2014). Kothari (2004) also emphasised that the sample for a study is derived from the population. In research, sampling aims to choose a portion of the population that is representative of the entire population (Martínez-Mesa, González-Chica, Duquia, Bonamigo & Bastos, 2016). According to Igwenagu (2016) and Delice (2010), the following steps should be followed for good sampling; a description of the study population, a list of the population members, the kind of sampling, calculating the sample size, choosing the sample, and testing the sample's ability to represent the population.

The following steps describe the part of the study's multistage sampling procedure which divides large population clusters into smaller clusters over time (Taherdoost, 2016).

Step 1

First, this study considers five zones to construct clusters, and each zone has more than six CoE; as a result, the unequal distribution of zones was taken into account when deciding how many CoE to choose from each zone. The stratified proportionate technique was used to select the number of CoE from each of the five zones. Stratified proportionate sampling is a sampling method in which the investigator divides a finite population into sub-populations and then uses random sampling techniques to sample each sub-population ((Wu & Thompson, 2020; Tillé, 2020). It is a probability sampling method in which different strata in a population are identified and in which the number of elements drawn from each stratum is proportionate to the relative number of elements in each stratum (Turner, 2003). In the Central/Western zone, for instance, the researcher used the proportional method to determine the number of CoE needed. The proportion was computed by dividing the total number of CoE in the Central/Western zone (7) by the total number of CoE in the population (46) multiplied by the sample (18). This yielded a value of 3. Consequently, three CoE from the Central/Western zone were chosen. Following the recording of the sample that emerged, the remaining samples for each of the five zones were calculated and recorded, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Sample Distribution by Colleges of Education

Zones	Number of Colleges	Sample of Colleges
Central/Western Zone	7	3
Ashanti/Brong Ahafo Zone	13	5
Volta	7	3
Eastern/ Gt. Accra Zone	9	3
Northern Zone	10	4
Total	46	18

Source: Field Data, 2022

Step 2

Following the stratified proportional technique's identification of the CoE required in each of the five zones, the CoE were chosen using simple random sampling. Simple random sampling was chosen because it guarantees that every member of the population has an equal probability of being chosen to participate in the sample and that all decisions are made independently (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena & Nigam, 2013). The lottery technique was used in simple random sampling to select the CoE from each of the five zones. For example, in the Northern zone, the names of all the CoE were coded on pieces of paper. The coded pieces of paper for each CoE were folded and placed in a bowl. The researcher shook the bowl and picked the folded paper one after the other until the number of CoE needed in the Northern zone was arrived at. This was done for the rest of the remaining zones.

Step 3

The sample was chosen from a population of CoE tutors in Ghana. The population size is an important factor in sample size (Delice, 2010; Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2006; Cohen et al., 2000). Cochran (1977) and Krejcie & Morgan (1970) prepared tables that present the sample size in line with a certain degree of reliability and population size was considered. Based on these tables, many researchers for example, (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006; Ross, 2004) indicate that if parametric tests are to be employed 30-500 subjects would be the necessary sample size. The sample size calculated using scientific methods (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) was therefore considered in this study. In line with this, a sample of 319 from a population of 1,995 was chosen. Again, it is suggested by some studies that 10 to 20% of a population can be used to be a representation of the population (Cresswell, 2014; Amedahe, 2002). Hence, three hundred and nineteen (319) CoE tutors were selected as the sample size.

The proportional technique was used to select the respondents (tutors), based on the sample (i.e., 319). The researcher needed to make sure that the college tutors were fairly represented; therefore, the study employed the stratified proportionate sampling approach. It was essential to apply the stratified proportionate sample technique to guarantee a representation of the different gender categories. For instance, in Offinso CoE, proportionate sampling was used to establish the necessary number of respondents. For Offinso CoE tutors, the proportion was calculated as follows: the total number of Offinso CoE tutors (46) divided by the total CoE tutors in the population (805) multiplied by the sample (319), giving a value of 18. As a result, a selection of 18 tutors from 805 CoE tutors gave (Offinso, CoE) a sample of 14 male and 4 female tutors respectively. For that of St.

Theresa's CoE, the total number of tutors (37) divided by the total CoE tutors in the population (805) multiplied by the sample (319), giving a value of 15, with 9 males and 6 females (See Table 3). Following the recording of the samples that emerged, the remaining samples for the selected colleges were calculated and recorded as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Distribution of Samples of College of Education Tutors

Colleges of Education CoE	Population			Sample		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
<i>Central/Western zone</i>						
Enchi CoE	35	03	38	14	01	15
Foso CoE	24	12	36	10	05	15
OLA CoE	28	22	50	11	09	20
<i>Ashanti, B/A zone</i>						
Agona SDA CoE	36	06	42	14	02	16
Atebubu CoE	31	03	34	12	01	13
Mamtech CoE	30	11	41	12	04	16
Offinso CoE	35	11	46	14	04	18
St. Monicas CoE	26	14	40	10	06	16
<i>Volta zone</i>						
Akatsi CoE	40	08	48	16	03	19
St. Francis CoE	33	12	45	13	05	18
St. Therasas CoE	23	14	37	09	06	15
<i>Eastern Greater Accra</i>						
Kibi CoE	30	13	43	12	05	17

Mt. Mary CoE	37	16	53	15	06	21
SDA CoE	41	22	63	16	09	25
<i>Northern zone</i>						
Bagabaga CoE	53	08	61	21	03	24
NJA CoE	38	06	44	15	02	17
St. John Bosco	47	08	55	19	03	22
St. Vincent	24	05	29	10	02	12
Total	611	194	805	243	76	319

Source: Field Data, 2022

Step 4

After the stratified proportionate sampling procedure had been used to identify the total number of tutors to be selected from each of the CoE, the simple random sampling procedure was used to select tutors for the study.

3.4.1 Case selection/Justification for the study in Colleges of Education

In 2018, Ghanaian colleges of education transitioned from a three-year Diploma in Basic Education to a four-year Bachelor of Education degree course (Mpuangnan, 2020). Appointments of principals before the transition were made by the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE). Later, after the CoE attained tertiary status principalship and appointment changed where prospective principals were expected to hold higher qualification preferably doctorate degree. So, out of sheer interest and passion chose CoE as a case for the study. Again, literature search indicates that principals today lack ethical leadership behaviours that are critical for success (Stronge & Xu, 2021; Kaplan & Owings, 2017), therefore, a need to investigate this assertion for Ghana's CoE.

Previous studies on ethical leadership, job satisfaction and commitment were primarily conducted outside of Ghana (Damini, 2017), Arar et al. (2016) and Karakose (2007). These organisational behaviour constructs have not been explored in Ghana's CoE. As a result, the quest for research in the area.

3.5 Instrument for Data Collection

Questionnaires were used as the primary data-gathering instruments in this study. When questionnaires are used, the researcher has only a small amount of control over the data collected from respondents (Sarantakos, 1997).

3.5.1 Ethical Leadership Scale

The study adopted and made use of Yilmaz's (2006) Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS). The original scale that was adopted for the study had 44 items with four sub-scales namely communicative ethics which had 15 items, followed by climatic ethics with 12 items, ethics in decision making with 9 items, then behavioural ethics with 8 items. The original 44-item scale was summarized into a 43-item scale. Under behavioural ethics, items on the original scale that wanted to find out “behaves honestly” on the original scale were ignored because the item is almost the same as “is honest” which is captured already. The instrument was measured on a four-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Strongly Agree). The reliability analysis conducted for the ELS test produced communicative ethics sub-scale Cronbach's alpha value of .97. Climate ethics scored 95, decision-making ethics scored 94, and behavioural ethics scored 90, respectively (Yilmaz, 2006). This suggests that there is adequate internal consistency as far as the instrument is concerned. Karaköse (2007) used the ELS by Yilmaz (2006) on High School Teachers' Perceptions Regarding Principals' ethical leadership in Turkey. The overall alpha was found to be .93. According

to Karakose (2008), questionnaires were considered to be quite credible if Cronbach's alpha fell between a low of 0.80 and a high of 1.00.

3.5.2 Job Satisfaction Scale

To assess job Satisfaction, Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) was used. It is a popular measure of job satisfaction (Ibrahim, Zirwatul, Ohtsuka, Dagang & Bakar, 2014; Astrauskaite, Vaitkevicius & Perminas, 2011; Giri & Kumar, 2010; Liu, Borg & Spector, 2004). Each item has four questions and a Likert scale with a four-point ranging from 1 to 4, i.e., (1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Strongly Agree). The Cronbach alpha coefficient for each dimension of the JSS scale ranged from 0.75 to 0.91 (Spector, 1985). To determine how well the JSS dimensions matched the data, a confirmatory factor analysis CFA with a maximum likelihood technique was carried out. The chi-square (χ^2), comparative fit index CFI, goodness of fit index, and RMSEA were used to evaluate the fit of the model. The dependability estimate for the items on the entire scale was 0.87 overall. Measures are deemed credible when their Cronbach alpha is greater than 0.60 (Nunnally, 1994). Once more, the Guttman Split-half Coefficient indicated that Good Split-Half dependability was 0.876 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

3.5.3 Organisational Commitment Scale

The organisational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) was used to evaluate tutors' commitment to the college. On a four-point Likert scale, the eighteen (18) items are rated from strongly disagree (SD = 1) to strongly agree (SA = 4). For scores obtained using the affective scale, Meyer and Allen (1997) reported median reliability coefficients of .85; for scores obtained using the continuance scale, .79; and for scores obtained using the normative scale, .73. Abdullah (2011) established the reliability of the

questionnaire in Pakistan, with Cronbach's alpha coefficient values of .67, .53, and .67 for the three scales; affective, continuance, and normative. These values were relatively low but were in the acceptable range. Karim and Noor (2006) established its reliability in Malaysia with reliability for all the commitment scales above .50.

3.6 Pre-Testing

Pre-testing was done using one hundred tutors from Tamale, Komenda and Wesley CoE, which were not included in the data collection for the main colleges. These colleges of education share several characteristics with other colleges (e.g., leadership approaches, teaching conditions, etc). Because the instruments have been adapted, it was necessary to pre-test.

3.7 Validation of the Instrument

The validation was carried out utilising Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with a covariance-based Structural Equation Model (SEM) (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). This type of SEM is extremely effective when it comes to CFA. The current data confirm the theoretically predetermined factor structure in the CFA. In other words, the CFA helps determine which factors will be loaded on an observable variable. As a result, the previously discovered Ethical Leadership Scale, Job Satisfaction Scale and Organisational Commitment Scale were validated using CFA through the use of Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software utilising 1000 bootstrap samples to re-confirm the acquired data.

To assess convergent and divergent validity, factor analysis was performed. Low factor loadings (less than 30) were removed before the final data collection (Pallant, 2010). Using an Average Variance Extraction (AVE) of .50 or above, convergent validity was also

assessed (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion, which specifies that the square roots of AVEs should be greater than the correlation between dimensions, was used to test discriminant validity.

In addition to Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion, the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio was used to determine discriminant validity, which requires that the correlation ratios of the dimensions should be less than 0.90 (Hensler et al., 2015).

3.7.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Ethical Leadership Scale

The validity of the Ethical Leadership scale is presented in this section. Figure 2 summarizes the CFA's specifics.

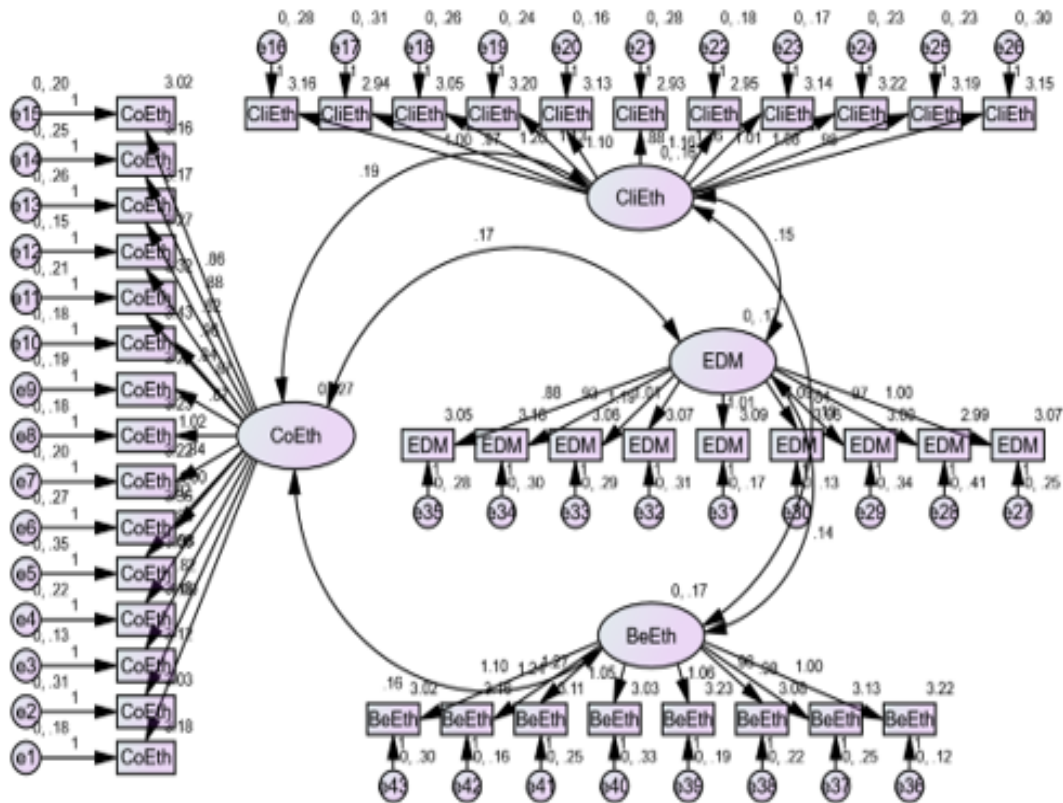


Figure 2- Ethical Leadership Scale

The CFA in Figure 2 shows the item or factor loadings and discriminant validity. The ethical leadership scale shown in Figure 2 comprised 43 items and was divided into four subscales: communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics. Communicative ethics (CoEth) had 15-items, followed by climatic ethics (CliEth) with 11-items, ethics in decision making (EDM) 9-items, and then behavioural ethics (BeEth) with 8-items (*see* Figure 2). The details of the items are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Item loadings, AVE, and Composite Reliability (EL)

Dimensions	Items	Loadings	AVE	CR	Alpha	Omega
Communicative Ethics	EL-15	.771	.33	.96	.93	.94
	EL-14	.602				
	EL-13	.815				
	EL-12	.694				
	EL-11	.581				
	EL-10	.705				
	EL-9	.692				
	EL-8	.775				
	EL-7	.716				
	EL-6	.722				
	EL-5	.689				
	EL-4	.785				
	EL-3	.634				

	EL-2	.673				
	EL-1	.705				

Climatic Ethics	EL-16	.603	.27	.91	.89	.89
	EL-17	.572				
	EL-18	.680				
	EL-19	.679				
	EL-20	.733				
	EL-21	.552				
	EL-22	.738				
	EL-23	.771				
	EL-24	.641				
	EL-25	.664				
	EL-26	.581				

Ethics Decision-Making	EL-35	.636	.32	.85	.82	.85
	EL-34	.535				
	EL-33	.512				
	EL-32	.778				
	EL-31	.714				
	EL-30	.604				
	EL-29	.674				
	EL-28	.579				
	EL-27	.570				

Behavioural Ethics	EL-43	.756	.63	.88	.87	.87
	EL-42	.621				
	EL-41	.643				
	EL-40	.705				
	EL-39	.599				
	EL-38	.718				
	EL-37	.786				
	EL-36	.635				

In Table 4, all the items had factor loadings above .30, hence they were the items used. These items were maintained because their factor loadings were above the acceptable loading of .30 (Pallant, 2010). All of the AVEs for the various dimensions in Table 4 were less than .50, except behavioural ethics which had AVE above .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This indicates that the dimensions are not convergent valid. Although the dimensions lack convergent validity, the Composite Reliability (CR), Cronbach Alpha, and Omega Reliability were all above .50, indicating that the dimensions are more reliable, as determined by Roland and Idsoe (2001).

Table 5: Discriminant Validity (EL)

Variable	CoEth	CliEth	EMD	BeEth
Communicative Ethics	(.57)*			
Climatic Ethics	.89	(.52)*		
Ethics in Decision-Making	.80	.89	(.57)*	

Behavioural Ethics	.77	.83	.82	(.79)*
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*Values in parenthesis are square roots of AVEs

As shown in Table 5, the correlations between the respective dimensions were greater than the square root of the AVEs of the relevant dimensions. In addition, to determine discriminant validity, the HTMT correlation ratio was again, examined, which necessitates that the correlation ratios of the dimensions be less than 0.90 (Hensler et al., 2015). As a result, the intercorrelation value (.89, .89, and .82) of the sub-scale of the ethical leadership scale was lower than the value of .90. This condition explains why there is no concern with multicollinearity between or among the constructs. As a result, all of the ethical leadership scales observed variables were classified into their respective dimensions. Hence, it was determined that discriminant validity has been established. For the final data collection, 43 items were chosen. The factor loadings of each item are shown in Figure 2 together with the hypothesised model for ethical Leadership.

3.7.2 Model Fit Indices for the Measurement Model (EL)

The model fit indices were assessed to see if the hypothesised model fit the data gathered. The model (with the 43-items) was also determined using NFI, TLI, and CFI among other methods. The following thresholds or cut-off points were adopted to estimate the model fit indices: Chi-square ($p > 0.05$; Hair, et al, 2006), CMIN/DF (2 or 3; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006), CFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), NFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), IFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), TLI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), and RMSEA (Schreiber et al., 2006) (See Table 6). Table 6 displays the model fit indices.

Table 6: Goodness of Fit Indices of Ethical Leadership Scale

Fit Indices	Estimates	Recommended Threshold
Chi-square (χ^2)	1353.399, $p < 0.000$	$> .05$
CMIN/DF	1.585	≤ 2 or 3
Comparative Fit Index	.801	$\geq .90$
Normed Fit Index	.603	$\geq .90$
Incremental Fit Index	.805	$\geq .90$
Tucker-Lewis Index	.789	$\geq .90$
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.077	$\leq .08$

NOTE: Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

The chi-square (χ^2) in Table 6 indicated that there is no difference between the expected and actual data. Only the CMIN/DF and RMSEA fit indicators with a value of 1.585 and .077 respectively demonstrated a satisfactory fit that Schreiber et al's (2006) criteria provided. Even though the CMIN/DF and RMSEA fit indicators showed a good fit, they did not meet the criteria set by the chosen researchers. The data did not fit the hypothesised model in virtually all of the model fit indicators for the 43-items model. This could be due to model misspecification and lack of discriminant validity (Achaempong, Amoah & Britwum, 2021; Kline, 2013). It is concluded that future researchers who want to replicate or re-examine the ethical leadership scale should re-validate the scale in their local settings

due to cultural differences and expectations (Britwum, Adjei, Amoah, Djan, Acheampong, Aidoo & Sefah, 2022).

Leading SEM researchers were polled by Coovert and Craiger (2000) to learn their opinions on the significance of 12 of the most popular indexes. The root-mean-square approximation error was discovered (RMSEA; Steiger, 2000). The comparative fit index (CFI; Bollen, 1989) was seen as being the most important. To evaluate the equality of the variance-covariance matrices, RMSEA and CFI, together with other crucial indices, such as the normed fit index (NFI, also known as delta; Bentler & Bonett, 1980) and the non-normed fit index (NNFI, also known as rho; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), are used. According to Browne and Cudeck (1993), RMSEA values up to .08 are considered to be respectable approximation errors, while values of .05 or less indicate a close fit.

3.7.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Job Satisfaction Scale

The validity of the Job Satisfaction scale is presented below. Figure 3 shows the CFA.

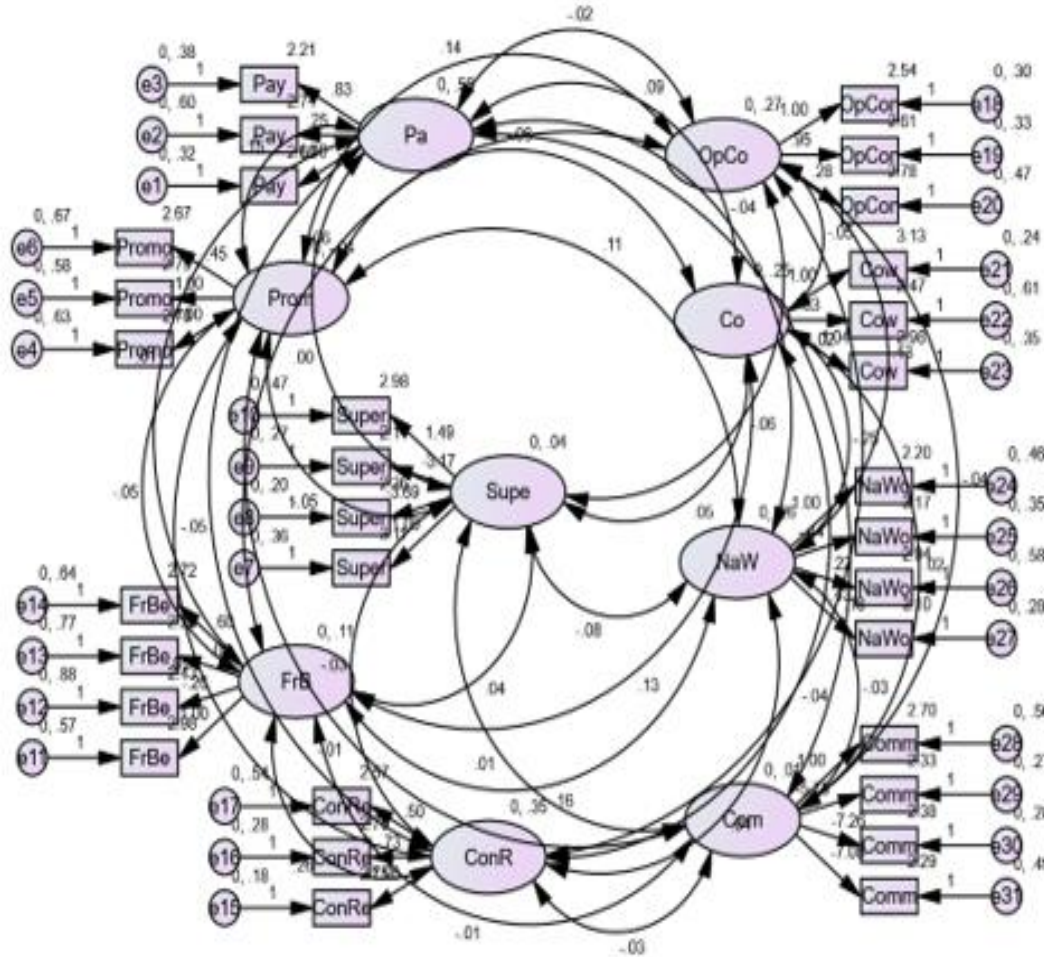


Figure 3: Job Satisfaction Scale

The CFA in Figure 3 shows the factor loadings and discriminant validity. From Figure 3 job satisfaction scale had 31 items made up of nine sub-dimensions namely pay (3-items), promotion (3-items), supervision (4 items), fringe benefits (4-items), contingent rewards (3-items), operating conditions (3-items), coworkers (3-items), nature of work (4-items), and communication (4-items). The details of the items are shown below.

Table 7: Item loadings, AVE, and Composite Reliability

Dimensions	Items	Loadings	AVE	CR	Alpha	Omega
Pay	JS-1	.560	.08	.57	.58	.65
	JB-2	.345				
	JB-3	.519				
Promotion	JB-4	.343	.23	.55	.58	.59
	JB-5	.629				
	JB-6	.411				
Supervision	JB-7	.584	.46	.67	.62	.67
	JB-8	.657				
	JB-9	.669				
	JB-10	.403				
Fringe benefits	JB-11	.394	.27	.59	.62	.65
	JB-12	.545				
	JB-13	.560				
	JB-14	.567				
Contingent rewards	JB-15	.198*	.22	.51	.63	.66
	JB-16	.362				
	JB-17	.599				
	JB-18	.596				
Operating conditions	JB-19	.557	.20	.50	.55	.58
	JB-20	.541				

	JB-21	.372				
Coworkers	JB-22	.592	.36	.63	.56	.57
	JB-23	.642				
	JB-24	.566				
Nature of work	JB-25	.526	.29	.52	.53	.55
	JB-26	.377				
	JB-27	.459				
	JB-28	.484				
Communication	JB-29	.550	.39	.72	.58	.60
	JB-30	.648				
	JB-31	.682				
	JB-32	.612				

As indicated in Table 7, item JS-15 had a factor loading of less than .30; hence, it was deleted because the loading was less than the acceptable loading of .30 (Pallant, 2010). All of the AVEs for the various dimensions in Table 7 were less than .50. This indicates that the dimensions are not convergent valid. Although the dimensions lack convergent validity, the Composite Reliability (CR), Cronbach Alpha and Omega Reliability were all above .50, showing that the dimensions are more reliable, as determined by Roland and Idsoe (2001).

Table 8: Discriminant Validity (JB)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pay	(.30)								
Promotion	.22	(.48)							
Supervision	.23	.40	(.68)						
Fringe	.26	.06	.23	(.52)					
Contingent	.05	.22	.32	.38	(.47)				
Operating	.02	.26	.34	.09	.22	(.43)			
Coworkers	.26	.21	.30	.13	.03	.15	(.60)		
Nature	.15	.19	.26	.26	.17	.13	.32	(.54)	
Communication	.32	.11	.32	.29	.29	.37	.13	.23	(.62)

*Values in parenthesis are square roots of AVEs

As shown in Table 8, all the square roots of AVEs were bigger than the correlation between the respective dimensions. In addition, to determine discriminant validity, the HTMT correlation ratio was again examined, which requires that the correlation ratios of the dimensions should be less than 0.90 (Hensler et al., 2015). As a result, the intercorrelation value of the sub-scale of the Job Satisfaction scale was lower than the value of .90 (see Table 8). This condition explains why there is no concern with multicollinearity between or among the constructs. As a result, all of the Job Satisfaction scale observed variables were classified into their respective dimensions. It was, therefore, determined that discriminant validity has been established. For the final data collection, 31 items were chosen. The factor loadings of each item are shown in Figure 3 together with the hypothesised model for Job Satisfaction.

3.7.4 Model Fit Indices for the Measurement Model (JS)

The model fit indices were evaluated to see if the hypothesised model fit the data gathered. The model (with 32-items) was also estimated using NFI, TLI, and CFI among other methods. The following thresholds or cut-off points were employed to estimate the model fit indices: Chi-square ($p > 0.05$; Hair et al, 2006), CMIN/DF (2 or 3; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006), CFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), NFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), IFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), TLI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), and RMSEA (≤ 0.08 ; Schreiber et al., 2006) (See Table 9). Table 9 shows the model fit indices.

Table 9: Goodness of Fit Indices of Job Satisfaction Scale

Fit Indices	Estimates	Recommended Threshold
Chi-square (χ^2)	326.135, $p < 0.000$	$> .05$
CMIN/DF	2.886	≤ 2 or 3
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.787	$\geq .90$
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	.712	$\geq .90$
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	.792	$\geq .90$
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	.744	$\geq .90$
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	.113	$\leq .08$

NOTE: Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Almost the entire model fit indicators for the 32-items model showed that the data did not fit the hypothesised model as shown in Table 9. This may be due to model misspecification

(Kline, 2011). Only the CMIN/DF fit indicator with a very close value of 2.886 demonstrated a satisfactory fit that Schreiber et al's (2006) criteria provided. Even though the CMIN/DF fit indicator showed a good fit, it did not meet the criteria set by the chosen researchers. The data did not fit the hypothesised model in virtually all of the model fit indicators for the 32-item model. This could be due to model misspecification (Kline, 2011). It is decided that future researchers who want to replicate or re-examine the job satisfaction scale should re-validate the scale in their local settings due to cultural differences and expectations.

3.7.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Organisational Commitment Scale

The validity of the Organisational Commitment scale is presented in Figure 4.

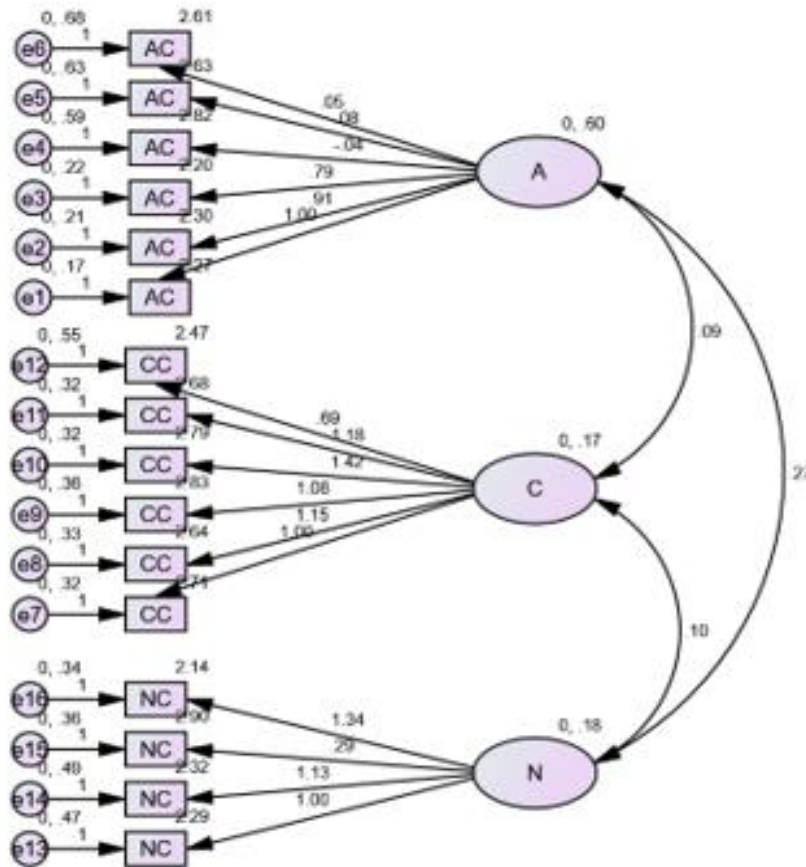


Figure 4: Organisational Commitment Scale

The CFA in Figure 4 shows the factor loadings and discriminant validity. Figure 4, the organisational commitment scale had 24 items made up of three sub-scales namely affective commitment (8 items), continuance commitment (8 items), and normative commitment (8 items), The details of the items are shown below.

Table 10: Item loadings, AVE, and Composite Reliability

Dimensions	Items	Loadings	AVE	CR	Alpha	Omega
Affective Commitment	OC1	.502	.58	.74	.66	.61
	OC2	.343				
	OC3	.587				
	OC4	.264*				
	OC5	.635				
	OC6	.711				
	OC7	.156*				
	OC8	.778				
Continuance Commitment	OC9	.389	.15	.56	.73	.74
	OC10	.398				
	OC11	.422				
	OC12	.132*				
	OC13	.362				
	OC14	.472				
	OC15	.267*				
	OC16	.514				

Normative Commitment	OC17	.029*	.07	.52	.62	.65
	OC18	.400				
	OC19	.115*				
	OC20	.314				
	OC21	.342				
	OC22	.217*				
	OC23	.239*				
	OC24	.301				

In Table 10, items OC4, OC7, OC12, OC15, OC17, OC19, OC22 and OC23 had factor loadings below .30, hence they were deleted. These items were deleted because their factor loadings were less than the acceptable loading of .30 (Pallant, 2010). All of the AVEs for the various dimensions in Table 10 were less than .50, except affective commitment which had AVE above .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This indicates that the dimensions are not convergent valid. Although the dimensions lack convergent validity, the Composite Reliability (CR), Cronbach Alpha, and Omega Reliability were all above .50, indicating that the dimensions are more reliable, as determined by Roland and Idsoe (2001).

Table 11: Discriminant Validity (OC)

Variable	AC	CC	NC
Affective Commitment	(.76)*		
Continuance Commitment	.44	(.39)*	
Normative Commitment	.65	.56	(.27)*

*Values in parenthesis are square roots of AVEs

As shown in Table 11, the square root of AVE of Affective Commitment (.76) was greater than the Continuance Commitment while the correlations between Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment (.56) were greater than the square root of the AVEs. In addition, to determine discriminant validity, the HTMT correlation ratio was again, examined, which requires that the correlation ratios of the dimensions should be less than 0.90 (Hensler et al., 2015). As a result, the intercorrelation value (.44, and .56) of the sub-scale Organisational Commitment scale was lower than the value of .90. This condition explains why there is no concern with multicollinearity between or among the constructs. Hence, all of the Organisational Commitment scales observed variables were classified into their respective dimensions. It was determined that discriminant validity had been established. For the final data collection, 16 items were chosen. The factor loadings of each item are shown in figure 4 together with the hypothesised model of Organisational Commitment.

3.7.5 Model Fit Indices for the Measurement Model (OC)

The model fit indices were evaluated to see if the hypothesised model fit the data gathered. The model (with the 24-items) was also estimated using NFI, TLI, and CFI among other methods. The following thresholds or cut-off points were adopted to estimate the model fit indices: Chi-square ($p > 0.05$; Hair, et al, 2006), CMIN/DF (2 or 3; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006), CFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), NFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), IFI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), TLI (>0.90 ; Kline, 2013), and RMSEA (Schreiber et al., 2006) (See Table 12). Table 12 displays the model fit indices.

Table 12: Goodness of Fit Indices of Organisational Commitment Scale

Fit Indices	Estimates	Recommended Threshold
Chi-square (χ^2)	235.187, $p < 0.000$	$> .05$
CMIN/DF	2.329	≤ 2 or 3
Comparative Fit Index	.732	$\geq .90$
Normed Fit Index	.621	$\geq .90$
Incremental Fit Index	.742	$\geq .90$
Tucker-Lewis Index	.682	$\geq .90$
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.116	$\leq .08$

NOTE: Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Almost the entire model fit indicators for the 24-items model showed that the data did not fit the hypothesised model as shown in Table 12. This may be due to model misspecification (Kline, 2011). Only the CMIN/DF fit indicator with a value of (2.329) demonstrated an excellent fit as Schreiber et al. (2006) criterion indicated. Although the CMIN/DF fit indicator showed a good fit, they did not meet the criteria set by the chosen scholars. The researcher concluded that future researchers who intend to reproduce or re-examine the Organisational Commitment scale in the Ghanaian settings should use the new model (OC-16 items) instead of the original model (OC-24 items) and re-validate the new model (OC-16 items) to yield a higher result.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

For ethical reasons, permission was sought from the institution (AAMUSTED) (Department of Educational Leadership) for the collection of data. Again, permission was sought from CoE authorities to conduct the research. A list of volunteers (tutors) was compiled from each of the colleges involved in the study. The researcher personally distributed the questionnaires. The researcher was able to develop rapport with the respondents. The tutors were assured that their responses would be kept completely confidential and anonymous. Each college's tutor list was inspected to ensure that each respondent received the questionnaire. This facilitated the distribution and collection of the questionnaire. Out of the 319 questionnaires that were distributed 250 was the accurate response rate that was gathered from the respondents (representing 78 percent). Hence, 250 responses were used in the analysis.

3.9 Ethical Consideration

While collecting data for a study, ethical considerations are critical. The researcher was aware of and adhered to the study's ethical standards. In light of this, the first page of the questionnaire was an introductory note pleading with respondents to assist in the study by providing necessary information. They were informed that the information they provided would be secure and that the data collected from study participants would be used exclusively for academic purposes. All potential study participants were educated about the study's procedure; the researcher also informed respondents about the study's objectives and significance. To accomplish this, the researcher deleted all information from the responses that could be used to identify respondents by name or other identifiers. The

researcher made every effort to interact with respondents throughout the data collection process.

3.10 Data Processing and Analysis

The data from the study were examined for completeness, accuracy, consistency, double responses, and non-responses. This data-cleaning process was done using frequency and tabulation. The double responses and uncompleted questionnaires were taken out of the data collected and only a single response to items and a completed questionnaire were used for the analysis. To make it easier to identify the questionnaire, it was serially numbered. This precaution was important to ensure prompt discovery of any cause of errors when they occurred during data tabulation. Following data verification, corrections were made.

To minimise biases such as sampling bias, a simple random sample procedure was utilised to ensure that each individual in the population had an equal chance of being chosen for the research. Again, the sample size was sufficient to provide a more extensive and diversified representation. To assure representation from diverse colleges in the zones, the researcher utilised stratified sampling. Furthermore, to minimise non-response, individuals were invited to participate by providing confidentiality, anonymity, and emphasising the relevance of the study.

The researcher again, used reliable and validated measurement instruments to assess variables such as ethical leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The items were pre-tested to ensure clarity and understanding among participants. To avoid researcher bias the objectives of the study were clearly defined, hypotheses and procedures were made clear before data collection.

Finally, to avoid ethical bias, the researcher follows guidelines for ethics and obtains full consent from participants to ensure that participants completely understand the objective of the study as well as the potential risks and benefits. The researcher strengthened the reliability and validity of the data acquired by adopting these methods, resulting in more accurate and relevant findings.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was utilised to validate the items on the device with the aid of the AMOS software. SEM is a multivariate approach that can be used to evaluate various hypotheses or proposed correlations between variables. SEM enables the generation of unbiased estimates of variable relationships through explicit measurement error modelling. This enables researchers to correct estimates of correlation and regression for measurement mistakes (Kline, 2013).

The demographic factors of the respondents, including gender, were analyzed using descriptive statistics, simple frequency, and percentages. The study variables were examined using means and standard deviations which include ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.

Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 were tested using Multivariate Multiple Regression and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Since both the independent and dependent variables have sub-dimensions, multivariate multiple regression was applied. As a result, the dependent variable's sub-dimensions were predicted using the independent variable's sub-dimensions. The whole construct of the independent variable and the dependent variable was put to the test using the SEM analysis.

Hypothesis 4, 5 and 6 were tested using moderation analysis of PROCESS by Hayes (2018) using 5000 bootstrap samples with 95% bootstrap confidence intervals. PROCESS is a regression-based model that is used to estimate model parameters using an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. A significant number of potential pairs are produced by the multiple regression model with the OLS criterion. The residual sum of squares is minimised by the combination of values for the regression constant and the coefficient produced by an OLS regression. According to Hayes (2018), moderation analysis allows you to test the impact of a variable, Z, on the link between variables X and Y. Rather than attempting to establish a causal relationship between these other variables, moderation examines when and under what conditions an effect occurs. Moderators can strengthen, weaken, or reverse the nature of the link. For example, organisational commitment moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Thus, organisational commitment was considered a moderator in this case because it interacts with ethical leadership, resulting in a different effect on job satisfaction. Given this, the decision to employ the statistical tool was made.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Overview

This chapter comprises the presentation and interpretation of the outcomes of this study. The interpretation of the data was carried out based on the findings of the respondents' background and research hypotheses.

4.1 Demographic/Background Characteristics of the Respondents

Each respondent was asked to provide information about their background features, as these qualities and attributes could inspire their responses. Table 13 shows the findings of the gender analysis of the respondents.

Table 13: Gender of Tutors

Subscale	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	188	75.2
Female	62	24.8
Total	250	100.0

Source: Fieldwork (2022)

According to Table 13, out of the 250 participants who took part in the study, 188 were males, representing 75.2%, and 62 were females, representing 24.8%. As a result, males made up the majority of the respondents. This, therefore, strengthens the urgent appeal for the CoE to increase the proportion of female tutors to male tutors.

4.2 Study Variables

This part presents descriptive information about the study variables. Information on ethical leadership is presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Ethical Leadership

Scale/sub-scales	N	Mean	SD
Communicative Ethics	250	3.18	.459
Climate Ethics	250	3.15	.428
Ethics in Decision-Making	250	3.06	.418
Behavioural Ethics	250	3.21	.439

Source: **Field survey (2022)**

The mean scores of ethical leadership range from 1.0 to 4.0, where higher scores depict high practice skills, whereas, lower scores depict low practice of ethical leadership skills. Relatively, among the dimensions of ethical leadership, behavioural ethics was the highest (M = 3.21, SD = .439), while ethics in decision-making was the lowest (M = 3.06, SD = .418) in terms of practice (Table 14). Generally, all four dimensions of ethical leadership were practised virtually at par.

Table 15: Job Satisfaction

Scale/sub-scales	N	Mean	SD
Pay	250	2.53	.562
Promotion	250	2.67	.468
Supervision	250	2.61	.415
Fringe benefits	250	2.56	.453
Contingent rewards	250	2.65	.505
Operating conditions	250	2.63	.515
Coworkers	250	2.83	.399
Nature of work	250	2.44	.549

Communication	250	2.53	.562
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Source: **Field survey (2022)**

Table 15 presents information on job satisfaction. The mean scores of job satisfaction range from 1.0 to 4.0, where higher scores depict higher job satisfaction. Among the nine dimensions of job satisfaction, coworkers (M = 2.83, SD = .399) was the most adopted, followed by promotion (M = 2.67, SD = .468), then contingent rewards (M = 2.65, SD = .505). The lowest one was nature of work (M = 2.44, SD = .549).

Generally, all nine dimensions of job satisfaction were practised virtually at par.

Table 16: Organisational Commitment

Scale/sub-scales	N	Mean	SD
Affective Commitment	250	2.45	.418
Continuance Commitment	250	2.64	.489
Normative Commitment	250	2.46	.486

Source: **Field survey (2022)**

The descriptive information on organisational commitment is presented in Table 16. The mean scores of organisational commitment range from 1.0 to 4.0, with higher scores indicating a higher level of commitment, whereas lower scores depict a lower level of commitment. From Table 16, predominant among the organisational commitment dimensions is continuance commitment (M = 2.64, SD = .489), this was followed by normative commitment (M = 2.46, SD = .486), then affective commitment (M = 2.45, SD = .418). The outcomes support the notion that a high level of organisational commitment implies a strong commitment to the organisation's values and an employer's willingness to make efforts to retain the employee.

4.3 Hypotheses Development

The development of hypotheses in the study was necessary for these reasons:

First, it directed the research approach. The hypotheses assisted in defining the aim and scope of the investigation. It specified the research topic to examine, leading the whole research process from data collection to data analysis and interpretation. Secondly, the hypotheses allowed for testing of causal as well as moderation relationships in the present study. Researchers can construct their study to measure and analyse these correlations statistically by developing hypotheses that anticipate the influence of one variable on another. Again, the hypotheses provided a framework for data analysis. When researchers formulate hypotheses, they may determine the exact variables and measures required to test them. This helps in the selection of suitable data-gathering instruments, methodologies and statistical tests for data analysis, ensuring that relevant information is acquired and analysed. It also allowed for the development of theories; hypotheses can be derived from or added to current ideas. Researchers can test and expand ideas by developing hypotheses, which contributes to the advancement of knowledge in a certain discipline.

Last but not least, developing hypotheses in this study boosts the validity of the study's findings. Having hypotheses makes the research process more structured and methodical. This improves the study's findings', validity and reliability by ensuring that data is collected and analysed in a way that properly answers the research hypotheses.

In all six hypotheses were tested in the study.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

Common method bias and desirability bias were considered as part of the study. This has to do with relying on the use of questionnaires, which there is a risk that participants might respond in a way that aligns with social expectations or personal biases rather than their true experiences, potentially impacting their accuracy or reliability of the collected data. To avoid common method and desirability biases, before testing these research hypotheses, the normality assumption, which is the basis of all parametric assumptions, was tested. The mean, standard deviation, median, 5% trimmed mean, skewness, and the standard Q-Q plot were used to test this. Table 17 shows the outcomes in more detail.

Table 17: Test for Normality

Parameters	EL	JS	OC
Mean	135.65	80.68	40.39
Standard Deviation	16.81	7.77	5.62
5% Trimmed mean	136.12	81.22	40.16
Median	134.00	81.00	40.00
Skewness	-.533	1.09	.755
Std. Error	1.06	.491	.356
<i>Zskewness</i>	0.50	2.22	2.12

The distribution of scores for the aforementioned variables was normally distributed, as evidenced by Table 17's mean, median, and 5% trimmed mean values for Ethical Leadership (EL), Job Satisfaction (JB), and Organisational Commitment (OC). Further investigation of the Zskewness reveals that the coefficients of EL ($Z_{skew} = 0.50$), JS ($Z_{skew} = 2.22$), and OC ($Z_{skew} = 2.12$) were within the range of +3.29 and -3.29

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), indicating that they were normally distributed. In addition, the normal Q-Q plot for all variables in Appendix B revealed that the distribution of all scores was closer to a straight line (Pallant, 2016) (See Appendix B).

Table 18: Inter-Construct Correlation of Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3
1 Ethical Leadership	1		
2 Job Satisfaction	.179**	1	
3 Organisational Commitment	.108**	.451**	1

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

The Pearson’s correlation was first run to determine whether the self-reported ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment were related to each other. The result revealed that there is a positive relationship among ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (*see* Table 18).

4.5 Hypothesis One

H₁: Principals' ethical leadership will predict job satisfaction in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

This hypothesis aimed to test whether or not principals’ ethical leadership could predict tutors' job satisfaction. The results are in two folds. The first part looks at the sub-dimensions of ethical leadership as predictors of sub-dimensions of job satisfaction. The relationship between the overall constructs of ethical leadership and job satisfaction is examined in the second section. In multivariate multiple regression, job satisfaction as a criterion (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) and ethical leadership as a

predictor (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics) were both multidimensional. The criterion variable has numerous dimensions, therefore after meeting criteria like normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity, a strict alpha level was chosen to prevent type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis when in fact there are no significant results). To do this, the researcher applied the Bonferroni adjustment recommended by Tabachnik and Fidel (2011), in which the original alpha was divided by the number of dimensions in the criteria variable. This means that $0.05/9 = 0.005$ and that .005 was the new alpha level. Table 19 presents the results.

Table 19: Multivariate Multiple Regression of sub-dimensions of Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Criterion	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Squared	Eta
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Pay	Intercept	3.754	.845	4.440	.000	1.359	6.148	.074	
	ComEth	.010	.024	.433	.666	-.058	.079	.001	
	CliEth	-.022	.040	-.549	.584	-.136	.092	.001	
	EDM	.039	.043	.888	.376	-.084	.162	.003	
	BeEth	.119	.049	2.435	.016	-.019	.257	.024	
Promotion	Intercept	6.225	.718	8.667	.000	4.191	8.260	.235	
	ComEth	.036	.020	1.752	.081	-.022	.094	.012	
	CliEth	.043	.034	1.264	.207	-.053	.140	.006	
	EDM	.029	.037	.785	.433	-.076	.133	.003	
	BeEth	-.086	.041	-2.083	.038	-.204	.031	.017	
Supervision	Intercept	10.212	.854	11.963	.000	7.794	12.630	.369	
	ComEth	-.056	.024	-2.299	.022	-.125	.013	.021	

	CliEth	.009	.040	.218	.827	-.106	.124	.000
	EDM	.124	.044	2.822	.005	.000	.248	.031
	BeEth	-.032	.049	-.647	.518	-.171	.108	.002
Fringe benefits	Intercept	6.857	.917	7.474	.000	4.258	9.456	.186
	ComEth	-.011	.026	-.402	.688	-.084	.063	.001
	CliEth	.023	.044	.531	.596	-.100	.146	.001
	EDM	.135	.047	2.869	.004	.002	.269	.032
	BeEth	-.024	.053	-.461	.645	-.174	.126	.001
Contingent	Intercept	9.334	.785	11.893	.000	7.111	11.557	.366
Reward	ComEth	-.039	.022	-1.728	.085	-.102	.025	.012
	CliEth	.042	.037	1.123	.263	-.064	.147	.005
	EDM	.019	.040	.469	.640	-.095	.133	.001
	BeEth	-.059	.045	-1.310	.192	-.188	.069	.007
Operating Cond.	Intercept	10.257	.797	12.878	.000	8.001	12.514	.404
	ComEth	-.015	.023	-.660	.510	-.079	.049	.002

	CliEth	.020	.038	.530	.597	-.087	.127	.001
	EDM	-.059	.041	-1.437	.152	-.175	.057	.008
	BeEth	-.028	.046	-.606	.545	-.158	.102	.001
Coworkers	Intercept	7.295	.753	9.683	.000	5.161	9.429	.277
	ComEth	.019	.021	.879	.380	-.042	.080	.003
	CliEth	.001	.036	.018	.985	-.101	.102	.000
	EDM	.069	.039	1.784	.076	-.041	.179	.013
	BeEth	-.065	.043	-1.493	.137	-.188	.058	.009
Nature of Work	Intercept	7.334	.794	9.239	.000	5.085	9.583	.258
	ComEth	.020	.023	.873	.384	-.044	.084	.003
	CliEth	-.020	.038	-.544	.587	-.127	.086	.001
	EDM	.113	.041	2.771	.006	-.003	.228	.030
	BeEth	.025	.046	.539	.590	-.105	.154	.001
Communication	Intercept	8.119	1.142	7.111	.000	4.885	11.353	.171
	ComEth	-.045	.032	-1.387	.167	-.137	.047	.008

CliEth	.029	.054	.536	.593	-.124	.182	.001
EDM	.087	.059	1.484	.139	-.079	.253	.009
BeEth	.015	.066	.228	.819	-.172	.202	.000

NOTE: ^aR-squared = .090 (Adjusted R-squared = .075). ^bR-squared = .054 (Adjusted R-squared = .039). ^cR-squared = .044 (Adjusted R-squared = .029). ^dR-squared = .071 (Adjusted R-squared = .056). ^eR-squared = .029 (Adjusted R-squared = .013). ^fR-squared = .039 (Adjusted R-squared=.024). ^gR-squared=.027 (Adjusted R-squared=.011). R-squared=.106 (Adjusted R-squared=.091).R-squared=.022(AdjustedR-squared=.006).

Table 19 displays the findings of the multivariate multiple regression test, which included, communication ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making and behavioural ethics which were used as predictors of the criteria for pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworker, nature of work, and communication. $F(9, 237) = 38.789$, Wilk's lambda = .404, $p = .000$, indicating that Wilk's lambda test for the omnibus hypothesis that all beta values across the dependent variables equal to zero were statistically significant. With pay as the criterion for job satisfaction, and $R^2 = .090$, $p = .000$. This shows that .9% of the variance in job satisfaction that is Pay was explained by ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making and behavioural ethics. With job satisfaction that is Promotion as the criterion, $R^2 = .054$, $p = .000$. This shows that 5.4% of the variance in job satisfaction that is Promotion is explained by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making and behavioural ethics). With regards to job satisfaction supervision as the criterion, $R^2 = .044$, $p = .000$. This revealed that 4.4% of sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making and behavioural ethics) explained its variance.

With $R^2 = .071$, $p = .000$, revealed that 7.1% of the variance in job satisfaction that is fringe benefits is explained by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics), with job satisfaction that is fringe benefits as the outcome variable. Further, $R^2 = .029$, $p = .000$ revealed that 2.9% of the variance in job satisfaction contingent reward is clarified by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics. This is because contingent reward is a dimension of job satisfaction.

Again, with the operating condition as a dimension of job satisfaction as the outcome variable, $R^2 = .039$, $p = .000$, revealed that 3.9% of the variance in job satisfaction that is operating condition is explained by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics. Moreover, with regards to job satisfaction coworkers as the outcome variable, $R^2 = .027$, $p = .000$, showed that 2.7% of the variance in job satisfaction that is coworkers is explained by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics). Similarly, with regards to the nature of work as a dimension of job satisfaction as the criterion, $R^2 = .106$, $p = .000$, showed that 10.6% of the variance in job satisfaction that is nature of work is explained by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics. With regards to job satisfaction which is communication as the criterion, $R^2 = .022$, $p = .000$, revealed that 2.2% of sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics) explained its variance.

The study further revealed the individual dimensional predictors. Using Pay as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = .010$; $t = .433$; $p = .666$; *Boot95%CI* (-.058, .079)], climatic ethics [$b = -.022$; $t = -.549$; $p = .584$; *Boot95%CI* (-.136, .092)], ethics in decision making [$b = .039$; $t = .888$; $p = .376$, *Boot95%CI* (-.084, .162)], and behavioural ethics [$b = .119$; $t = 2.435$; $p = .016$, *Boot95%CI* (-.019, .257)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of Pay (Job Satisfaction). The results imply that tutors with ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics are not likely to be highly paid for their work.

Again, using promotion as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = .036$; $t = 1.752$; $p = .081$; *Boot95%CI* (-.022, .094)], climatic ethics [$b = .043$; $t = 1.264$; $p = .207$; *Boot95%CI* (-.053, .140)], ethics in decision making [$b = .029$; $t = .785$; $p = .433$, *Boot95%CI* (-.076, .133)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.086$; $t = -2.083$; $p = .038$, *Boot95%CI* (-.204, .031)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of promotion a dimension of Job Satisfaction. The findings suggest that tutors with communication ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics dimensions of ethical leadership are less likely to be promoted in their work. Further analysis, showed that supervision as an outcome variable, all the dimensions of ethical leadership, communicative ethics [$b = -.056$; $t = -2.299$; $p = .022$; *Boot95%CI* (-.125, .013)], climatic ethics [$b = .009$; $t = .218$; $p = .827$; *Boot95%CI* (-.106, .124)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.032$; $t = -.647$; $p = .518$; *Boot95%CI* (-.171, .108)], were not predictors of supervision a dimension of Job Satisfaction. However, ethics in decision making [$b = .124$; $t = 2.822$; $p = .005$, *Boot95%CI* (.000, .248)], was a significant predictor of supervision. The results imply that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, and behavioural ethics dimensions of ethical leadership are not likely to be supervised. However, tutors with ethics in decision-making are likely to be supervised in their work.

With regards to fringe benefits as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.011$; $t = -.402$; $p = .688$; *Boot95%CI* (-.084, .063)], climatic ethics [$b = .023$; $t = .531$; $p = .596$; *Boot95%CI* (-.100, .146)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.024$; $t = -.461$; $p = .645$, *Boot95%CI* (-.174, .126)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of fringe benefits a dimension of Job Satisfaction. However, ethics in decision-making [$b = .135$; $t = 2.869$; $p = .004$, *Boot95%CI* (.002, .269)] was found to be a predictor of fringe benefits. The result

implies that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have fringe benefits but tutors with ethics in decision-making have the tendency to get fringe benefits.

The study revealed that contingent rewards as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.039$; $t = -1.728$; $p = .085$; *Boot95%CI* (-.102, .025)], climatic ethics [$b = .042$; $t = 1.123$; $p = .263$; *Boot95%CI* (-.064, .147)], ethics in decision making [$b = .019$; $t = .469$; $p = .640$, *Boot95%CI* (-.095, .133)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.059$; $t = -1.310$; $p = .192$, *Boot95%CI* (-.188, .069)], were not predictors of contingent rewards (Job Satisfaction). The results imply that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have contingent rewards in their work. With regards to operating condition as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.015$; $t = -.660$; $p = .510$; *Boot95%CI* (-.079, .049)], climatic ethics [$b = .020$; $t = .530$; $p = .597$; *Boot95%CI* (-.087, .127)], ethics in decision making [$b = -.059$; $t = -1.437$; $p = .152$, *Boot95%CI* (-.175, .057)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.028$; $t = -.606$; $p = .545$, *Boot95%CI* (-.158, .102)], were not predictors of operating condition a dimension of Job Satisfaction). The results imply that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have operating conditions in their work.

The results showed that coworkers as an outcome variable of Job Satisfaction, communicative ethics [$b = .019$; $t = .879$; $p = .380$; *Boot95%CI* (-.042, .080)], climatic ethics [$b = .001$; $t = .018$; $p = .985$; *Boot95%CI* (-.101, .102)], ethics in decision-making [$b = .069$; $t = 1.784$; $p = .076$, *Boot95%CI* (-.041, .179)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.065$; $t = -1.493$; $p = .137$, *Boot95%CI* (-.188, .058)], were not predictors of coworkers. The results imply that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and

behavioural ethics are not likely to have coworkers in their work. With regards to nature of work as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.020$; $t = .873$; $p = .384$; *Boot95%CI* (-.044, .084)], climatic ethics [$b = -.020$; $t = -.544$; $p = .587$; *Boot95%CI* (-.127, .086)], ethics in decision making [$b = .113$; $t = 2.771$; $p = .006$, *Boot95%CI* (-.003, .228)] and behavioural ethics [$b = .025$; $t = .539$; $p = .590$, *Boot95%CI* (-.105, .154)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of nature of work a dimension of Job Satisfaction.

Finally, the study revealed that communication as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.045$; $t = -1.387$; $p = .167$; *Boot95%CI* (-.137, .047)], climatic ethics [$b = .029$; $t = .536$; $p = .593$; *Boot95%CI* (-.124, .182)], ethics in decision-making [$b = .087$; $t = 1.484$; $p = .139$, *Boot95%CI* (-.079, .253)], and behavioural ethics [$b = .015$; $t = .228$; $p = .819$, *Boot95%CI* (-.172, .202)], were not predictors of communication (Job Satisfaction). The results imply that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have communication in their work.

The study then examines the impact of the total construct of ethical leadership on the total construct of job satisfaction in the second part. It was done using the path analysis of the Structural Equation Model with 5000 bootstrap samples and bias-corrected accelerated confidence intervals. The continuous measurement of ethical leadership served as the exogenous (predictor) variable. Job satisfaction was the criteria variable, and it was also continuously measured. Figure 5 and Table 19 both display the specifics of the findings.

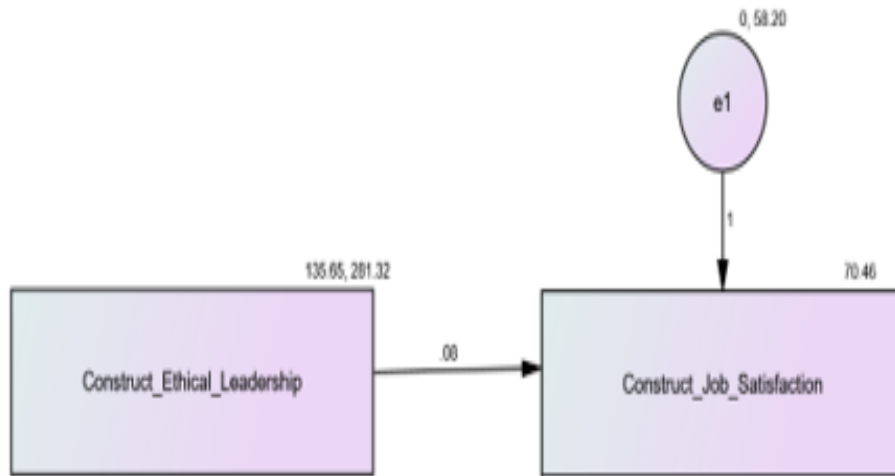


Figure 5- Path Model of Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

From Figure 5, ethical leadership predicts job satisfaction by .08 with a mean and error variance of (135.65, 281.32) respectively, and an intercept of 70.46 for job satisfaction.

Table 20 shows the significance of the path model.

Table 20: Regression Model for Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>CR</i>	<i>P</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
(Constant)	70.461	3.948	17.884	.000	62.685	78.236
Ethical Leadership	.083	.029	2.868	.004	.026	.140

*Significant, $p < .05$; $R = .179$; $R^2 = .032$

Ethical Leadership and job satisfaction were determined using path analysis. From Table 20, ethical leadership explained 3.2% of the variance in job satisfaction. Ethical leadership was a substantial predictor of job satisfaction, [$b = .08$; $P = .004$; *Boot95%CI* (.026, .140)]. This

result ($B = .08$) implies that ethical leadership positively predicts job satisfaction. The result discovered that a surge in ethical leadership would lead to .83 increases in job satisfaction.

4.6 Hypothesis Two

H₁: Principals' ethical leadership will predict organisational commitment in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

This hypothesis aimed to test whether or not ethical leadership could predict the organisational commitment of tutors. The relationship between the sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics) and organisational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment), as well as the overall construct of ethical leadership and organisational commitment is examined in this section. The criteria variable has multiple dimensions, therefore after meeting assumptions like normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity, a strict alpha level was chosen to prevent type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis when there are no substantial results). To do this, the researcher applied the Bonferroni adjustment recommended by Tabachnik and Fidel (2011), in which the original alpha was divided by the number of dimensions in the criteria variable. So, since $0.05/3 = 0.017$, the new alpha level was set at .017. In doing so Multivariate Multiple Regression was used to test the hypothesis. Table 21 provides the results.

Table 21: Multivariate Multiple Regression of sub-dimensions of Ethical Leadership and Organisational Commitment

Criterion	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Squared	Eta
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
AF	Intercept	12.943	1.299	9.965	.000	9.822	16.064	.288	
	ComEth	-.065	.037	-1.767	.078	-.154	.024	.013	
	CliEth	.013	.062	.218	.828	-.135	.161	.000	
	EDM	.042	.067	.624	.533	-.119	.202	.002	
	BeEth	.126	.075	1.680	.094	-.054	.306	.011	
CC	Intercept	12.747	1.513	8.426	.000	9.112	16.383	.225	
	ComEth	-.040	.043	-.924	.357	-.143	.064	.003	
	CliEth	-.029	.072	-.402	.688	-.201	.144	.001	
	EDM	.197	.078	2.530	.012	.010	.383	.025	
	BeEth	.023	.087	.265	.791	-.187	.233	.000	
NC	Intercept	8.682	1.011	8.586	.000	6.252	11.112	.231	
	ComEth	-.033	.029	-1.149	.252	-.102	.036	.005	

ClEth	.047	.048	.982	.327	-.068	.162	.004
EDM	.087	.052	1.677	.095	-.038	.212	.011
BeEth	-.050	.058	-.856	.393	-.190	.090	.003

NOTE: ^aR-squared = .028 (Adjusted R-squared = .012). ^bR-squared = .038 (Adjusted R-squared = .023). ^cR-squared = .022 (Adjusted R-squared = .006).

Table 21 presents the results of a multivariate multiple regression test in which the requirements for affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment were predicted by communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics. Wilk's lambda was used to determine whether the omnibus hypothesis that all beta values for the dependent variables were equal to zero was statistically significant. $F(3, 243) = 46.955$, Wilk's lambda = .633, $p = .000$. With affective commitment (AF) as a dimension of organisational commitment as the criterion, $R^2 = .028$, $p = .000$, this shows that 2.8% of the variance in affective commitment was explained by ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics. With continuance commitment as the criterion, $R^2 = .038$, $p = .000$, shows that 3.8% of the variance in continuance commitment is explained by sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics). With regards to the organisational commitment that is, normative commitment as the criterion, $R^2 = .022$, $p = .000$, revealed that 2.2% of sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics) explained its variance.

In the case of dimensional predictions, it was individually based. Using affective commitment as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.065$; $t = -1.767$; $p = .078$; *Boot95%CI* (-.154, .024)], climatic ethics [$b = .013$; $t = .218$; $p = .828$; *Boot95%CI* (-.135, .161)], ethics in decision making [$b = .042$; $t = .624$; $p = .533$, *Boot95%CI* (-.119, .202)], and behavioural ethics [$b = .126$; $t = 1.680$; $p = .094$, *Boot95%CI* (-.054, .306)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of affective commitment. The outcomes imply that tutors with

ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have an affective commitment to their work.

With regards to continuance commitment (organisational commitment) as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.040$; $t = -.924$; $p = .357$; *Boot95%CI* (-.143, .064)], climatic ethics [$b = -.029$; $t = -.402$; $p = .688$; *Boot95%CI* (-.201, .144)], and behavioural ethics [$b = .023$; $t = .265$; $p = .791$, *Boot95%CI* (-.187, .233)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of continuance commitment a dimension of organisational commitment. However, ethics in decision-making [$b = .197$; $t = 2.530$; $p = .012$, *Boot95%CI* (.010, .383)] was found to be a predictor of continuance commitment. The result implies that tutors with communicative ethics, climatic ethics, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have continuance commitment but tutors with ethics in decision-making tend to put up continuance commitment to their work.

Using normative commitment (NC) as a criterion, communicative ethics [$b = -.033$; $t = -1.149$; $p = .252$; *Boot95%CI* (-.102, .036)], climatic ethics [$b = .047$; $t = .982$; $p = .327$; *Boot95%CI* (-.068, .162)], ethics in decision-making [$b = .087$; $t = 1.677$; $p = .095$, *Boot95%CI* (-.038, .212)], and behavioural ethics [$b = -.050$; $t = -.856$; $p = .393$, *Boot95%CI* (-.190, .090)], sub-dimensions of ethical leadership were not predictors of normative commitment. The outcomes imply that tutors with ethical leadership such as communicative ethics, climatic ethics, ethics in decision-making, and behavioural ethics are not likely to have a normative commitment to their work.

The study further looked at the total construct of ethical leadership in predicting the total construct of organisational commitment. The exogenous (predictor) variable was the total

construct of ethical leadership which was measured continuously. The criterion variable was the total construct of organisational commitment, which was also measured continuously. The details of the simple linear regression analysis are shown in Tables 22 and 23.

Table 22: Model summary and fit statistics of the relationship between the Total Construct of Ethical Leadership and the Total Construct of Organisational Commitment

		Sum	of				
Model		Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R ²
1	Regression	91.163	1	91.163	2.905	.090	.012
	Residual	7782.421	248	31.381			
	Total	7873.584	249				

a. Dependent Variable: Total Construct of Organisational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Total Construct of Ethical Leadership

Table 23: Coefficient of the Prediction of the Total Construct of Ethical Leadership and the Total Construct of Organisational Commitment

Model		B	SE	T	P	LLCI	ULCI
1	(Constant)	35.508	2.887	28.513	.000	29.822	41.195
	Ethical Leadership	.036	.021	-1.322	.090	-.006	.078

B—Unstandardized Coefficient; SE—Standard Error; LLCI—Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI—Upper Limit Confidence Interval.

The outcomes in Table 22 highlight the model summary and fit statistics of the regression results. It was revealed from the analysis that the data, which comprised the total construct of ethical leadership and the total construct of organisational commitment does not fit the model, $F(1, 248) = 2.905$, $p = .090$. The outcome of the evaluation also showed that ethical leadership explained about 1.2% of the variability in organisational commitment

The results further revealed in Table 23 that ethical leadership was not a potential predictor of organisational commitment, ($b = .036$; $SE = .021$; $t = -1.322$; $p = .90$; $BootCI (-.006, .078)$ (see Table 23).

4.7 Hypothesis Three

H₁: Job satisfaction will predict organisational commitment in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

This hypothesis aimed to test whether or not job satisfaction could predict the organisational commitment of tutors. The results in this section are in two folds. The first part looks at the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction as predictors of sub-dimensions of organisational commitment. The second part looks at the influence of the total construct of job satisfaction on the total construct of organisational commitment. Organisational commitment was a multidimensional criterion in multivariate multiple regression, with dimensions including affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Job satisfaction was a multidimensional predictor, with dimensions including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication.

Due to the multiple dimensions of the criteria variable, a strict alpha level was established after meeting the normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity requirements. This was done to avoid a type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis when there are no significant results). In doing this, the Bonferroni adjustment suggested by Tabachnik and Fidel (2011) was used, where the researcher divided the original alpha by the number of dimensions of the criterion variable. That is, $0.05/3 = 0.017$, thus .017 served as the new alpha level. Table 24 provides the results.

Table 24: Multivariate Multiple Regression of sub-dimensions of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Dependent		95% Confidence Interval					
Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
AF	Intercept	5.603	1.587	3.530	.000	1.788	9.418
	Pay	.285	.091	3.112	.002	.065	.505
	Promo	-.092	.108	-.860	.390	-.351	.166
	Supe	.167	.101	1.652	.100	-.076	.411
	FrBe	.010	.084	.124	.901	-.192	.213
	CoRe	-.150	.103	-1.461	.145	-.396	.097
	OpCon	.237	.104	2.277	.024	-.013	.486
	Cow	.215	.110	1.953	.052	-.050	.480
	NaWo	.019	.092	.204	.839	-.202	.240
	Comm	.316	.072	4.390	.000	.143	.489
CC	Intercept	8.266	2.029	4.074	.000	3.389	13.142
	Pay	.265	.117	2.264	.024	-.016	.546

	Promo	.039	.137	.286	.775	-.291	.369
	Supe	-.066	.129	-.513	.608	-.378	.245
	FrBe	.175	.108	1.619	.107	-.085	.434
	CoRe	-.037	.131	-.285	.776	-.353	.278
	OpCon	.039	.133	.294	.769	-.280	.358
	Cow	.018	.141	.129	.898	-.320	.357
	NaWo	.180	.118	1.535	.126	-.102	.463
	Comm	.201	.092	2.189	.030	-.020	.422
NC	Intercept	3.131	1.255	2.495	.013	.115	6.147
	Pay	.037	.072	.508	.612	-.137	.211
	Promo	-.108	.085	-1.267	.206	-.312	.097
	Supe	.272	.080	3.395	.001	.079	.464
	FrBe	.056	.067	.846	.399	-.104	.217
	CoRe	-.118	.081	-1.456	.147	-.313	.077

OpCon	.172	.082	2.088	.038	-.026	.369
Cow	.217	.087	2.486	.014	.007	.426
NaWo	.010	.073	.139	.889	-.165	.185
Comm	.156	.057	2.752	.006	.020	.293

NOTE: ^aR-squared = .247 (Adjusted R-squared = .219). ^bR-squared = .103 (Adjusted R-squared = .069). ^cR-squared = .219 (Adjusted R-squared = .190).

Table 24 summarises the results of a multivariate multiple regression test where the variables pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication were used to predict the criteria affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Using Wilk's lambda to test for the omnibus hypothesis that all beta values across the dependent variables equalled to zero was statistically significant, $F(3, 238) = 7.822$, Wilk's lambda = .910, $p = .000$. With the organisational commitment that is affective commitment as the criterion, $R^2 = .247$, $p = .000$. This shows that 24.7% of the variance in the organisational commitment that is affective commitment was explained by job satisfaction such as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworker, nature of work, and communication. With the organisational commitment that is continuance commitment as the criterion, $R^2 = .103$, $p = .000$. This shows that 10.3% of the variance in the organisational commitment that is continuance commitment was explained by sub-dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworker, nature of work, and communication). Concerning the organisational commitment that is normative commitment as the criterion, $R^2 = .219$, $p = .000$. This revealed that 21.9% of sub-dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworker, nature of work, and communication) explained its variance.

The dimensional predictors were also considered. Using affective commitment as a criterion, pay [$b = .285$; $t = 3.112$; $p = .002$; *Boot95%CI* (.065, .505)], and communication [$b = .316$; $t = 4.390$; $p = .000$; *Boot95%CI* (.143, .489)], were significant predictors of affective commitment (organisational commitment). The results imply that tutors with pay and

communication are likely to have affective commitment. However, promotion [$b = -.092$; $t = -.860$; $p = .390$; *Boot95%CI* (-.351, .166)], supervision [$b = .167$; $t = 1.652$; $p = .100$, *Boot95%CI* (-.076, .411)], fringe benefits [$b = .010$; $t = .124$; $p = .901$, *Boot95%CI* (-.192, .213)], contingent rewards [$b = -.150$; $t = -1.461$; $p = .145$, *Boot95%CI* (-.396, .097)], operating conditions [$b = .237$; $t = 2.277$; $p = .024$, *Boot95%CI* (-.013, .486)], coworkers [$b = .215$; $t = 1.953$; $p = .052$, *Boot95%CI* (-.050, .480)], and nature of work [$b = .019$; $t = .204$; $p = .839$, *Boot95%CI* (-.202, .240)], were not significant predictors of affective commitment that is organisation commitment.

Again, using continuance commitment as a criterion, pay [$b = .265$; $t = 2.264$; $p = .024$; *Boot95%CI* (-.016, .546)], promotion [$b = .039$; $t = .286$; $p = .775$; *Boot95%CI* (-.291, .369)], supervision [$b = -.066$; $t = -.513$; $p = .608$, *Boot95%CI* (-.378, .245)], fringe benefits [$b = .175$; $t = 1.619$; $p = .901$, *Boot95%CI* (-.085, .434)], contingent rewards [$b = -.037$; $t = -.285$; $p = .776$, *Boot95%CI* (-.353, .278)], operating conditions [$b = .039$; $t = .294$; $p = .769$, *Boot95%CI* (-.280, .358)], coworkers [$b = .018$; $t = .129$; $p = .898$, *Boot95%CI* (-.320, .357)], nature of work [$b = .180$; $t = 1.535$; $p = .126$, *Boot95%CI* (-.102, .463)], and communication [$b = .201$; $t = 2.189$; $p = .030$, *Boot95%CI* (-.020, .422)], sub-dimensions of job satisfaction were not predictors of continuance commitment a dimension of organisational commitment. The results imply that tutors with pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworker, nature of work, and communication dimensions of job satisfaction are not likely to have continuance commitment in their work

Further analysis, showed that normative commitment as an outcome variable, all the dimensions of job satisfaction, pay [$b = .037$; $t = .508$; $p = .612$; *Boot95%CI* (-.137, .211)], promotion [$b = -.108$; $t = -1.267$; $p = .206$; *Boot95%CI* (-.312, .097)], fringe benefits [$b = .056$; $t = .846$; $p = .399$, *Boot95%CI* (-.104, .217)], contingent rewards [$b = -.118$; $t = -1.456$; $p = .147$, *Boot95%CI* (-.313, .077)], operating conditions [$b = .172$; $t = 2.088$; $p = .038$, *Boot95%CI* (-.026, .369)], and nature of work [$b = .010$; $t = .139$; $p = .889$, *Boot95%CI* (-.165, .185)], were not predictors of normative commitment. However, supervision [$b = .272$; $t = 3.395$; $p = .001$; *Boot95%CI* (.079, .464)], coworkers [$b = .217$; $t = 2.486$; $p = .014$, *Boot95%CI* (.007, .426)], and communication [$b = .156$; $t = 2.752$; $p = .006$, *Boot95%CI* (.020, .293)], were substantial predictors of normative commitment. The results imply that tutors with supervision, coworkers and communication are likely to have normative commitment.

The study also looked at the influence of the total constructs of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It was done using the path analysis of the Structural Equation Model with 5000 bootstrap samples and bias-corrected accelerated confidence intervals. Job satisfaction was the exogenous (predictor) variable, and it was continuously measured. The organisational commitment was the criteria variable, and it was also continuously measured. Figure 6 and Table 25 detail the findings in more detail.

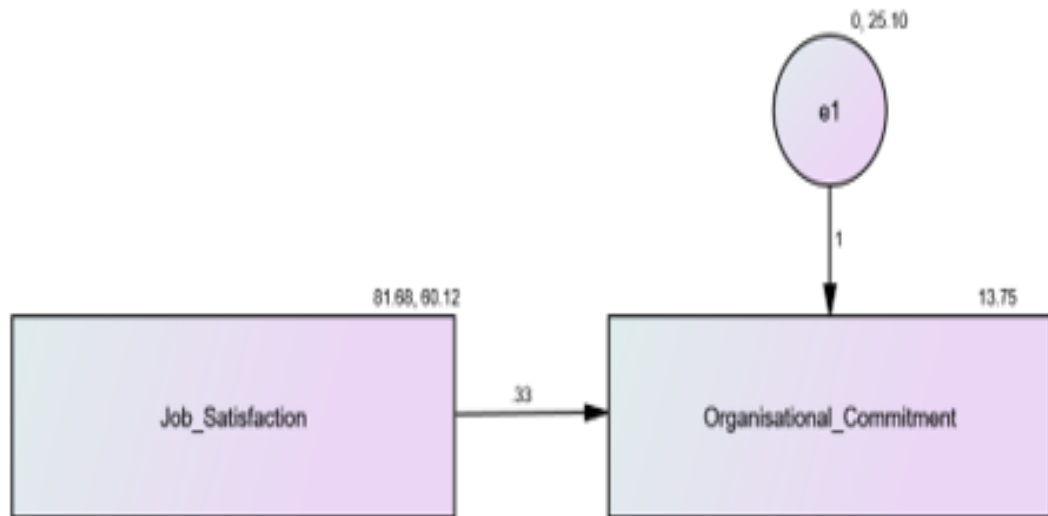


Figure 6: Path Model of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

From Figure 6, job satisfaction predicts organisational commitment by .33 with a mean of 81.68, and error variance of 60.12, and an intercept of 13.75 for organisational commitment.

Table 25 presents the significance of the path model.

Table 25: Regression Model for Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>CR</i>	<i>P</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
(Constant)	13.751	3.359	4.093	.000	7.121	20.380
Job Satisfaction	.326	.041	7.766	.000	.245	.407

*Significant, $p < .05$; $R = .451$; $R^2 = .203$

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment were determined using path analysis. From Table 25, job satisfaction explained 20.3% of the variance in organisational commitment.

Job satisfaction was a substantial predictor of organisational commitment, [$b = .326$; $P =$

.041; $p = .000$, *Boot95%CI* (.245, .407)]. This result ($B = .33$) implies that job satisfaction positively predicts organisational commitment. The result indicates that a surge in job satisfaction would lead to .33 increases in organisational commitment.

4.8 Hypothesis Four

H₁: Organisational commitment will moderate the relationship between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction in the Colleges of Education in Ghana

The study looked into the moderating role of organisational commitment in the link between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Moderation analysis was carried out to see if a third variable (i.e., organisational commitment) could increase or lessen the link between a predictor (i.e., ethical leadership) and an outcome variable (i.e., job satisfaction). A 95% confidence interval and 5000 bootstrap samples were employed in the analysis. Three models were singled out in the investigation. For each of the three models—*affective commitment*, *continuance commitment*, and *normative commitment*—a single moderator was employed. Information is displayed in Tables 26 and 27.

Table 26: Model Summary

Model	R	R-Square	F	df1	df2	P
1	.4771	.2277	24.1722	3.0000	246.0000	.0000
2	.3176	.1009	9.2001	3.0000	246.0000	.0000
3	.4566	.2084	21.5933	3.0000	246.0000	.0000

* Significant, $p < 0.05$.

Model 1 in Table 26 had an R^2 value of .2277, accounting for 22.77% of the variance in the tutors' self-reported job satisfaction. Model 1 was once more shown to be significant with $F(3, 246) = 24.1722$, $p = .0000$. $F(3, 246) = 9.2001$, $p = .000$ and the R^2 accounted for 10.09%

of the variation in the tutors' self-reported job satisfaction were significant results for model 2. Model 3 has an R^2 value of .2084, accounting for 20.84% of the variance in the tutors' self-reported job satisfaction. The model was once more shown to be significant, $F(3, 246) = 21.5933, p = .0000$.

Table 27: Moderating Role of Sub-Dimensions of Organisational Commitment in the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Model	Variable	B	SE	t-value	p-value	BootLL	BootUL
1	(Constant)	97.4835	14.4155	6.7624	.0000	69.0899	125.8772
	Ethical Leadership	-.2547	.1055	-2.4145	.0165	-.4625	-.0469
	Affective Commitment	-1.7670	.9661	-1.8289	.0686	-3.6699	.1360
	EL*AC	.0224	.0070	3.1823	.0016	.0085	.0360
2	(Constant)	102.0082	20.8641	4.8892	.0000	60.9132	143.1032
	Ethical Leadership	-.2167	.1499	-1.4457	.1495	-.5119	.0785
	Continuance Commitment	-1.8010	1.2530	-1.4373	.1519	-4.2691	.6671
	EL*CC	.0174	.0089	1.9517	.0521	-.0002	.0350
3	(Constant)	108.5856	16.0310	6.7735	.0000	77.0101	140.1611
	Ethical Leadership	-.2985	.1146	-2.6055	.0097	-.5242	-.0728
	Normative Commitment	-3.7521	1.5980	-2.3480	.0197	-6.8996	-.6046
	EL*NC	.0378	.0114	3.3216	.0010	.0154	.0602

* Significant, $p < 0.05$

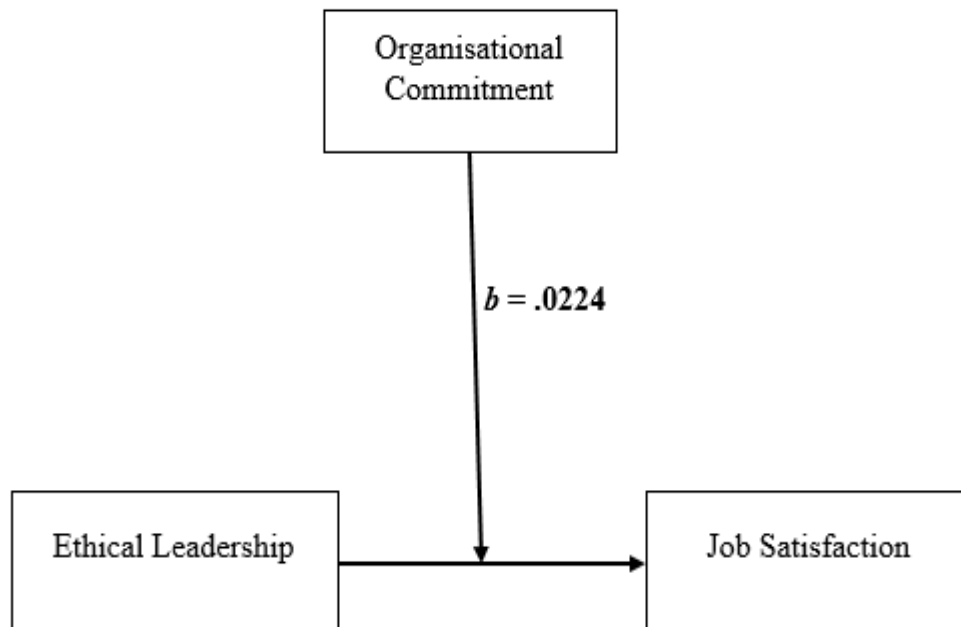


Figure 7- Statistical model results using model 1 of PROCESS Macro

Table 27 presents results on the moderating role of sub-dimensions of organisational commitment in the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Figure 7, shows the diagrammatical presentation of the statistical model. In model 1, affective commitment was found as a substantial moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction ($b = .0224$; $SE = .0070$; $t = 3.1823$; $p = .0016$, *Boot95%CI* (.0085, .0363). However, continuance commitment was not found as a substantial moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction ($b = .0174$; $SE = .0089$; $t = 1.9517$; $p = .0521$, *Boot95%CI* (-.0002, .0350). In model 3, normative commitment was found as a moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction ($b = .0378$; $SE = .0114$; $t = 3.3216$; $p = .0010$, *Boot95%CI* (.0154, .0602). The result implies that organisational commitment was a substantial moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction of tutors.

4.9 Hypothesis Five

H₁: Gender will moderate the relationship between principal ethical leadership and job satisfaction in the Colleges of Education in Ghana

This hypothesis aimed to examine the moderating role of gender in the link between sub-dimensions of ethical leadership and the total construct of job satisfaction. The analysis highlighted four models. In the models, a single moderator (i.e., Gender) was used to moderate the link between the sub-dimensions of ethical leadership and job satisfaction. The hypothesis was tested using the moderation model of PROCESS by Hayes (2018) using 5000 bootstrap samples with 95% bootstrap confidence intervals. The results are presented in Tables 28 and 29.

Table 28: Model Summary

Model	R	R-Square	F	df1	df2	P
1	.2075	.0430	3.6881	3.0000	246.0000	.0126
2	.2239	.0501	4.3267	3.0000	246.0000	.0054
3	.2791	.0779	6.9252	3.0000	246.0000	.0002
4	.2160	.0467	4.0134	3.0000	246.0000	.0082

* Significant, $p < 0.05$.

Model 1 in Table 28, the R^2 value was 0.430 which reported 4.30% of the variance in the self-reported job satisfaction of tutors. The model showed significant results, $F(3, 246) = 3.6881$, $p = .0126$. In model 2, the results were significant $F(3, 246) = 4.3267$, $p = .0054$ and the R^2 accounted for 5.01% of the variance in the self-reported job satisfaction of tutors. The R^2 value in model 3 was .0779 which accounted for 7.79% of the variance in the self-reported job satisfaction of tutors. It was again, revealed that the model was significant, $F(3, 246) =$

6.9252, $p = .0002$. Model 4 results were significant, $F(3, 249) = .0467$, $p = .0082$, in which the R^2 value accounted for 4.67% of the variance in the self-reported job satisfaction of tutors. Table 29 presents the significant results.

Table 29: Moderating Role of Gender in the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Model	Variable	B	SE	t-value	p-value	BootLL	BootUL
1	(Constant)	92.979	10.1725	9.1381	.0000	72.9216	112.9943
	Communicative Ethics	-.2858	.2114	-1.3521	.1776	-.2551	1305
	Gender	-13.4711	7.1420	-1.8862	.0604	-32.1782	5961
	CE*Gender	.3230	.1493	2.1637	.0290	.0315	.6170
2	(Constant)	85.7897	10.7959	7.9465	.0000	64.5255	107.0540
	Climate Ethics	-1887	.3089	-.6110	.5418	-.7971	.4196
	Gender	-.10.6654	7.6595	-1.3924	.1650	-25.7521	4.4212
	CIE*Gender	.3648	.2206	1.6541	.0994	-.0696	.7993
3	(Constant)	83.9078	10.6402	7.8859	.0000	62.9502	.104.8654
	EDM	-.1721	.3837	-.4485	.6542	-.9279	.5837
	Gender	-123989	7.8674	-1.5760	.1163	-27.8950	3.0973
	EDM*Gender	.5246	.2855	1.8371	.0674	-.0378	1.0870
4	(Constant)	93.1882	10.7904	8.6362	.0000	71.9349	114.4415

Behaviour Ethics	-.5345	.4168	-1.2825	.2009	-1.3554	.2864
Gender	-15.3592	7.9857	1.9233	.0556	-31.0882	.3699
BeEth*Gender	.6682	.3094	2.1597	.0318	.0588	1.2775

* Significant, $p < 0.05$

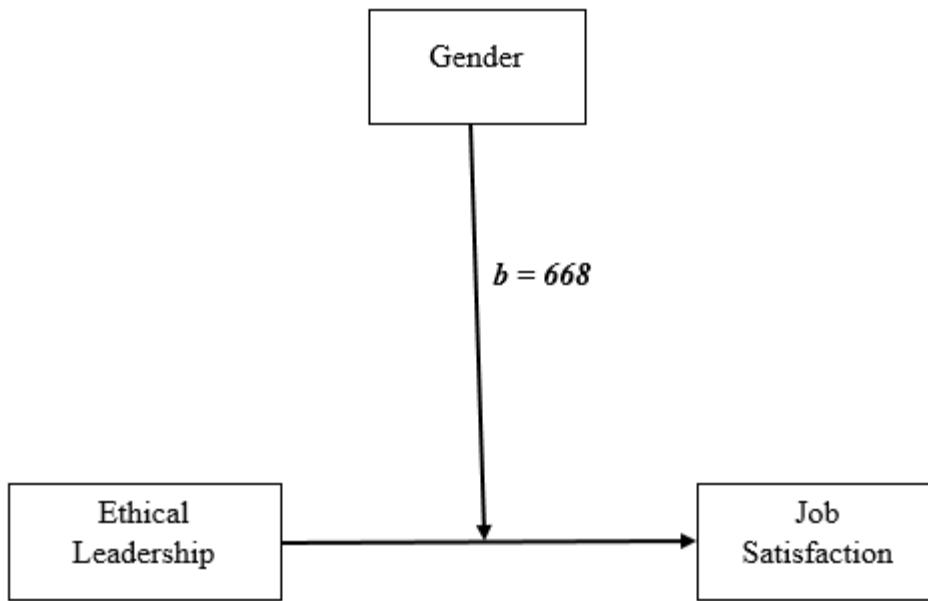


Figure 8- Statistical model results using model 1 of PROCESS Macro

Table 29 presents the outcome of the moderating role of gender in the link between sub-dimensions of ethical leadership and job satisfaction. In Model 1, gender was found as a moderator between communicative ethics and job satisfaction ($b = .3230$; $SE = .1493$; $t = 2.1637$; $p = .029$, $Boot95\%CI (.0315, .6170)$). However, gender was not found as a moderator between climatic ethics and job satisfaction ($b = .3648$; $SE = .2206$; $t = 1.6541$; $p = .0994$, $Boot95\%CI (-.0696, .7993)$). Similarly, in Model 3, gender was not found as a moderator between ethics in decision-making and job satisfaction ($b = -.5246$; $SE = .2855$; $t = 1.8371$; $p = .0674$, $Boot95\%CI (-.0378, 1.0870)$). In Model 4, gender was found as a moderator between behavioural ethics and job satisfaction ($b = .6682$; $SE = .3094$; $t = 2.1597$; $p = .0318$, $Boot95\%CI (.0588, 1.2775)$). The implication of the result is that gender was a moderator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction.

Since gender was a substantial moderator in the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction, the study proceeded to do further probe and the results are illustrated in Figure 9.

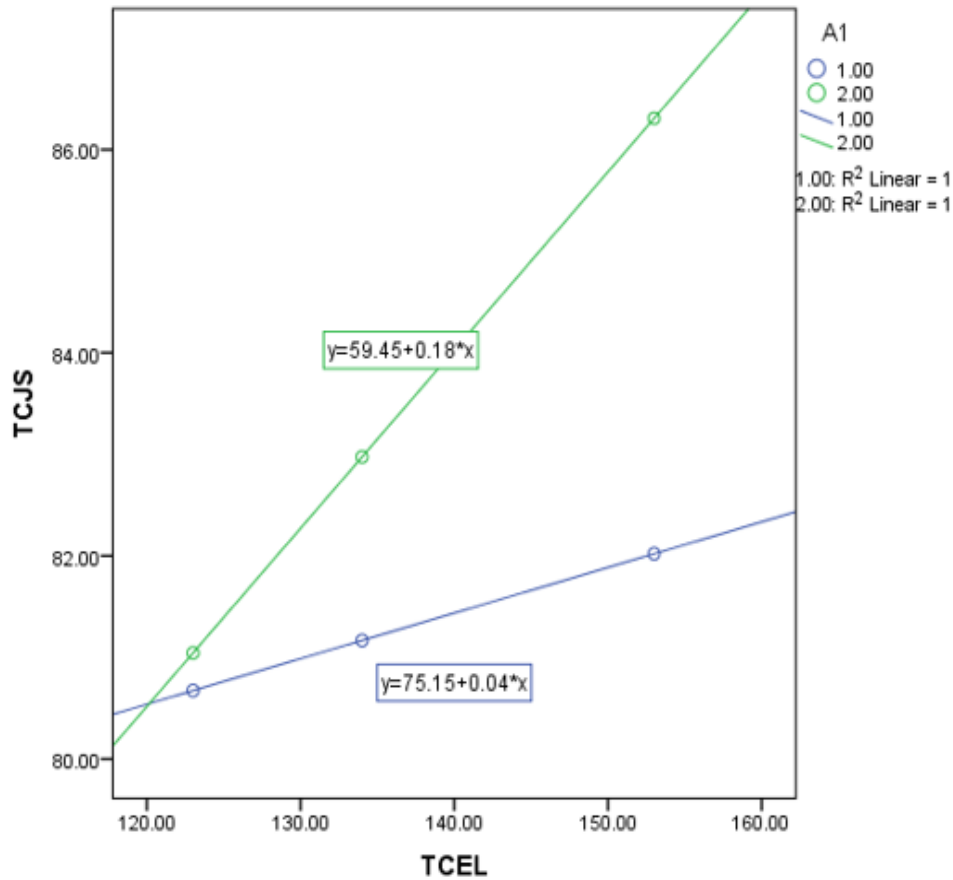


Figure 9: Gender in the link between Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

As shown in Figure 9, the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction was positive for females and negative for males. This implies that, on one hand, as the ethical leadership of females increased from 124 to 154, their job satisfaction also increased from 80 to 90. On the other hand, as the ethical leadership of males increased from 124 to 154, their job satisfaction decreased from 82 to 81. These results generally mean that as female tutors become more ethical leaders, their job satisfaction is enhanced. Male tutors, however,

experience a decline in job satisfaction as they become ethical leaders. The implication is that gender significantly moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction.

4.10 Hypothesis Six

H₁: Gender will moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

The purpose of this hypothesis was to examine the moderating role of gender in the link between sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and the total construct of organisational commitment. The analysis highlighted nine models. In the models, a single moderator (i.e., Gender) was used to moderate the link between the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The hypothesis was tested using the moderation model of PROCESS by Hayes (2018) using 5000 bootstrap samples with 95% bootstrap confidence intervals. The results are shown in Tables 30 and 31.

Table 30: Model Summary

Model	R	R-Square	F	df1	df2	P
1	.3014	.0908	8.1910	3.0000	246.0000	.0000
2	.1295	.0168	1.3984	3.0000	246.0000	.2438
3	.2875	.0827	7.3908	3.0000	246.0000	.0001
4	.2676	.0716	6.3237	3.0000	246.0000	.0004
5	.1091	.0119	.9871	3.0000	246.0000	.3995
6	.2490	.0620	5.4224	3.0000	246.0000	.0013
7	.2582	.0667	5.8578	3.0000	246.0000	.0007

8	.1990	.0396	3.3805	3.0000	246.0000	.0189
9	.3891	.1514	14.6255	3.0000	246.0000	.0000

* Significant, $p < 0.05$.

The R^2 value for Model 1 in Table 30 was .0908, which explained 9.08% of the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. $F(3, 246) = 8.1910$, $p = .0000$, a significant result for the model was obtained. The outcomes in Model 2 were not significant. The R^2 explained 1.68% of the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment, according to $F(3, 246) = 1.3984$, $p = .2438$. Model 3 the R^2 value was .0827, which explained 8.27% of the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. The model was once more shown to be significant, $F(3, 246) = 7.3908$, $p = .0001$. The results of Model 4 were significant, $F(3, 249) = 6.3237$, $p = .0004$, and the R^2 value explained 7.16% of the variance in the tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. In Model 5, the results were not significant $F(3, 246) = .9871$, $p = .3995$ and the R^2 accounted for 1.19% of the variance in the self-reported organisational commitment of tutors.

Model 6's R^2 value was .0620, which explained 6.20 percent of the variation in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. The model was once more shown to be significant, $F(3, 246) = 5.4224$, $p = .0013$. The model 7 results were significant ($F(3, 249) = 5.8578$, $p = .0007$), and the tutors' self-reported organisational commitment was explained by the R^2 value to the extent that it accounted for 6.67 percent of the variance. The results of Model 8 were significant, with $F(3, 249) = 3.3805$, $p = .0189$, and an R^2 value of 3.96% for the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. $F(3, 246) = 14.6255$, $p = .0000$, and the R^2 accounted for 15.14% of the variance in tutors' self-reported organisational commitment. In the last Model, the results were significant $F(3, 246) = 14.6255$, $p = .0000$

and the R^2 accounted for 15.14% of the variance in the self-reported organisational commitment of tutors. Table 31 presents the significance results.

Table 31: Moderating Role of Gender in the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Model	Variable	B	SE	t-value	p-value	BootLL	BootUL
1	(Constant)	41.3444	4.8326	8.5554	.0000	31.8259	50.8629
	Pay	-.1117	.6185	-.1805	.8569	-1.3298	1.1065
	Gender	-6.4542	3.6625	-1.7622	.0793	-13.6681	.7597
	Pay*Gender	.8355	.4655	1.7951	.0739	-.0812	1.7523
2	(Constant)	31.2772	6.2424	5.0104	.0000	18.9818	43.5725
	Promotion	1.1307	.7645	1.4791	.1404	-.3750	2.6364
	Gender	4.2218	4.6159	.9146	.3613	-4.8699	13.3136
	Promotion*Gender	-.5188	.5592	.9277	.3545	-1.6202	.5826
3	(Constant)	23.0407	6.6274	3.4766	.0000	9.9869	36.0945
	Supervision	1.6814	.6239	2.6948	.0075	.4525	2.9104
	Gender	5.7813	4.8472	1.1927	.2341	-3.7660	15.3286
	Supervision*Gender	-.5666	.4506	-1.2574	.2099	-1.4540	.3209
4	(Constant)	44.6957	6.1710	7.2428	.0000	32.5409	56.9505

	Fringe Benefit	-.4031	.5900	-.6833	.4950	-1.5652	.7589
	Gender	-9.6559	4.7793	-2.0204	.0444	-19.0694	-.2424
	Fringe Benefit*Gender	.9251	.4539	2.0380	.0426	.0310	1.8191
5	(Constant)	31.2800	5.7539	5.4366	.0000	19.9475	42.6125
	Contingent Reward	1.1290	.7105	1.5890	.13332	-.2705	2.5285
	Gender	5.4769	4.2598	1.2857	.1998	-2.9135	13.8673
	Contingent Reward*Gender	-.6739	.5239	-1.2863	.1995	-1.7058	.3580
6	(Constant)	32.1505	5.6486	5.6918	.0000	21.0247	43.2763
	Operating conditions	1.0815	.6944	1.5574	.1207	-.2863	2.4492
	Gender	.8602	4.3769	.1965	.8444	-7.7608	9.4812
	Operating Cond.*Gender	-.1388	.5296	-.2620	.7935	-1.1818	.9043
7	(Constant)	30.4291	6.2281	4.8858	.0000	18.1619	42.6962
	Coworkers	1.1486	.7275	1.5788	.1157	-.2844	2.5815
	Gender	1.2232	4.6834	.2612	.7942	-8.0014	10.4479
	Coworkers*Gender	-.1207	.5488	-.2200	.8261	-1.2016	.9602

8	(Constant)	43.7162	7.6724	5.6979	.0000	28.6043	58.8282
	Nature of Work	-.3102	.6719	-.4616	.6448	-1.6336	1.0133
	Gender	-8.2752	5.7963	-1.4277	.1547	-19.6920	3.1415
	Nature of Work*Gender	.7449	.5080	1.4663	.1438	-.2557	1.7455
9	(Constant)	37.7057	4.5340	8.3162	.0000	28.7752	46.6362
	Communication	.2890	.4524	.6390	.5234	-.6019	1.1800
	Gender	-4.9772	3.1716	-1.5693	.1179	-11.2241	1.2697
	Communication *Gender	.4973	.3128	1.5900	.1131	-.1187	1.1133

* Significant, $p < 0.05$

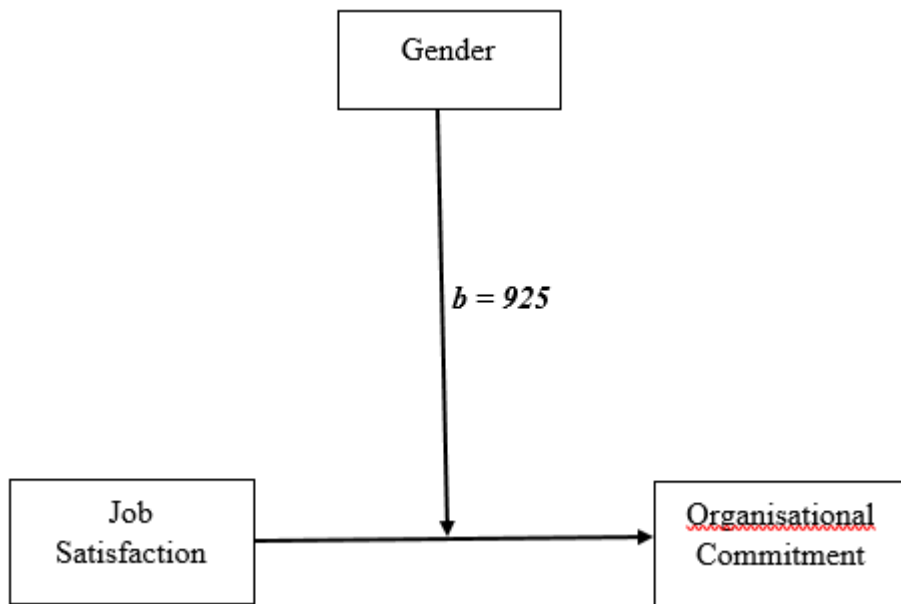


Figure 10: Statistical model results using model 1 of PROCESS Macro

Table 31 presents results on the moderating role of gender in the link between sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and the total construct of organisational commitment. In model 1, gender was not found as a moderator between pay and organisational commitment ($b = .8355$; $SE = .4655$; $t = 1.7951$; $p = .0739$, *Boot95%CI* (-.0812, 1.7523). Similarly, in model 2, gender was not found as a moderator between promotion and organisational commitment ($b = -.5188$; $SE = .5592$; $t = .9277$; $p = .3545$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.6202, .5826). In model 3, gender was not found as a moderator between supervision and organisational commitment ($b = -.5666$; $SE = .4506$; $t = -1.2574$; $p = .2099$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.4540, .3209). However, in model 4, gender was found as a moderator between fringe benefits and organisational commitment ($b = .9251$; $SE = .4539$; $t = 2.0380$; $p = .0426$, *Boot95%CI* (.0310, 1.8191).

With regards to model 5, gender was not found as a moderator between contingent reward and organisational commitment ($b = -.6739$; $SE = .5239$; $t = -1.2863$; $p = .1995$,

Boot95%CI (-1.7058, .3580). In Model 6, gender was not found as a moderator between operating conditions and organisational commitment ($b = -.1388$; $SE = .5296$; $t = -.2620$; $p = .7935$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.1818, .9043). Similarly, in Model 7, gender was not found as a moderator between coworkers and organisational commitment ($b = -.1207$; $SE = .5488$; $t = -.2200$; $p = .8261$, *Boot95%CI* (-1.2016, .9602). In model 8, gender was not found as a moderator between nature of work and organisational commitment ($b = .7449$; $SE = .5080$; $t = 1.4663$; $p = .1438$, *Boot95%CI* (-.2557, 1.7455). Finally, in Model 9, gender was not found as a moderator among communication and organisational commitment ($b = .4973$; $SE = .3128$; $t = 1.5900$; $p = .1131$, *Boot95%CI* (-.1187, 1.1133).

The study proceeded to do further probe to see where the difference lies and the results are illustrated in Figure 11.

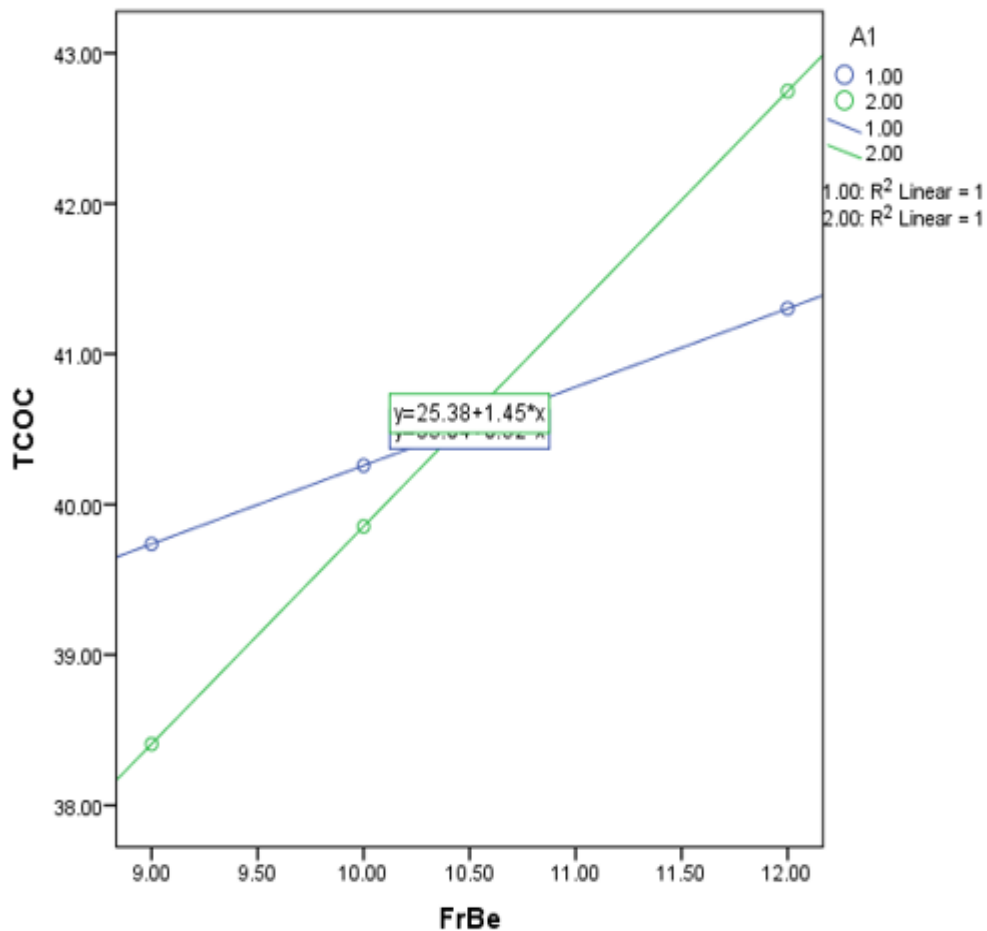


Figure 11: Gender in the Link between Fringe Benefits a Dimension of Job

Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

As shown in Figure 11, the link between fringe benefits and organisational commitment was positive for females and negative for males. This implies that, on one hand, as the fringe benefits of females increased from 9 to 12, their organisational commitment also increased from 38.02 to 43. On the other hand, as the fringe benefits of males increased from 9 to 12, their organisational commitment decreased from 41 to 39.08. These results generally mean that as female tutors benefit from the fringe, their organisational commitment is enhanced. Male tutors, however, experience a decline in organisational commitment as they benefit from the fringe. The implication is that gender significantly moderates the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

4.10 Discussion

4.10.1 Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The results in hypothesis one aim to test whether ethical leadership could predict the job satisfaction of tutors. The results were in two folds. The first part looked at the sub-dimensions of ethical leadership as predictors of sub-dimensions of job satisfaction and the second part looked at the prediction of the total construct of ethical leadership on the total construct of job satisfaction. The results revealed that using the sub-dimensions only, ethics in decision making a dimension of ethical leadership predicted supervision a sub-dimension of job satisfaction. Ethics in decision-making again (ethical leadership) predicted fringe benefits (job satisfaction). The rest of the ethical leadership dimensions were not predictors of the sub-dimension of the job satisfaction dimensions. The study further revealed that the total construct of ethical leadership influenced the total construct of job satisfaction. The results imply that ethical leadership influenced tutors' job satisfaction. It can therefore be concluded that ethical leadership may affect job

satisfaction. This supports the notion that there is a strong correlation between ethical leadership and employee job satisfaction, according to Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005). This is because an ethical leader "disciplines wrongdoers, treats their followers fairly and considerately, and demonstrates transformational leadership style." The results maintain this position that fostering an ethical environment should be a key strategy for improving employees' connections with their jobs, and positive teacher attitudes and behaviours are early indicators of improved job performance (Tanner, Brügger, Van Schie & Lebherz, 2010).

The findings are consistent with a study by Semra (2016) that looked at administrators' servant leadership and ethical leadership behaviours and their ability to influence teachers' job satisfaction. The mean score, standard deviation figures, Pearson's product-moment correlation, and multiple regression analysis were all used to analyse the data. Correlation analyses revealed that servant leadership had a negative relationship with ethical leadership and job satisfaction. All dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction had a negative relationship. However, Job satisfaction was positively related to ethical leadership.

The outcomes are consistent with those of Melis, Vural and Zejnepe (2017), who investigate how ethical leadership affects teachers' job satisfaction. The researchers argue that ethical leadership behaviours raise teachers' levels of satisfaction. The data was gathered from 224 administrative workers in Turkey's Central Province Municipalities and Konya Greater Municipality. SEM analysis findings show that ethical leadership behaviours have a positive impact on teachers' level of job satisfaction. In terms of ethical leadership and job satisfaction, this research's findings are comparable to those of Sedat, Bekir, and Ali (2015), Canan, Engül, Yılmaz and Köksal (2014), and Alptekin and Emre

(2013). Their findings demonstrated that ethical leadership has a positive impact on workers' job satisfaction. When ethical leadership behaviours increase, job satisfaction increases.

4.10.2 Ethical Leadership and Organisational Commitment

The results in hypothesis two revealed that ethics in decision-making a sub-dimension of ethical leadership predicted continuance commitment a sub-dimension of organisational commitment. The rest of the ethical leadership sub-dimensions were not predictors of sub-dimensions of organisational commitment. When the total construct of the dimension was merged, ethical leadership did not predict or influence organisational commitment. The results concluded that ethical leadership was not a predictor of organisational commitment. The results do not support the notion of Ferdig, (2007), who argues that when leaders become aware of their efforts in the surroundings, they become role models of environmentally responsible behaviour, resulting in stimulating behaviours of employees such as organisational commitment.

The results contradict that of Akter, Uddin, Hossain and Parveen (2016), who examine the relationship between ethical leadership and organisational commitment in a railway company in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The findings showed that organisational commitment standards are significantly impacted by ethical leadership. The research further showed that ethical leadership predicted employees' effectiveness, continuance, normative and above all commitment.

The findings contradict the study of Jibrin, Koharuddin, Fauzi, Azhar-Bin, Sabo, Mutawalli and Abubakar (2021), which looked at the relationship between ethical leadership and academic staff members' organisational commitment in Nigerian public universities. The study employed a quantitative research approach in which academic

staff members were given survey questionnaires. For the analysis, 196 samples in total were used. The results indicated that ethical leadership has a positive and significant relationship with organisational commitment. The findings could stem from the fact that principal leaders have a high level of organisational commitment. So, it was not surprising that ethical leaders influenced their organisational commitment.

4.10.3 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

The results in hypothesis three revealed that communication a sub-dimension of job satisfaction predicted affective commitment a dimension of organisational commitment. Again, the results revealed that coworkers and communication (job satisfaction) predicted normative commitment (organisational commitment). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment were related when the total construct of the respective dimensions was combined. The findings are consistent with Martin and Kaufman's (2013) assertion that job satisfaction is a key determinant of an employee's level of commitment to their employer and that low job satisfaction may result in lower levels of commitment at work. The degree of job satisfaction of tutors has a significant impact on their commitment to their employment. Chaulagain and Khadka (2012) and Ganu and Kogutu (2014) also made comparable findings. According to these authors, those who are satisfied in their jobs exhibit positive traits like greater performance, improved workflow, increased productivity, and stronger commitment.

The findings are consistent with a study by Odoch and Nangoli (2014), who found a strong correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction in Uganda's higher education institutions. To examine the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among workers in the private sector, Dalkrani and Dimitriadis (2018) employed correlation and regression analysis. Employee commitment was found to be positively impacted by job satisfaction as evaluated by the workplace

and job characteristics. Promotions and rewards, however, did not significantly influence organisational commitment.

The findings corroborate Kelly's (2015) study, which looked at organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and the connection between commitment and satisfaction. With 62 commissioned officers making up the sample, a quantitative non-probability convenience sampling design was adopted. According to the study's findings, respondents exhibited relatively low levels of organisational commitment across all three components. A statistically significant and strong positive association between organisational commitment and job satisfaction was also found, according to the research's findings. The results could be attributed to the fact that organisations that pay attention to their employees' needs and desires, as well as allow for the exchange of ideas and information among their employees, will positively affect the level of job satisfaction among their employees, which is a critical factor in achieving organisational commitment. A high level of job satisfaction will increase organisational commitment among all employees and the organisation's ability to retain its upstanding employees.

4.10.4 Organisational Commitment, Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The findings of hypothesis four showed that organisational commitment significantly moderated the relationship between ethical leadership and tutors' job satisfaction. The findings suggest that organisational commitment has an impact on the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Thus, the prediction of job satisfaction is moderated by organisational commitment. The findings corroborate Celik, Dedeoglu and Inanir's (2015) study, which examined the association between ethical leadership and job satisfaction among staff members of four- and five-star hotels and investigated the partial mediator effect of organisational commitment. The results showed that there is not much of a relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. However, when

organisational commitment and ethical leadership are combined, ethical leaders increase organisational commitment, which in turn increases employee job satisfaction.

The findings are also in line with those of Sedat, Bekir and Nanir (2015), who look at how ethical leadership style, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction are related in the hotel industry as well as how organisational commitment functions as a mediator between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. 371 employees of four- and five-star hotels in Antalya, Turkey, participated in the survey. According to the research, ethical leadership positively impacts organisational commitment and work satisfaction, and organisational commitment positively impacts job satisfaction. Additionally, it was found that organisational commitment acts as a partial mediator between ethical leadership and fulfilment at work. It can thus be stated that when tutors demonstrate high levels of organisational commitment when principals exhibit good ethical behaviours at work, tutors will experience promotion, pay, and fringe benefits.

4.10.5 Gender, Ethical Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The study results revealed that gender moderated the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Further probes also showed that female tutors dominated or scored more on ethical leadership than their male counterparts. The study result implies that ethical leadership and job satisfaction differ for both female and male tutors where female tutors dominated more than male tutors. The outcomes support the notion that, in the workplace, men and women play different roles (Colley & Comber, 2003). Males typically exhibit agentic behaviour patterns, which cause them to act in a competitive and goal-oriented way. However, females typically exhibit social behaviour patterns that influence them to act in a nurturing and socially focused way to foster their strong ties with others, receive social support, and contribute to their emotions of belonging. Furthermore, females tend to engage in interpersonal and cooperative behaviours more frequently through

communal behaviour patterns (Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris & Zivnuska, 2011; Kidder, 2002).

The findings are consistent with those of Karakuş (2018), who looks at how teachers' degrees of organisational commitment and principals' ethical leadership behaviours vary by teachers' age and gender. A sample of 403 primary school teachers (199 females and 204 men) were given the scales. The means of the male and female groups with normal scores for each group, together with the correlation matrices, were used in a multi-group evaluation using the Maximum Likelihood approach. Results demonstrated that the ethical leadership behaviours of their school principals had a significant influence on the organisational commitment levels of both male and female teachers. However, ethical leadership behaviours had a stronger impact on the commitment levels of female teachers. Also, the older male teachers had more negative perceptions of their principals' ethical leadership behaviours than their younger counterparts.

4.10.6 Gender, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

The study results revealed that the role of gender moderated the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. To examine where the difference lies, further investigation showed that female tutors dominated or scored more on job satisfaction than their male counterparts. The study result implies that job satisfaction and organisational commitment differ for both female and male tutors where female tutors dominated more than male tutors.

The results are in line with, Aytac (2015) who discovered that female teachers had higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Eleswed and Mohamed (2013) also found that job satisfaction tends to be higher for women and rises with age. The results are also in line with Jackson, Albertis and Snipes (2014), who examine how gender may

affect the job satisfaction of staff. These authors indicate that higher levels of job satisfaction were a result of gender parity between managers and staff. Therefore, when working for male managers, male staff expressed greater job satisfaction, and when working for female managers, female employees expressed greater job satisfaction.

The results are again consistent with those of a study conducted by Verma, Bhal, and Vrat (2013) who suggested that gender inequalities in job satisfaction exist as a result of variations in the methods by which firms treat their staff. Women have higher levels of job satisfaction and are usually at par with men in organisations that use gender-sensitive procedures. The level of job satisfaction for women is frequently lower than the level of job satisfaction for males in organisations that do not implement gender-sensitive policies. Family-friendly rules, adaptable work hours, and job sharing are examples of gender-sensitive practices. The authors proposed that certain practices, such as reducing stress help female employees meet family responsibilities and this has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

The results contradict the findings of Mondal (2014), who discovered no statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female teachers. In a study of the relationship between gender and job satisfaction among higher education administrators, no statistically significant differences were discovered (Yazici & Altun, 2013; Howard-Baldwin, Celik & Kraska, 2012).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights the study's summary, conclusions, and recommendations. The summary covers the study's primary objective, essential methodology issues, and key findings. The conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and finally, recommendations and areas for further research are suggested in the chapter.

5.1 Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the ethical leadership of principals, tutor job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Ghanaian colleges of education. The study was guided by six hypotheses as indicated in chapter one. A cross-sectional survey was adopted for the study with the quantitative approach which was anchored in the positivist paradigm. The study used a sample size of 319 but the response rate that was gathered from the field was 250. As a result, 250 were used in the analysis. The instruments used for data gathering were questionnaires. Three sets of questionnaires were used namely; an ethical leadership questionnaire, a job satisfaction scale, and an organisational commitment scale. These instruments were pre-tested using CoE tutors who were not part of the sample selected for the study. The reliability estimates for the various instruments with the pre-test have been spelt out under the validation section of this write-up. Inferential statistical tools such as multivariate multiple regression, SEM, and PROCESS analysis were used. Also, descriptive statistics comprising simple frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation were used in the study. Keenly, the focus of the study was on ethical leadership and job satisfaction, ethical leadership and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, moderating role of organisational commitment on the link between ethical leadership and

job satisfaction, the role of gender in the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction, the role of gender in the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

1. From the study, the results revealed that the sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, and behavioural ethics) were not predictors of sub-dimensions of job satisfaction. However, ethics in decision-making a sub-dimension of ethical leadership was a substantial predictor of supervision and fringe benefits sub-dimensions of job satisfaction. When the total construct of ethical leadership was merged it predicted the total construct of job satisfaction of CoE tutors in Ghana.
2. The results again revealed that the sub-dimensions of ethical leadership (communicative ethics, climatic ethics, and behavioural ethics) were not predictors of sub-dimensions of organisational commitment. However, ethics in decision-making a sub-dimension of ethical leadership was a substantial predictor of continuance commitment a sub-dimension of organisational commitment. When the total construct of ethical leadership was put together it did not predict the total construct of organisational commitment of CoE tutors in Ghana.
3. The results revealed that the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction (promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworker, and nature of work) were not predictors of sub-dimensions of organisational commitment. However, pay and communication sub-dimension of job satisfaction were significant predictors of affective commitment a sub-dimension of organisational commitment. Again, communication (job satisfaction) was a predictor of normative commitment. When the total construct of job satisfaction

was put together it predicted the total construct of organisational commitment of CoE tutors in Ghana.

4. The study results revealed that organisational commitment moderated the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction.
5. The study again showed that gender moderated the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction of CoE tutors in Ghana, with females dominating more than male tutors.
6. The final hypothesis revealed that gender was a significant moderator between job satisfaction and organisational commitment of CoE tutors in Ghana.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions were reached based on the study's findings:

Ethical leadership was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, according to the study's findings. The study suggests that principal leaders who have a great impact on workers commonly exercise certain leadership practices on followers. Per these practices, principal leaders aim to make the work itself satisfactory for the tutors. The reason behind this is that as long as an individual is satisfied, it is anticipated that he or she will perform better. Besides, the job satisfaction level will be further increased by certain leadership behaviours that foster an ethical culture in an institution.

The study also revealed that ethical leadership did not predict the organisational commitment of tutors. It can be concluded that ethical leadership can transform tutors' commitment to work which can lead to a positive impact on tutors' productivity. When leaders cannot influence their followers positively, tutors' productivity becomes low. When this happens, tutors put up negative attitudes and behaviours.

Job satisfaction predicted the organisational commitment of tutors. It can be concluded that a high level of job satisfaction will increase the level of organisational commitment among all tutors, and will increase the institution's ability in keeping their upstanding tutors.

The study revealed that organisational commitment moderated the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. It can be concluded that the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction is moderated or influenced by organisational commitment. For principal leaders to make work satisfactory for tutors to perform better is influenced or moderated by the tutors' commitment to work. Again, gender moderated the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. It is suggested that the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction was moderated by gender. The implication is that ethical leadership and job satisfaction differ concerning gender, where ethical leadership was positive for females it was negative for males. Female tutors scored more than their male tutors.

Gender also moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It can be concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was moderated by gender. Thus, gender differences in terms of job satisfaction, where female tutors dominated more than their male counterparts.

The study addressed major research gaps. These include; contextual factors such as geographical location, which impact the link between ethical leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Another gap narrowed by this study is individual-level analysis. Many studies concentrate on the link between ethical leadership and teachers' job satisfaction indicating individual-level analysis. This study takes a step further by including another construct and thus working on multi-level analysis. While other

theoretical frameworks have been offered to explain the link between ethical leadership and employee outcomes, this study used an integrated theoretical framework based on the constructs.

The theoretical, practical and methodological novelty as well as contributions of ethical leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment research in colleges of education contribute to the theoretical understanding of leadership and employee attitudes within educational institutions. This research provides insights into how ethical leadership practices can impact job satisfaction and organisational commitment among tutors. It explores the relationships, mechanisms and factors involved in creating an ethical work environment that promotes job satisfaction and organisational commitment, specifically in the context of colleges of education in Ghana. The theoretical novelty lies in examining these variables within the unique setting of education, which may have distinct characteristics and dynamics compared to other sectors.

The practical novelty of examining these constructs in colleges of education stems from their ability to improve educational institutions' overall efficacy and functioning. Colleges may adopt approaches and interventions that build a healthy work environment and increase job satisfaction and organisational commitment among tutors by understanding how ethical leadership practices impact employee attitudes. This research may also be used to help build leadership training programmes that are adapted to the unique demands of educational settings, supporting ethical and effective leadership practices that have a beneficial influence on work attitudes and outcomes.

The methodological novelty in studying ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment in CoE in Ghana involves the application of research methods and measurement tools in an educational context. Researchers may adopt both

quantitative and qualitative approaches to understand the complex relationships and dynamics involved. This could involve surveying tutors to gather data on their perceptions of ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Furthermore, qualitative methods such as interviews and focus groups discussion may be utilised to acquire in-depth insights into the experiences and viewpoints of principals, tutors and other college personnel concerning these variables. The methodological approaches applied in this research contribute to the broader methods and measurement literature within organisational behaviour and leadership studies, with specific focus on the educational sector.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions the following recommendations were offered:

1. The study recommends that principal leaders in the colleges of education should foster an ethical environment in their institution, potentially by providing relevant ethics and soft skills training such as positivity, communication, delegation, problem-solving, empathy, and strong ethics among others to their employees in their day-to-day encounter with staff, particularly tutors. By creating an ethical work environment and getting to know their subordinates, leaders may be able to greatly increase everyone's job satisfaction while decreasing turnover rates and increasing productivity.
2. The study recommends that the principals and the governing councils at the colleges of education should use methods such as good role models, improving their relations with tutors, and establishing trust and mutual respect during meetings and other engagements with tutors. With this, tutors at the colleges of education will increase their organisational commitment and will prevent them from quitting work.

3. The study recommends that the principals as well as the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC) should look at avenues to increase the job satisfaction levels of tutors. They need to focus on factors affecting the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (job satisfaction) of their tutors which include, sufficient compensation, incentives, and acknowledgement for their efforts. Again, job security, physical work environment, resource availability, and technology. This may be done during workshops and seminars, allowing teachers to write down what needs to be done to increase their job satisfaction and commitment to the college.
4. The study recommends that principals and the governing councils need to consider factors that affect tutors' commitment to the college. This includes tutors perceiving their leaders as having high ethical standards and integrity, a positive and supportive organisational culture that values tutors' contributions and encourages collaboration, granting tutors a certain level of autonomy and decision-making power and providing opportunities for tutors to collaborate and support one another.
5. The study recommends that principals need to be aware of the things that tend to be related to the satisfaction of men such as job autonomy and meaningful work as well as inclusive workplace culture through interactions and discussions, as male tutors score less than their female counterparts on gender in the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. For instance, the link between fringe benefits and organisational commitment was negative for male tutors. This implies that, while the fringe benefits of males increased their organisational commitment decreased.

6. The study recommends that principals need to be aware of the things that tend to be related to the satisfaction of women and implement them (eg. open communication and feedback and equal opportunities) as female tutors score more than their male counterparts on gender in the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The results mean that as female tutors benefit from the fringe, their organisational commitment is enhanced.

Areas for further research

More research is needed to examine mediation analysis looking at how organisational commitment can play a mediating role between ethical leadership and job satisfaction.

Again, future studies should look into novel ways to increase tutor commitment and the relationship between tutor commitment and other parameters like retention and graduation rates.

Future researchers can use interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis as qualitative approaches in addition to quantitative means to delve into these areas.

The study can be replicated in various public sector institutions such as the health sector, the security services and others to enhance work life and productivity.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COLLEGE OF EDUCATION TUTORS

As part of my Ph.D. thesis, I am conducting research on ethical leadership, job satisfaction, and commitment. Thus, the primary objective of this questionnaire is to collect pertinent data for this research project. As such, you are kindly requested to complete the questionnaire based on the information for the study. The study's success is entirely dependent on your candid and genuine responses to each question. Each piece of information you give will only be used for educational purposes and will be kept private at all times.

Instruction: Please provide the appropriate response as frankly as possible. Tick boldly against the responses which are applicable.

SECTION A

BACKGROUND / DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender: Male [] Female []

Please respond to the following statement on the level of application of principals' ethical leadership behaviours. Indicate the extent to which you Strongly Disagree-1, Disagree-2, No idea -3, Agree- 4, Strongly Agree-5.

SECTION B

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

Statement (Ethical leadership)		SD	D	No idea	A	SA
Communicative Ethics – My college principal...		1	2	3	4	5
1.	accepts his/her faults.					
2.	does not demonstrate selfish behaviours.					
3.	behaves justly to his/her staff.					
4.	participates in discussions constructively and tactfully.					
5.	is patient.					
6.	is humble.					
7.	behaves equally to everyone.					
8.	behaves kindly to all his/her staff.					
9.	behaves passionately to all his/her staff.					
10.	shows respect to others.					
11.	is not seditious among tutors.					
12.	is compassionate.					
13.	behaves sincerely to his/her staff.					
14.	does not judge his/her staff because of their personal characteristics.					
15.	has a feeling of gratitude for services done to him/her.					

Climatic Ethics - My college principal...		1	2	3	4	5
16.	encourages his/her staff.					
17.	tries to propagate his/her own ideas through an approach based on love.					
18.	determines concrete objectives for the future.					
19.	is willing to learn.					
20.	accepts the different ideas of his/her staff.					
21.	rewards the achievements of his/her staff justly.					
22.	establishes the rules of the college accurately.					
23.	creates free environment for discussion.					
24.	strives to increase his/her professional efficiency.					
25.	carries out his/her duty with a sense of responsibility.					
26.	creates the appropriate environment to reveal the creativity of his/her staff.					
Ethics in Decision-Making - My college principal...		1	2	3	4	5
27.	is systematic in finding solutions.					
28.	never tries to take advantage of political issues.					

29.	never tries to take advantage of religious issues.					
30.	never tries to take advantage of fiscal matters.					
31.	carries out his/her duties with honesty.					
32.	applies the common decisions efficiently.					
33.	determines the limits in college matters.					
34.	does not have negative habits.					
35.	knows the limits of his/her deeds.					
Behavioral Ethics - My college principal...		1	2	3	4	5
36.	can self-evaluate.					
37.	behaves honestly.					
38.	behaves courageously.					
39.	always tells the truth in all conditions.					
40.	is knowledgeable.					
41.	acts upon the principle of reality.					
42.	protects individual rights.					
43.	respects the values of the college community.					

SECTION C

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Statement		SD	D	No idea	A	SA
(Job satisfaction)						
Pay		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I feel I am being paid a fair salary for the work I do.					
2.	Raises are too few and far between.					
3.	I feel satisfied with my chances for a salary increases.					
Promotion		1	2	3	4	5
4.	There is too little chance for promotion in my job.					
5.	Communication for promotion seems good within the college.					
6.	I have too much paperwork to do for promotion in the college.					
Supervision		1	2	3	4	5
7.	My principal is quite competent in doing his/her job.					
8.	My principal is unfair to me.					
9.	My principal shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.					
10.	I like my principal.					

Fringe benefits		1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.					
12.	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.					
13.	The benefits package we have is equitable.					
14.	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.					
Contingent rewards		1	2	3	4	5
15.	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.					
16.	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.					
17.	There are few rewards for those who work here.					
18.	I do not feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.					
Operating conditions		1	2	3	4	5
19.	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.					
20.	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.					
21.	I have too much to do at work.					
Coworkers		1	2	3	4	5
22.	I like the people I work with.					

23.	I think I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of other workers.					
24.	I enjoy my coworkers.					
Nature of work		1	2	3	4	5
25.	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.					
26.	I like doing the things I do at work.					
27.	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.					
28.	My job is enjoyable.					
Communication		1	2	3	4	5
29.	Communications seem good within the organisation.					
30.	The goals of this college are not clear to me.					
31.	I often feel that I do not know what is going on within the college.					
32.	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.					

SECTION D

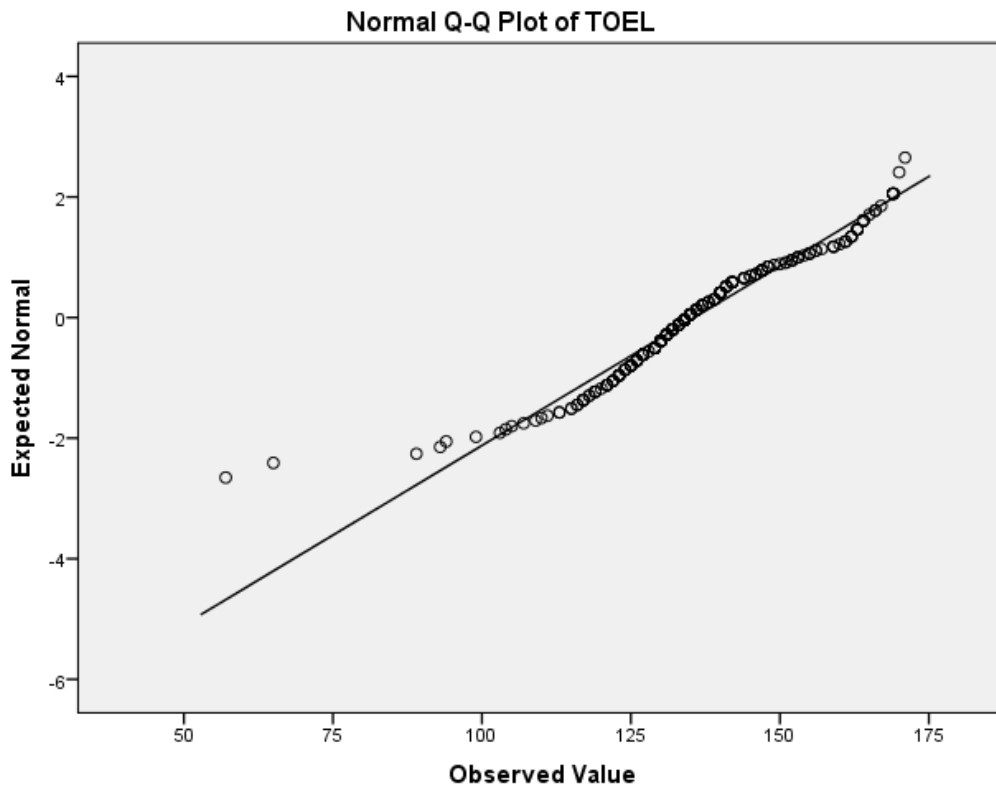
Organisational Commitment

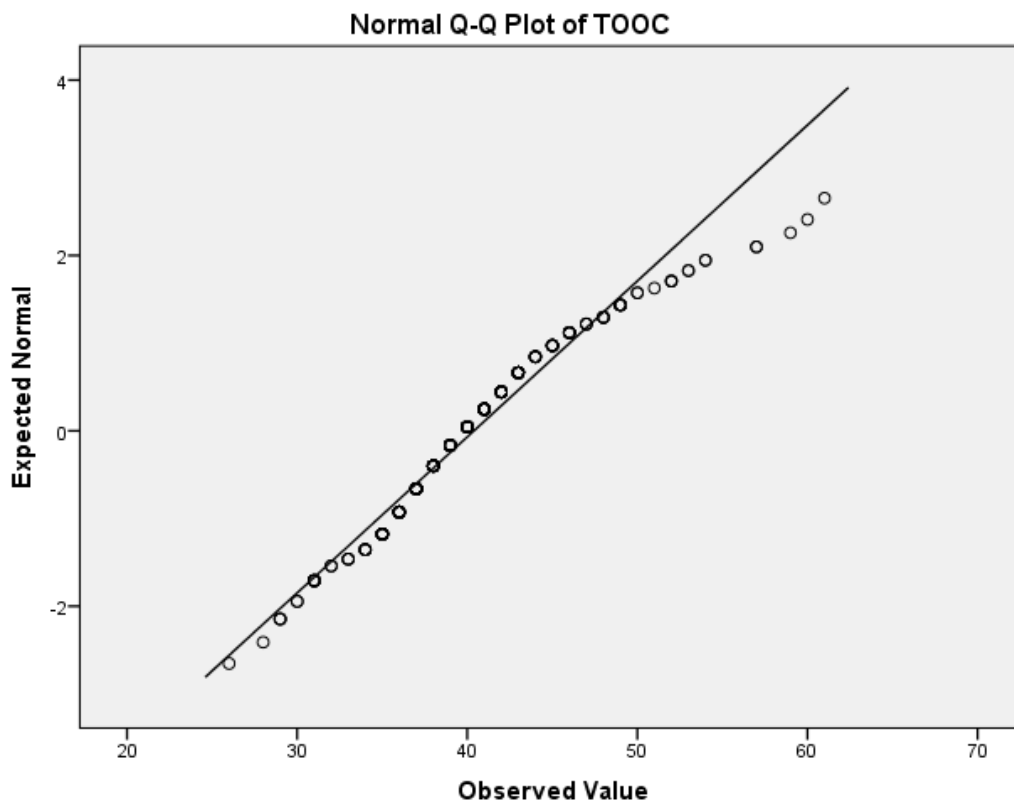
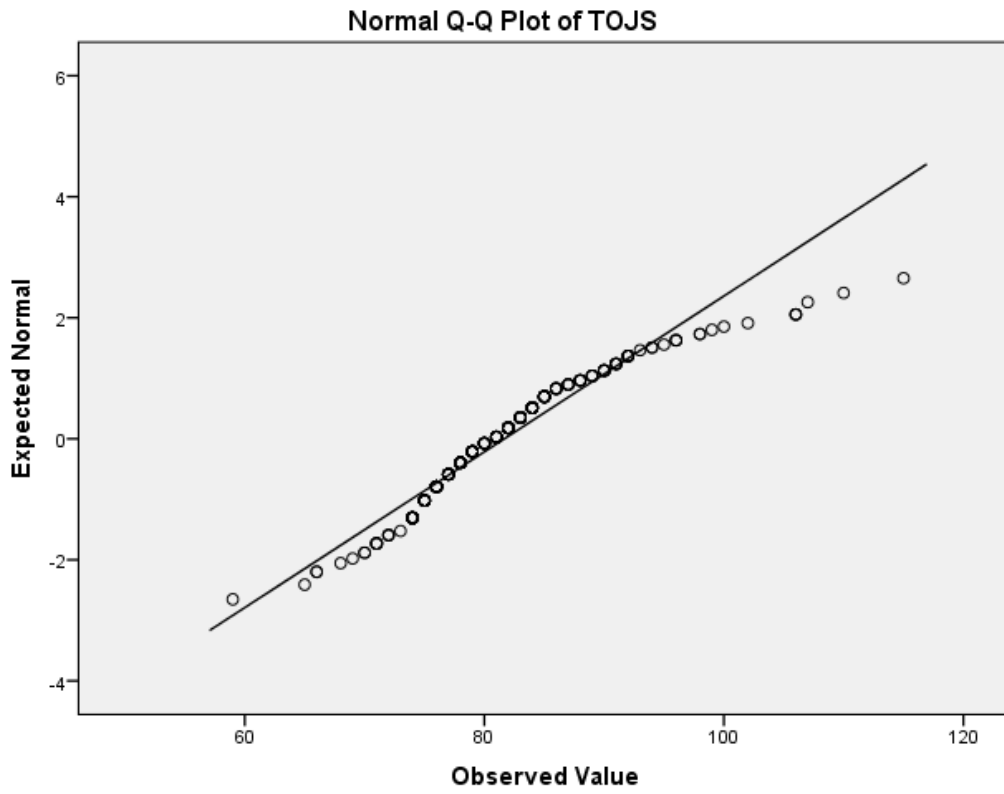
Affective Commitment (Statements)		SD	D	No idea	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this college.					
2.	I enjoy discussing my college with people outside.					
3.	I really feel as if this college's problems are my own.					
4.	I think that I could easily become as attached to another college as I am to this one.					
5.	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my college.					
6.	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this college.					
7.	This college has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
8.	I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my college.					
Continuance Commitment		1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.					
10.	It would be very hard for me to leave my college right now, even if I wanted to.					

11.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my college now.					
12.	It would not be too costly for me to leave my college now.					
13.	Right now, staying with my college is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
14.	I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this college.					
15.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this college would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
16.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this college is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another college may not match the overall benefits I have here.					
Normative Commitment		1	2	3	4	5
17.	I think that people these days move from college to other organisations too often.					
18.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation.					
19.	Jumping from one organisation to another to me is ethical.					

20.	One of the major reasons I continue to work in this college is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.					
21.	If I get another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my college.					
22.	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.					
23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed in one college for most of their career.					
24.	I do not think that to be a 'college man' or 'college woman' is sensible anymore.					

APPENDIX B





APPENDIC C



**AKENTEN
APPIAH-MENKA
UNIVERSITY**
*of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial
Development*

**FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

11th April, 2022

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

MR. ROBERT AMPOMAH

The bearer of this note, **Mr. Robert Ampomah** (Index Number: 9201770008), is a postgraduate student of Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development, Kumasi, pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) programme in Educational Leadership.

As part of the requirement for the award of the PhD degree, **Mr. Ampomah** is collecting data for his thesis on the topic "**Ethical Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of Colleges of Education Tutors in Ghana.**"

I would appreciate any courtesies that you could extend to enable him gather the data.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

**STEPHEN BAFFOUR ADJEI, PHD
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT**



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