CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the Study

Workers' commitment is widely conceived as a key factor in the relationship between employees and organisations. Mowday (1998); and Gilbert and Ivancevich (1999), all perceive workers' commitment as a factor that promotes the attachment of an employee to his or her organisation. Employees are regarded as committed to an organisation if they willingly continue their association with the organisation and devote considerable effort to achieving organisational goals. Mowday (1998) argue that the high levels of effort exerted by employees with high levels of organisational commitment would lead to higher levels of performance and effectiveness at both individual and organisational levels.

The need for high workers' commitment is an important issue in any organisation. This is because an employee who is committed to his or her organisation is likely to be productive, stable and always strive towards fulfilling the needs of the organisation as opposed to those who are less committed (Larkey and Morrill, 1995). Employee commitment is central and vital to productivity, quality and good performance of an organisation. It is an attitude which can influence an individual's reaction towards his or her organisation and also seen as having a direct relationship with low employee turn-over and productivity (Bateman and Strasser, 1984).

As regards commitment of Nigerian workers, there is divergence of opinions among researchers. Some believed that Nigerian workers are not committed to their organisations (Salami and Omole, 2005; Olugbile, 1996). Others believed that they are committed to organisational goals but that the organisations do not show commitment to the plight of their workers (Karasick, 1973). They believe that organisational commitment reflects one side of the reciprocal relationship between the employer and the employee and as such each party has to play its role.

Organisations need committed workers in order to face worldwide economic competition. Unfortunately, there is insufficient research efforts on linking personal and psychological characteristics of workers to organisational commitment. Instead, most research efforts had been focused on linking situational factors such as job characteristics and organisational characteristics to workers' commitment (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). Notably, some researchers found that workers' commitment is a function of several variables such as job satisfaction, motivation, participative decision-making, organisational support, financial reward, communication, promotion prospects and leadership styles (Brown, 2003; Salami and Omole, 2005).

There are four types of workers' commitment: "Want to", "have to", "ought to" and "Uncommit" (Karasick, 1973). The first type comprises employees who commit themselves to an organisation or employer(s) voluntarily. They are usually dedicated and always strife to do their best for their employers. They are prepared and willing to accept new responsibilities just to serve their employers. They also have positive behaviours and perceptions towards things related to their work. This type of workers is most liked by an employer.

The second type comprises employees who feel obliged to give commitment to their organisation or employer. This type of workers normally feel trapped in situations which force them to be commited to their work. There are various factors which may contribute to such a situation. These include failure to get employment somewhere else, family problems, nearing retirement and health. In some situations, they could choose to leave their job but they feel that they cannot afford to do so. This normally results in them doing their work under stress/pressure which leads to the feeling of dissatisfaction, low productivity and negative behaviours. They also create a lot of problems to their supervisors and employers.

The third type comprises employees who feel that it is their responsibility or obligation to offer commitment to their organisation. This type of employees feel that they are obliged to do whatever that is asked by their employer. This sense of obligation tends to occur with employees who desperately need the job offered them by their

employers. The fourth type comprises employees who lack commitment. Majority of them are not satisfied with or have a negative perception towards their organisation or employer. They actively look for opportunities to work somewhere else and they tend to work half-heartedly for their organisation. Most of them have intentions to quit or change job. Apart from the above, there are some other organisational factors such as organisational size, leadership style, organisational culture and human resources management practices that influence salary, career prospect and possibilities for further education, which could be deliberately manipulated by an organisation to influence the level of commitment of their employees.

Gender, usually associated with individual being male and female is a pertinent factor considered in this study with respect to workers' commitment in organisations. It refers to the socially acceptable norms, roles, values and beliefs for men and women, according to Social Sciences and Reproductive Health Research Network (SSRHRN) (2005). Some social scientists contended that perceiving people in terms of gender group membership is due to the different biological make-up of the sexes. In contrast, others argued that it is a function of socialisation, cognitive labelling and different social roles assigned to men and women (Franzoi, 1996). Socio-biological theorists basically argued that human beings have evolved in such a way that their genes have passed on to their off-springs along with their gene traits.

In the management of tertiary institutions, gender relations seem to occur in roles and positions like the female secretary to a male boss (Okeke, 2004; Brehm and Kassin, 1996). Generally, both men and women prefer having a man in positions of authority (Rudman and Kilianski, 2000). They claim for instance that passengers on a plane may feel more at home with a male pilot in the cockpit while patients feel more comfortable with a male surgeon. Individuals are more likely to link low authority roles to women and high to men. As a result, women are hired, promoted and compensated at rates significantly less than men (Moore and Shackman, 1996). Certainly, when women look for role models in high status positions they are few and far between unlike men who have many.

According to Rudman and Kilianski (2000), the gender gap in leadership positions is as a result of very strong power differences between men and women. The gap has prevailed throughout history and across cultures and has its roots in traditional labour division that credited men with occupational roles and women with domestic roles (Udegbe, 2003; Eagly, Wood and Dickman, 2000). The gender role hypothesis states that traditional labour division is a fundamental cause of gender inequities (Eagly, 1987). According to this hypothesis, if gender operates as an indication of legitimacy, men may be accorded more prestige simply by virtue of being male.

Fiske (1998) supports the notion that the association of leadership skills with men is as a result of gender stereotypes. Since gender is one of the most obvious differences between men and women, expectations are informed according to traditional stereotypes. Even if women behave like men, they would still be perceived differently as regards their leadership competence. One reason for this biased perception according to Schein (1973) is that the description of a successful manager is significantly correlated with the description of a typical man than the description of a typical woman. Thus, Schein (1973) explains that due to the high ratio of men to women in managerial jobs, these jobs are classified as a masculine occupation. Further, it appears that managerial jobs would require personal attributes that are associated with men than with women. Schein (1973) refers to this phenomenon as "think manager, think male". She conducted several studies on managerial sex role stereotyping. Her findings reveal that "think management, think male" was a strongly held belief among middle managers in the United States. She observes that both male and female managers perceived management characteristics to be more likely found in men than by women. She argues that as long as this attitude remains unchecked by structural limitations, a decision-maker will favour a male over a female candidate for the same position. Thus, managerial sex role stereotyping could be "a cause of bias against women in managerial selection, placement, promotion and training decisions." If this occurs, it may jeopadise the morale of female workers and consequently affects their commitment which in turn will affect their productivity.

In a worldwide assessment of women in management, Biernat and Kobrynowizc (1997) surmise that the single most important hurdle for women in all industrialised countries is the persistent stereotype that associates management with being male. According to them, if managerial positions are viewed as "masculine" then a male candidate appears more qualified as a result of sex typing of the position than a female candidate. In a replication of Schein's (1973) study, (Smith, 2002) finds that for males, there was a large and significant similarity between the ratings of men and managers, while there was a near–zero non-significant similarity between women and managers. For female managers, there was a large and significant similarity between the rating of men and the ratings of managers. There was also a similarity between the ratings of females and the ratings of managers. Thus, for males, the findings were consistent with Schein (1973) but for females, the findings show that there were no significant differences. Female managers' attitudes differed from those of their earlier counterparts while male managers' attitudes were consistent with those of their earlier counterparts. Brenner, Tomkiewiez and Schein (1989) explain that this outcome appears to be as a result of "a changed view of women, rather than a change in perceptions of men or perceptions of requirements for managerial success.

Heilman (1983) explains how the "think manger, think male" stereotype is generated using a "lack of fit model". The reasoning behind the model is that stereotypic conceptions of women and qualities required for leadership positions produces "a lack of fit" perception between women and high ranking jobs. Gender stereotypes and the expectations they produce about how women are like, which she terms descriptive, and how women should behave, which she terms prescriptive, can result in "devaluation of their performance, denial of credit for their successes or penalisation for being competent". Choi (1998) argues that being competent does not ensure that women would rise to the same organisational level as an equally performing man. This is as a result of the gender system being strongly fused with social hierarchy and leadership as gender stereotypes which contain status beliefs associated with greater status worthiness and competence with men rather than with women.

As a result of this belief, women are thought to be less competent and less worthy to hold leadership positions and it is men that have legitimate claims to leadership positions. It is this perceived inconsistency between the stereotyped conceptions of what a woman is like and what executive management positions involve that result in biased evaluation of women in work settings. It leads to expectations that women will be unable to perform such jobs effectively. Heilman (1983) is convinced that the effects of gender stereotypes continue to obstruct women's climb up the organisational ladder.

Mention could be made of some notable women in different spheres of life who have made their marks in administration and leadership. Typical examples include Professsor (Mrs) Jadesola Akande (an academic woman in university administrtaion) and Professor Grace Awari Alele Williams, the formerVice Chancellor of the University of Benin.

These two eminent Nigerians encountered a lot of intractable problems in their bid to put things right within the purview and context of university administration. They were more often than not misunderstood by their immediate subordinates. However, their mission became glaringly acceptable to their audience after awhile. Although they were regarded as highly experienced in their callings, there have always been misgivings from those they were dealing directly with as a result of their gender. The general misconception is that nothing good could come from women's administration. However, the duo did well and were duly acknowledged as good administrators and their leadership style commended by their immediate constituencies (i.e the universities) and the generality of the people. Despite their positive contributions to administration in Nigeria, Professor (Mrs) Jadesola Akande suffered considerably because of her gender. Nonetheless, she prevailed over her tribulations (Sunday Punch, June 18, 2000).

Akin to the above, Professor (Mrs.) Grace Awari Alele Williams faced serious challenges which are not unconnected with her gender. She was alleged of "high handedness" in the administration of the university. Though, she was educationally qualified for the post but there was gender discrimination from her counterparts who criticised her style of leadership, describing her policies as unorthodox, her

administration bordering on fascism and dictatorship. She was also accused of turning the university into her personal estate and that her administrator lacked horizontal and vertical communication channels. A vote of no confidence was cast on her; she was called upon to resign by some ASUU members. In spite of the above-mentioned challenges and many more that she encountered, she governed the University of Benin as a Vice Chancellor for good eight years and within those years she successfully gave a good account of stewardship and good reputation to the university (Nkechi, 2006).

At all levels of organisation each situation is a learning situation for the leader. Assessment diagnosis of the situation will point to the appropriate leadership behaviour to adopt. Even in a situation where the same behaviour does not yield favourable result, in similar situations the negative response should serve as a feedback. The leader then reassesses the situation in order to adopt a better strategy. The leadership issue in institution of higher learning differs greatly from the business and other public service which may require orientating new persons to take up the role of leadership.

Workers' commitment is apparently a function of gender, leadership style and organisational climate. Workers' commitment is the loyalty to organisation and mobilisation of all employees in the achievement of its goals. The consequences of commitment include retention, attendance and enhanced job productivity. This means that if workers are morally committed to the organisation, the likelihood of retention, consistent attendance at work and increased productivity should be noticed in a worker.

1.2   Statement of the Problem

Observably, workers' commitment in public tertiary institutions in Ogun State leaves much to be desired. This arguably affects their commitment adversely. Foremost, it is apparent that female gender is not well-represented in formal public organizations, particularly in public tertiary institutions. This is against the background that more women are being emplyed in these organisations or institutions. This is worrisome. The problem here is that poor representation at the peak may dampen the morale of humen workers and comsequently affect their commitment which in turn will affect their

productivity. This observation underscores the importance of gender spead at the top most positions in work situations like in public tertiary institutions.

Equally, leadership style is central to workers' commitment. Generally, an inclusive leaderdship style in which workers are carried along in organisational activities and decision-making, always promote workers' commitment. On the other hand, when leadership styles are not inclusive and workers are not readily carried along, they tend to manifest poor commitment to their institutions. Consequently, workers' output will be low. Apparently leadership styles in Nigeria public tertiary institutions are anything but inclusive. This is a pertinent reason for this study.

Further, organisational or institutional climate impacts workers' commitment, ditto their productivity. Expectedly, good working institutional climate will not only raise workers' morale but also their commitment. Whereas, unimpressive working condition will dampen workers' spirit and inevitably result in low workers' commitment. In Nigeria public tertitary institutions, the prevailing working conditions range from poor infractructural actitvities to non-provision of health insurance, car loans and housing facilities. Thus a study of thihs nature is imperative.

Arising from the foregoing, this study seeks to examine gender, leadership style and organisational climate as correlates of workers' commitment in public tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria.

1.3   Objectives of the study

The broad objective is to establish the efficacy or otherwise of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on workers' commimtment in public tertitary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria.

In addition, the following specific objectives will complement the aforestated broad objective. These are to:

1. Ascertain the relationship that exists between gender and Polytechnic workers' commitment.

2. Determine the impact of leadership style on university workers' commitment.

3. Affirm if there is any relationship between organisational climate and university workers' commitment and whether it is positive or negative.

4. Establish the relationship existing between gender and polytechnic workers' commitment.

5. Establish whether or not a relationship exists between leadership style and polytechnic workers' commitment.

6. Determine if there is any relationship between organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment.

7. Ascertain the effects of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment.

8. Establish the relative effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment.

9. Establish the effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment.

10. Determine the relative effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment.

1.4   Research Questions

The study sets out to provide answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the state of organisational climate in each of the universities and polytechnics?

2. What is the level of workers' commitment in each of the universities and polytechnics?

3. Which of the leadership styles is prominent in each of the universities and polytechnics?

4. Is there any significant gender difference between female and male workers' commitment?

1.5   Research Hypotheses

1   There is no significant gender difference between male and female university workers' commitment.

2   There is no significant relationship between leadership style and university workers' commitment.

3   There is no significant relationship between organisational climate and university workers' commitment.

4   There is no significant gender difference between male and female polytechnic workers' commitment.

5   There is no significant relationship between leadership style and polytechnic workers' commitment.

6   There is no significant relationship between organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment.

7   There is no significant combined effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment.

8   There is no significant relative effect(s) of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment.

9   There is no significant effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment.

10 There is no relative effect(s) of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment.

1.6   Significance of the Study

The expected finding of this study should help the institutional administrators, policy- makers in education and the government in general to enhance productivity and performance. This study should also provide a lot of information to institutional administrators in understanding the dynamics existing in organisation especially as they bother on leadership styles which are effective in eliciting workers' commitment. Educational administrators should also find the anticipated research outcome useful as

this may guide them in using the most suitable leadership style irrespective of situation or condition. As a result, insights may be gained on best ways to arouse workers' commitment.

It is assumed that an in-depth understanding between workers and their organisations would further be forged, premised on the discussions to be generated and the expected findings, thereby making ample room for workers' commitment. When this occurs, a profound emotional attachment between the workers and management concerned would further be enhanced, resulting in increased productivity on the part of the workers. It is presumed however, that if the opportunity of commitment proffered by the workers is not properly utilised on the part of management, the opposite of the earlier contention could arise.

Educational administrators and other stakeholders in the realm of education would also have current or contemporary document at their disposal wherever a situation arises that demands for resolving issues about workers and organisation regardless of the trend of policy emanating from any government.

School proprietors or proprietress irrespective of the level of the institution shall also find the study useful in ariving at concrete resolution about the administration of their schools.

1.7   Scope of the Study

The study covered state-owned tertiary institutions in Ogun State, which are: Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-Ode; Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta; Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago- Iwoye and Ogun State and Health Technology, llese. The review of literature was delimited to the relevant concepts and related studies. Attention was focused on gender, organisational climate, leadership styles and workers' commitment. It also examined the teaching and non-teaching staff level of commitment to organisational goal achievement.

1.8   Operational Definition of Terms

Some concepts and terms used in this study have diversified meanings and applications. For clarity, it is necessary to define them as used in this study.

Gender: This is the sex of a person or organism, or of a whole category of people or organisms. In this context, it is a social and cultural construct which describes roles, status, expectation,   relationship and obligations of males and females based on their biological make up.

Leadership: It connotes the ability to lead, guide, direct, or influence people. For this study, it refers to the act of influencing workers to strive willingly for group goals. In essence, it is a process of influencing workers (teaching and non-teaching) towards activities that could lead to organisational goals achievement.

Leadership style: This refers to the pattern of administration adopted by the institutional administrator in dealing with managerial functions in conjunction with the teaching and non-teaching staff under a leader's jurisdiction. Examples are democratic, autocratic, and Laissez-faire.

Organisational Climate: Organisational climate refers to a set of measurable properties of the work environment such as a desirable or favourable climate, favourable policy, a well-patterned communication process, etc that are perceived by the people who live and work in the organisation and which influence their motivation and behaviour.

Workers' Commitment: This refers to the loyalty that workers give to their organisation. It denotes the strong desire of workers to identify with the institutions and their readiness and willingness to give their energy, support and loyalty to their institutions.

Tertiary Institution: It connotes education generally begun after high school, usually carried out at a university or college, and usually involving study for a degree or diploma. For this study, polytechnics and universities are regarded as tertiary institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0   Introduction

A review of literature is essential in the provision of adequate theoretical and empirical background to any study. Related studies to this are reviewed under the following subheadings:

2.1   Gender and Workers' Commitment

2.2   Leadership Style and Workers' Commitment

2.3   Organisational Climate and Workers' Commitment

2.4   Appraisal of Literature

2.5   Theoretical Framework

2.1   Gender and Workers' Commitment

Gender is a social and cultural construct which describes roles, status, expectation, relationship and obligations for males and females based on their biological make up (Phillips, 2002). According to Azikiwe (2001), gender implies social and historical constructs for masculine and feminine roles, behaviours, attributes and ideologies which connote some notions of biological sex. As noted by Pollard and Morgan (2002:601), gender refers to socially constructed expectations for male and female behaviour which prescribe divisions of labour and responsibilities between males and females which grant different rights and obligations to them.

Until recently, the concept was used mainly as a grammatical concept to classify words into masculine, feminine and neuter. However, gender is now not only in much use but has assumed new meaning and a dominant one. The concept currently denotes the different and unequal perception, views, roles and relevance etc, a society assigns to men and women based on culture.

This assertion explains why Ahupa (2000), Umoru (2000), Kotangora (2005), Kolawole and Fashina (2009), Odumade and Amoda (2007) and Ijaduola (2010a) agree that gender refers to the socially constructed inequality between women and men. According to them, gender differences are created and sustained by society through its tradition, customs, conventions and regulation. They differ across societies, within society and even over time. Buttressing this, Ogunfadebo (2009) perceives gender to imply the socially constructed inequality between women and men. As a social construct, as he posits, it is neither natural nor immutable. Gender roles, as he had observed, are influenced by cultural, political, environmental, economic, social and religious factors. These preceding contentions about gender, further lend credence to the pervasive issue of gender inequality.

Diverse and discriminatory sets of values and expectations of women emanating from prejudices in culture and customs are noted. Elaborate rituals herald the coming of the male child while the female child is ignored. Proverbs in many African countries refer to the pride with which the male child is welcome and gloom that casts shadow in the coming of a baby girl (Adesanya, 2001; Oni, 2001; Independent Policy group, 2003; Fabunmi, 2004; Beverly, 2005 and Ijaduola, 2008). In the same vein, Salami (2001), Danielle, Roxanne, Mary, Kerry and Malanie (2003), Uwachukwu (2003) and Odumade and Amoda (2008) concur that the traditional role of a Nigerian woman is that of house-keeper, child rearer, cook, making the husband happy and homely, only to be seen and not to be heard. In fact, in some societies in Nigeria, it is unheard of for a woman to sit in the midst of men. According to Clark (2008), women, from creation, have been regarded as second placed since Adam (male) was created first and Eve (female), an after-thought, was created second and as a helper.

This religious support as observed by Mudichie (1999), Ogundele (2003) and Oniwon (2009) has from time immemorial permeated all facets of attitudinal disposition to women. Women have thus over the years, been compelled to play passive roles and contend with numerous barriers, the most salient one is the socio-cultural system of beliefs and myths, which influence the socialisation process and the gender education and

training which women are exposed to from childhood. For instance, Heine and Reeves (2000) maintain that the sex-stereotype and gender segregation in employment and allocation of roles in private and public life are primarily a product of the early socialisation process and the indoctrination of the societal environment.

Further, women are required to be lower, weaker, inferior and subordinate for back stage and backbench position. African culture, the Nigerian culture inclusive, endorses this position often to the detriment of women's survival, health and peace of mind (Ridgeway, 2001; Udegbe, 2003 and Emmanuel, 2006). These further buttressed the recognition of the fact that development or progress in people's welfare cannot be achieved where the need and contributions of half of the world's population, that is, the women are still continually down graded, marginalised or completely ignored. At this juncture, it is pertinent to have a cursory look at a particular theory on gender inequality.

Since the early 19th century, feminist ideologists have advocated for ways of bridging the hiatus created by societal inequality and have created in the minds of women leaders all over the world the need for women empowerment which is primarily concerned with the issue of female inequality (Babawale, 2006). Abubakar (2008) contends that the feminist idea of women emancipation can be said to be a reaction to the social belief that female biological features consist of many distinctively feminine qualities best suited for child-rearing and home making.

Today however, feminist advocates describe their ideology as those ideas, attitudes and responses that seem to indicate a conscious awareness of what a woman should be in society (Banki-moon, 2007). Other feminist protagonists (Oyedeji, 2000; Lawal, 2004; Ene, 2005) argue that in a fair society, women should be in a position comparable to that of men who at present are able to combine their occupations and other roles with those of husbands and fathers.

In reality, male-female equality seems a pipe dream. Hardly can a woman combine her career and home effectively. The inability to do this, according to Okpanachi (2009) is due to an oppression sustained by prejudice discrimination and male chauvinists.

Nonetheless the emancipation and re-entry of women into leadership class is a task women should give to themselves. This task is imperative since most human societies today have been desecrated by men, who are gradually drawing the human race back to the hobbesian state of nature characterised by violence, oppression and deprivation (Ijaduola, 2010b). He however cautioned that the current demand by Nigerian women that the men folk should give them a chance to participate actively in governance is wrong because the success of this right should not depend on the good intentions of men, rather, women should move themselves into an intellectual army to awaken their fellow women to the task of taking up leadership position.

Workers' Commitment

Two approaches to define workers' commitment are found in the literature. First, commitment is understood as an employee's intention to continue working in the organisation (Meyer, 1997). Second, workers' commitment may be defined as an attitude in the form of an attachment that exists between the individual and the organisation and is reflected in the relative strength of an employee's psychological identification and involvement with the organisation (Mowday el al 1979). This research concurs with the second definition for two reasons. First, the conceptual distinction between workers' commitment and intentions to leave and the directionality of such relationship are evident in the literature (Allen D.K 2003; Johnston et al 1990; Schwepker, 2001). Second, the attitudinal approach is prevalent in the workers' commitment definition (Spector, 2002) because workers' commitment represents the attitudes employees have towards the organisation, rather than their intentions to leave.

Workers' commitment has been extensively studied in Western management research and remains of substantial importance to managers, given the meta-analytic evidence of its association with withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism, intentions to quit and turnover as well as higher level of organisational citizenship behaviour (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al 2002).

The most widely recognised and earliest conceptualisation of organisational commitment is affective commitment, defined as "an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (Mowday et al., 1982). Affective commitment is characterised by three factors: identification – a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; involvement-a readiness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation; and loyalty-a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation. The knowledge of how employee commitment is produced has a substantial basis in Western literature.

Historically, workers and organisations expected stable and long term employment relationships, reflecting a "cradle-to-grave" attitude toward organisational careers (Mirvis, 1992). However, in response to dramatic economic change in recent years (Mowday et al 1979), organisations are now often sending mixed signals to their managers and employees with respect to career opportunities (Conlon, Coy, Palmer and Saveri, 1999; Coy, Conlin, and Thornton, 2002; Jamrog, 2002). For example, organisations are laying off some employees at the same time as they invest considerably to retain those identified as having potential (Jamrog, 2002; Miller, 2001).

Such trends have prompted a number of researchers to suggest that traditional career models, wherein individuals become employed by and promoted within a single organisation over the course of their careers, are being replaced with new career models that are typified by increased job (internal) and company (external) mobility (Hall, 1996).

There is growing speculation about how such changes will impact work attitudes such as employee commitment to organisations which has often been referred to as loyalty in both the popular media (Moskal, 1993), and academic literature (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Interestingly, despite such commentary, very little empirical evidence has been accrued with respect to the impact of career mobility patterns on organisational commitment (Kalleberg and Mastekaasa, 2001; Murrell, Frieze, and Olson, 1996). This paucity of research is particularly surprising given the well-established relationships between organisational commitment and various key organisational and individual outcomes, including withdrawal cognitions (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and

Topolnytsky, 2002), voluntary employee turnover (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990;), absenteeism (Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1994), job performance (Bashaw and Grant, 1994), organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer et al 1993; Organ and Ryan, 1995), stress (Begley and Czajka, 1993), and work-family conflict (Meyer et al 2002).

Workers' commitment is a multi-dimensional construct that has been shown to influence several positive job outcomes including reduced absenteeism and turnover, self-reported citizenship (Meyer et al 1993), work effort (Bycio, Hackett and Allen, 1995), and job performance (Meyer et al 2002). The vast majority of studies in this area have looked at the commitment of paid employees. Workers' commitment is loyalty to the organisation and mobilisation of all employees in the development of its goals, purposes and infrastructure (Lee et al 1999). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) define organisational commitment as an attachment to identification with the organisation. Such an attachment may be considered an emotional response, particularly when the individual believes strongly in the organisation's goals and values and/or demonstrates a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Empirical evidence suggests that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organisational commitment (Brown and Peterson, 1994; Mathieu and Hamel, 1989; Reichers, 1985). The consequences of organisational commitment include retention, attendance and job productivity. If employees are morally committed to an organisation, the following can be expected: increased likelihood of retention, consistent attendance and increased productivity (McNeese-Smith, 1995; Reilly and Orsak, 1991). The notion of the employees' positive commitment to the organisation may result in a lower probability of leaving the firm.

Components of Workers' Commitment:

A three-dimensional model of workers' commitment

This study adopted a three-dimensional model of workers' commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Affective commitment refers to the employee or volunteer's state of emotional attachment to the organisation. This emotional response has also been described as linking the identity of the individual with the identity of the

organisation (Sheldon, 1971) and as an attachment to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth (Buchanan, 1974). Affective commitment results in a situation where the employee or volunteer wants to continue his or her association with the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). According to this model, affective commitment (ACS) captures "the emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation".

Normative commitment revolves around an employee or volunteer's feelings of obligation and loyalty to the organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997). These feelings may be the result of normative pressures internalised by the employee or volunteer through familial or cultural socialisation prior to organisational membership, from organisational socialisation processes following entry into the organisation or from a combination of both prior experience and organisational socialisation (Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer et al 1993).

Individuals having a high degree of normative commitment feel they ought to continue their association with the organisation. Normative commitment (NCS) represents "a feeling of obligation to continue employment".

Continuance commitment, which evolved from side-bet theory (Becker, 1960), led to research by Hackett et al. (1994) suggesting that commitment consisted of three dimensions as measured by the original scale. This dimension regards commitment as emanating from a calculative process in which the employee accumulates interests such as pensions, seniority, social status and access to social networks that bind him or her to the organisation.

A given leader may be satisfying and motivating to some employees and dissatisfying and demotivating to others, even if the leader acts in an identical fashion toward both sets of employees. This is in line with Shamir (1993) which posits on self-concept based theory of charismatic leadership, that leaders will not have similar effects on all followers.

Also the study of House (1971), House and Mitchel (1974) and Kerr and Jermier (1978) emphasise that followers may differ in their perceptions of the attractiveness of the rewards that a given leader controls and thus in their reactions to that leader.

These interests would be at risk if the individual leaves the organisation. More recently, research suggests that continuance commitment might consist of two sub-constructs – one based on the degree of personal sacrifice associated with leaving the organisation and the other on lack of other alternatives (Iveson and Buttigug (1999), 1987). Several studies have found empirical support for the existence of these two sub-constructs (Dunham, Grube, and Castanada, 1994; Inverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Meyer et al., 2002; Powell and Meyer, 2004). Continuance commitment (CCS) is defined as "an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation". The continuance dimension reflects both a perceived lack of alternative employment opportunities as well as the investments made with one's present organisation that would be sacrificed by leaving (e.g. tenure, status)-often referred to as "sunk costs". A considerable amount of research conducted over the past decade has demonstrated that the scales used to measure the three dimensions of commitment are reliable (e.g. Allen and Meyer, 1990), valid (e.g. Hackett et al., 1994; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997) and generalise across various occupations (e.g., Irving, Coleman and Cooper, 1997).

Nonetheless, there remains some disagreement as to the nature, viability and dimensionality of continuance commitment as measured by the Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) scale. For example, researchers note, "more work is needed on the continuance commitment scale (CCS)" because "some factor loadings varied across samples". Iverson and Buttigieg's (1999) work observe support for two dimensions of continuance commitment, but were limited in that they used only four of nine continuance commitment items. Meyer et al (2002) acknowledge that affective and normative commitment were distinguishable constructs, yet "it might be advisable to refine the CCS for future research, perhaps by including more items" (p.41). To address these concerns, the work of Powell and Meyer (2004) prescribe that a different set of items be used in future testing regarding continuance commitment.

More specifically, the three dimensions of commitment have demonstrated different relationships with key outcome variables. For example, affective commitment has demonstrated a positive relationship with job performance (Hackett et al 1994; Meyer et al., 1993), a negative relationship with continuance commitment (Hackett et al 1994) and no relationship with normative commitment (Hackett et al 1994).

With respect to organisational citizenship behaviour, there is a positive relationship with affective and normative commitment but a negative relationship with continuance commitment. For organisations and individuals, the consequences of continuance commitment are somewhat distinct in that, unlike those of affective and normative commitment, they tend to be unfavourable (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Thus, while it is advantageous, particularly from an organisational perspective, to strengthen employees' affective and normative commitment, it may be prudent for companies to take steps to decrease employees' perceptions that they are "stuck" based on few alternatives or the high cost of changing jobs.

The three-dimensional model of commitment provides an excellent foundation for research linking career mobility and organisational commitment for several reasons. First, the measurement of affective commitment is well integrated into the research literature with respect to turnover intentions and actual turnover (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). In other words, high affective commitment has positive implications for employees who wish to stay in their current organisations. From a career mobility perspective, high continuance commitment may help to identify employees who feel "stuck" in their current company, which may have negative implications that the organisation will need to address. Finally, normative commitment appears to reflect a broader corporate loyalty construct which may, independent of affective and continuance commitment, predict career mobility.

Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest "that perhaps the biggest challenge for commitment researchers will be to determine how commitment is affected by the many changes (e.g., increased global competition, reengineering, and downsizing) that are occurring in the world of work" (p.114). For example, research into attitudes associated

with the new psychological contract (e.g. increased personal responsibility for career development and greater expectations of job insecurity), and careerism (e.g. greater career and personal focus than company focus), suggests that such changes will have a negative impact on worker commitment (Cooper, 1999). Careerist individuals, for example, epitomise the concept of self-directed careers.

Among the defining characteristics of careerist attitudes are the belief that it is sometimes necessary to promote one's career advancement, even at the expense of organisational goals and that commitment to an organisation is unlikely to be rewarded (Feldman, 1985).

Affective Commitment

Recent research has emphasised the value of distinguishing among multiple foci of employee commitment in the workplace (Becker, 1992; Becker and Billing, 1993). Commitment foci represent those individuals, groups or entities to which an employee is attached. Research has shown that just as employees develop affective attachments to the global organisation, they may feel committed to their supervisor (Becker 1992; Becker and Billings, 1993) and to their work group or team (Becker and Billings, 1993; and Zaccaro, 2001). Whatever the foci or interest, affective commitment to a given entity may be broadly defined as an attachment characterised by an identification to and involvement in the target entity.

According to its seminal definition, Affective Organisational Commitment (AOC) is 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (Mowday et al, 1979:226). It has at least three related factors:

1.   acceptance of the organisation's goals and values;

2.   willingness to work hard for the organisation and

3.   a strong desire to remain in the organisation.

Recently, the reconceptualisation of AOC by Allen and Meyer (1990) has received growing attention in research.

These authors distinguished three forms of commitment; affective, continuance, and normative. The definition of affective organisational commitment resembles

Mowday et al's definition and includes the following components: 'employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation". (Allen and Meyer, 1990:1). In the present work, the term AOC encompasses both the definition by Mowday et al and the definition by Allen and Meyer.

If one looks at the cited definitions, there is a clear overlap between AOC and Organisational Identification (IO). In particular, identification is explicitly included in these definitions of AOC. There is also some overlap at the operational level. The two most often used AOC scales are the Organisational Commitment Question (OCQ; Mowday et al., 1979) and the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS: Allen and Meyer, 1990). Items in these scales refer to:

(a)   emotional attachment to the organisation (e.g. OCQ: "I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation"; ACS: "I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation)".

(b)   involvement in organisational issues (OCQ): "I really care about the fate of the organisation"; ACS: "I feel as if this organisation's problems are my own);

(c)   value congruence (OCQ: "I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar"; not represented in the ACS, and

(d)   willingness to stay with the organisation   (OCQ: ACS: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation)".

Similar items are included in many OI measures. For example, eight of the 25 items of the Organisational Identification Questionnaire (OIQ; Cheney, 1983, one of the most often used OI measures) are virtually identical with ACS and OCQ items.

Affective commitment is defined as the "identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organisation", (Allen and Meyer, 1990:253). Affective commitment is highly correlated with management receptiveness, organisational dependability, organisation support, and support from supervisors (Allen and Meyer, 1990). These antecedents are also components of the feedback environment. This suggests that a more favourable feedback environment may lead to increased affective commitment. That is, those who feel that the feedback environment supports them may

be more likely to reciprocate with increased affective commitment toward the organisation. Indeed, recent research on the feedback environment has shown that employees who perceive a more favourable environment report more affective commitment than those who perceive an unfavourable feedback environment.

Since organisational attitudes have been consistently linked to OCBs Moorman, Nieho, & Organ, 1993, it follows that affective commitment may be a potential mediator of the relation between the Feedback. Environment and each facet of OCB. Oast research has also revealed a substantial relation between affective commitment and OCB in a variety of different empirical studies and workplace contexts (Allen and Meyer, 1990). So, the more favourable the feedback environment, the higher the affective commitment, and the greater the likelihood of OCB.

Measures of Worker's Commitment

Blair and Banagi, (1996) conducted the first empirical test of Becker's (1960) theory. To measure commitment, they developed a set of questions asking how likely respondents would be to leave their organisation given various inducements to do so (e.g. pay, status). This, and subsequent studies using related measures (Grusky, 1966) provided mixed support for side-bet theory. Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that the inducements could actually eliminate the threat of losing valued investments by leaving one's organisation. Consequently, the high scorers (those who would stay despite strong inducements to leave) might have a strong affective commitment to the organisation.

Indeed, they demonstrated that Blair and Banagi's measure correlated more highly with their Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) than with the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) developed specifically to measure the perceived cost of leaving. A few years later, Iveson and Buttigug (1999) (1987) factor analyzed the CCS and presented two interpretable factors: perceived sacrifices associated with leaving (CC:HiSac), and lack of alternatives (CC:LoAlt). Subsequent confirmatory factor analyses have generally supported this finding (Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1994; Somers, 1993). Iveson and Buttigug (1999) argued that the CC:HiSac subscale more

closely paralleled Becker's (1960) side-bet view of commitment. In light of accumulating evidence, Allen and Meyer (1990) recently suggested that perceived lack of alternatives might be better considered an antecedent of continuance commitment than as part of the construct itself. Based on the argument that side bets make it difficult for employees to leave, she assessed "continuance commitment" using a four-item measure of intention to remain. Although she found some evidence for positive relations between this measure and various side bets, there is reason to question whether these findings support Becker's (1960) theory. Continuance commitment is not synonymous with intention to stay. Even if continuance commitment is low, employees might intend to stay because of a strong affective or normative commitment. Indeed, the side-bet measures accounted for approximately equal variance in affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Jaros et al (1993) suggest that affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation. This could probably be because affective commitment is associated with desirable organisational outcomes. Report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions of organisational commitment is continuance commitment, which is based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory.

The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organisation for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer an individual stays. These investments include time, job effort, organisation specific skills that might not be transferable or greater costs of leaving the organisation that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals.

Allen and Meyer (1990) describe continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation that reflects the employee's part of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. This then forms the employee's

primary link to the organisation and his/her decision to remain with the organisation is an effort to retain the benefits accrued.

Romsek (1990) describes this type of attachment as a transactional attachment. He argues that employees calculate their investments in the organisation based on what they have put into the organisation and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organisation. For example, an individual might choose not to change employers because of the time and money tied up in an organisation's retirement plan.

Such an employee would feel that he/she stands to lose too much if he/she were to leave the organisation. In addition to the fear of losing investments, individuals develop continuance commitment because of a perceived lack of alternatives. Allen and Meyer (1990), argue that such an individual's commitment to the organisation would be based on his/her perceptions of employment options outside the organisation. This occurs when an employee starts to believe that his/her skills are not marketable or that he does not have the skill required to compete for positions in the field. Such an employee would feel tied to his current organisation.

People who work in environments where the skills and training they get are very industry specific can possibly develop such commitment. As a result, the employee feels compelled to commit to the organisation because of the monetary, social, psychological and other costs associated with leaving the organisation. Unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

The third dimension of organisational commitment is normative commitment, which reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Researchers have overlooked this view of organisational commitment, as relatively few studies explicitly address normative commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) is the one have attempted to differentiate normative commitment from the other components of organisational commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1990) regard normative commitment in terms of the moral obligation the employee develops after the organisation has invested in him/her. They argue that when an employee starts to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money developing and training him/her, such an employee might feel an obligation to stay with the organisation. For example, an employee whose organisation paid his tuition while he/she was improving qualifications might believe that he/she can reimburse the organisation by continuing to work for it. In general, normative commitment is most likely when individuals find it difficult to reciprocate the organisation's investment in them.

O'Reilly et al (1991) on the other hand defined and measured normative commitment in terms of values. They argue that congruence between an individual's and organisation's values leads to the development of organisational commitment. In support of this viewpoint are Mayer and Schoorman (1992) who describe value commitment as an employee's acceptance of an organisation's goals and values.

Jaros et al (1993) agree with Allen and Meyer (1990) and refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. They emphasize the difference between this kind of commitment and affective commitment because normative commitment reflects a sense of duty, or obligation or calling to work in the organisation and not emotional attachment. They describe it as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalization of its goals values and missions. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment because it is not dependent on the personal calculations of sunken costs.

The multidimensionality of workers' commitment reflects its highly complex nature. The three aspects of workers' commitment as we have seen seem to have different foundations. As all those forces that are attributed to be variables associated with the different forms of commitment co-exist in an organisation, it can be assumed that the three different dimensions of workers commitment are not mutually exclusive. An employee can develop one or any combination or none of the three aspects of commitment.

These aspects of workers' commitments differ only on the bases of their underlying motives and outcomes (Becker, 1992). For example, an employee with affective commitment will stay with an organisation and be willing to exert more effort in organisational activities while an employee with continuance commitment may remain with the organisation and not be willing to exert any more effort than is expected. In order to understand these different dimensions of organisational commitment better, it is important that we also understand how organisational factors associated with it affect the development of commitment.

Students of organisational behaviour researching workers' commitment have tried to determine what it is about the organisation and the employee's experiences that influence the development of the workers' commitment once the individual has selected membership in an organisation. As a result, a lot of empirical research has focused on the variables associated with workers' commitment. Mowday et al (1979) have grouped the factors that may lead to greater organisational commitment into three major groups. According to them commitment depends on 1) Personal factors, 2) organisational factors, and 3) non-organisational factors. Each of these categories of factors might contribute to the development of the different dimensions of organisational commitment at varying degrees.

Although multiples of variables have been hypothesized to be variables associated with affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997) suggest that these variables can all be categorized into three major categories: personal characteristics, organisational characteristics, and work experiences. An analysis of the organisational commitment literature reveals a long list of demographic factors that have been associated with commitment. Variables associated with commitment that may be significant for those employed in higher education institutions and business organisations in general include personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, family status and educational level, need for achievement, sense of competence and a sense of professionalism

Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analytic study involving 41 samples and 10 335 subjects, has shown a statistically significant positive correlation of .20 (p < .01) between

age and affective organisational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1993) also studied the relationship between age and affective commitment. In a study of University librarians and hospital employees, they obtained a statistically significant positive mean correlation of .36 (p < .05) between age and affective commitment.

Age has been regarded as a positive predictor of commitment for a variety of reasons. Kaldenberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995) argue that as workers age, alternative employment options generally decrease, making their current job more attractive. They furthermore state that older individuals may have more commitment to the organisation because they have a stronger investment and greater history with the organisation than younger workers.

Other researchers have not been able to show a significant link between age and organisational commitment. For example, Hawkins (1998) in a study of the affective commitment levels of 396 high school principals found a statistically non-significant correlation (r = -004) between age and affective commitment. Colbert and Ik-Whan (2000) in a study of 497 college and University internal auditors failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organisational commitment. Overall, age seem to have an inconsistent although moderate correlation with affective commitment.

As far as gender is concerned, the reports are inconsistent. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in a meta-analytic study of 14 studies with 7420 subjects involving gender and organisational commitment, obtained a mean correlation of -.089 for organisational commitment and gender. Although they report a weak relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment, they suggest that gender may affect employees' perceptions of their workplace and attitudes towards the organisation. Kalderberg et al (1995) found no significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of males and females.

In addition, Hawkins (1998) found no significant difference between the mean level of commitment for female and male high school principals. Eagly et al (1995) on the other hand argues that women can exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment than men can. She cites reasons such as the fact that women face greater barriers than men when seeking employment as possible explanations to the high continuance

commitment of women. She argues that having overcome these barriers women would be more committed to continue the employment relationship.

Although the literature quoted here is not exhaustive on the subject of the effect of gender on organisational commitment, it seems as if gender makes no difference on organisational commitment levels. Eagly et al (1995) support the viewpoint that the effects of gender on commitment are very subtile. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reviewed 38 samples that included 12290 subjects and found a positive link between organisational tenure and affective commitment. They report an overall weighted mean correlation of r = .17 (p < .01). Hawkins (1998) (1992) in his study of urban elementary and middle school teachers also found a positive correlation (r = 17; p > .05) between the number of years in teaching and organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1993) indicate that an analysis of organisational tenure showed a mild curvilinear relationship with organisational commitment. They showed that middle tenure employees exhibited less measured commitment than new or senior employees did. These findings are supported by Hawkins (1998) and Nyhan (1994), who found a negative relationship between tenure and affective commitment (t = -3.482). However, these two authors did not find significant correlations between continuance commitment and employee tenure.

In a study of Japanese industrial workers, Hawkins (1998) and Masuda (1998) found that organisational tenure predicted internalization (R^2 = .262 p < .05). Consistent with other researchers, Hawkins (1998) observe a statistically significant positive correlation of r = .25 between the organisational commitment and tenure of 202 high school principals. Colbert and Kwon (2000) observe a significant relationship (r = .11, p < .05) between tenure and organisational commitment. They found that employees with a longer tenure had a higher degree of organisational commitment than their counterparts.

Although there seem to be empirical evidence to positively link tenure and organisational commitment, it is still not clear how this link operates (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that employees with long organisational tenure may develop retrospective attachment to the organisation. These kinds of employees attribute their long service to emotional attachment in an effort to justify themselves as to

why they have stayed that long. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that the results of a positive relationship between tenure and affective commitment might be a simple reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organisation and only those with a high commitment remain.

Nonetheless the relationship between gender, age and tenure and educational level and organisational commitment is been extensively studied, the literature is yet to provide strong and consistent evidence to enable an unequivocal interpretation of the relationship (Meyer and Allen, 1997). However, Meyer and Allen (1997) caution that one cannot assume that growing older makes one develop higher affective commitment. They argue that the positive association might simply be because of differences in the particular generational cohorts that were studied. On the other hand, older employees might have more positive work experiences than younger employees might. Overall, empirical evidence suggests that age and affective commitment are significantly related.

Affective commitment develops as the result of experiences that satisfy employee's need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable in the organisation. These experiences include those that lead to a perception of support from the organisation. Employees who perceive a high level of support from the organisation are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organisation in terms of affective commitment. Organisational characteristics such as structure, culture and organisational level policies, which can induce perceptions of organisational support, would probably induce organisational commitment.

The idea that organisational policies are related to affective commitment has some support in the organisational commitment literature (Meyer and Allen, 1997). For example, Hawkins (1998) (1994) report that the manner in which employees perceive these policies and the manner in which they are communicated are related to affective commitment. The organisational policies assumed to affect the development of organisational commitment will be discussed in detail in the section on human resources management (HRM) practices later.

Continuance commitment refers to the employee's decision to continue employment because it would be costly to leave the organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment can develop because of any action or even that increases the costs of leaving the organisation, provided the employee recognises that these costs have been incurred. They summarised these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: investments and employment alternatives. In terms of organisational commitment, investments refer to any actions that would result in considerable potential loss should the individual decide to leave the organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Once an employee realises that moving to a new organisation would result in the forfeiture of benefits, the employee might decide to stay within the current organisation rather than lose the investments. Such an employee develops continuance commitment as he/she stays with the organisation as a calculated decision rather than an eagerness to do so.

Investments can take the form and of either work or non-work related. Work related investments include such things as the time spent acquiring non-transferable skills, the potential loss of benefits and giving up a senior position and its associated rewards (Meyer and Allen, 1990). Non-work related investments might include the disruption of personal relationships and the expense and human cost of relocating a family to another city. Investments can also take the form of time devoted to a particular career track or development of work groups or even friendship networks (Romzek, 1990). Leaving the organisation could mean that the employee would stand to lose or would have wasted time, money or effort that was invested. These investments are assumed to increase in number and magnitude over time. Thus, age and tenure are associated with the accumulation of investments.

Romzek (1990) suggests that organisations can easily get employees to feel that they have made big investments in the organisation. He reckons that organisations have only to offer opportunities and working conditions that are competitive with other prospective employers. Typically, investment factors include promotion prospects, development of work group network performance bonuses and the accrual of vacation

sick leave, family-friendly policies, and retirement benefits. If these cannot be easily matched by prospective employers, the organisation's employees might remain "stuck" in the organisation even though they are no longer effective.

The other hypothesised antecedent of continuance commitment is the employment alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that an employee's perception of the availability of alternatives will be negatively correlated with continuance commitment. They reckon that employees who think they have viable alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who think their alternatives are limited.

As with investments, several events or actions can influence one's perceptions of the availability of alternatives (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Iverson and Buttigied, 1998). For example, one employee might base his/her perceptions of available alternative jobs by scanning the external environment, looking at local employment rates and the general economic climate. On the other hand, another employee might base perceived alternatives on the degree to which his/her skills seem current and marketable.

Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that such things as the result of previous job search attempts and whether other organisations have tried to recruit the employee and the extent to which family factors limit the employee's ability to relocate can also influence perceptions of alternatives. For example, if the employee had applied for work and has not been successful on several occasions, such an employee might begin to think that he/she has no alternatives and would rather continue with the current employer. On the other hand, an employee who has been approached by other organisations might believe that he/she has ample alternatives and would not feel tied to leave the current employer.

The availability of alternative employment does not influence continuance commitment on its own (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1998). It may often work in conjunction with the extent to which family factors permit or enable an employee's ability to relocate or take up a new job. For example, even though an employee might have a better paying job offer and it turns out that there are no schools for his/her children or his/her spouse

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would not be able to find employment in the new town, the employee might choose to decline the offer and remain with the current employer.

In addition to perceived alternatives, there are other potential variables associated with continuance commitment. These factors accumulate over time. Time-based variables such as age and tenure are also hypothesised as factors associated with continuance commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Studies using these as variables have shown mixed results. For some employees, the perceived cost associated with leaving an organisation will increase as they get older and increase their organisational tenure. For others however, the costs of leaving might actually decrease as experience and skills increase. For this reason, Meyer and Allen (1997) recommend that age and tenure are best thought of as substitute variables of accumulated investments and perceived alternatives and not as direct predictors of continuance commitment. Associated with time-based investments is the employees' perception about the transferability of their skills and their education to other organisations will determine their judgement of the availability of alternatives (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Those employees who think their educational or training investments are less easily transferable elsewhere would tend to perceive lack of alternatives and thus express stronger continuance commitment to their organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1997) emphasise the fact that neither investments nor alternatives will have an influence on continuance commitment unless or until the employee is aware of them and the implications of losing them. Thus, the employee's recognition that investments and/or lack of alternative make leaving more costly represents the process that develops continuance commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the fact that recognition plays a central role in this process raises two points. First, it means that people who are in objectively similar situations can have different levels of continuance commitment. Second, for some cost-related variables to influence continuance commitment, a particular triggering event is required to focus the employee's attention on these variables. The final point to make is that the specific set of

variables that influence an employee's continuance commitment might be idiosyncratic to that person. It can include both work-related and non-work related variables.

Compared to affective and continuance commitment, very few factors have been described as variables associated with normative commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1990), normative commitment might develop based on the psychological contract between an employee and the organisation. A psychological contract refers to the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligations. Although psychological contracts can take different forms, Meyer and Allen (1990) suggest that the transactional and relational might be closely related to continuance commitment.

They describe transactional contracts as more objective and based on principles of economic exchange while relational contracts as more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Further, they consider relational contracts more relevant to normative commitment while transactional contracts might be involved in the development of continuance commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) also refer to the possible role that early socialisation experiences might have in the development of normative commitment. They suggest that socialisation can carry with it all sorts of messages about the appropriateness of particular attitudes and behaviours within the organisation. Amongst these attitudes could be that the employees must be committed to the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) assume internalisation to be the process involved in the development of normative commitment during the early days of assuming employment with an organisation. They reason that through a complex process involving both conditioning and modelling of others, individuals can develop normative commitment.

It has also been suggested that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the employees find difficult to reciprocate (Meyer and Allen, 1997). For example, if an organisation sponsored tuition payments on behalf of an employee, the employee might feel uncomfortable and indebted. Given the norms of reciprocity, the employee might develop feelings of obligation to the organisation as

he/she tries to rectify the imbalance. Cultural and individual differences exist in the extent to which people will internalise reciprocity norms and therefore in the extent to which organisational investments will lead to feelings of indebtedness.

Workers' Commitment within Academic Institution

Several studies have investigated the workers' commitment of both educators and administrators in academic institutions and both groups were found to exhibit commitment to their organisations (Chiefo, 1991; Chiefo, (1991) 1992; Celep, 1992). Chieffo (1991) observes that mid-level administrators in higher education are fairly committed to their organisations largely because they are proud of what they are doing and the autonomy of their work. Her results also showed a significant correlation between leadership behaviours (.60 to .70, p < .0001) such as vision, influence orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation and values orientation and workers' commitment. She also positively linked factors such as participation in decision-making meetings and the organisational structure with high levels of workers' commitment.

In a survey of 1147 general and special educators, Billingsley and Cross (1992) determined the predictors of teachers' commitment. Their cross-validated regression results suggested that work-related variables such as leadership support, role conflict, role ambiguity and stress are the best predictors of commitment of educators. They conclude that increasing administrative support and principals' behaviours such as decision-making and collaborative problem solving are important in building a committed and satisfied teaching staff.

Meyer and Allen, (1997) tried to determine the level of commitment of teachers in regard to their commitment to the school, to teaching work, to work group and to the teaching profession. Teacher's commitment to the school was tested with such factors as exerting effort on behalf of the school and being proud to be a staff of the school. His results indicated a direct relationship between the teacher's organisational commitment

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and having proper pride to belong to the school (r = 7.13, p < .01) and work group (r = 13.25, p < .05).

In a study to explore the ability of extrinsic and intrinsic work related rewards to predict the organisational commitment of health occupation educators, Schwartz (1989), observes that two intrinsic and one extrinsic work related rewards significantly predicted their commitment. Significant involvement and general working conditions were significant at the .01 level with standardised beta weights of .2411, .2135 and .1591; respectively. Similar results were found by Schwartz (1989) when they predicted the organisational commitment of marketing education teachers. They found that six of the eight work related rewards entered the stepwise Multiple Regression. The variables that were significant at the .01 level were supervision (.2188), significance (.2158), involvement (.2137), promotion (.1592), and co-workers (.1258).

Thornhill et al (1996) have showed that communication with employees is significantly related to the organisational commitment of higher education institutions. They observe that communication in terms of information flow down the organisation, information flow up the organisation and leadership or management style were important in the context of higher education institutions. Of the employees, who believed that management made a positive effort to keep staff well informed, 68 per cent indicated that they felt part of the institution, 88 per cent reported that it was a good place to work and 85 per cent reported that their organisation had a great future.

The interest in the commitment of educators has extended to the study of organisational commitment of part-time faculty. In a study of 479 full time and part-time academics at two Mid-Western universities, Grusky (1966) oberves that the level of organisational commitment does not vary significantly between faculty members who are part-time on-ground, part-time on line, full-time on-ground and full-time on line. These findings indicate that despite employment status, educators are equally committed to their organisations.

In a study of the factors related to the organisational commitment of college and University auditors, Colbert and Kwon (2000), found that organisational characteristics

such as organisational dependability ($R^2 = 1.61$, $p < .01$), organisational support ($R^2 = 1.75$, $p < .01$), and instrumental communication ($R^2 = 2.09$, $p < .01$), were significantly related to organisational commitment. They also found a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and organisational tenure ($R^2 = 2.06$, $p < .05$), and skill variety ($R^2 = 1.51$, $p < .01$).

Schwartz (1989) observes that workers' commitment of deans seemed to increase with age ($r = 2.46$, $p < .05$), number of years in the position ($r = 3.00$, $p < .05$), and the level of overall job satisfaction ($r = 2.69$, $p < .05$). They also observes that if deans believed they worked for universities that exhibited high academic quality ($r = 2.88$, $p < .01$) and good environmental quality ($r = 4.19$, $p < .01$) they tended to be more committed to the organisations. In addition, they found that Deans who were inside seemed more committed to their universities than those who were brought in from outside.

From this analysis of studies of workers' commitment within academic institutions, it can be seen that the development of commitment is dependent on several organisational factors such as leadership and organisational culture, policies and practices.

The idea that workers' commitment is important for the realisation of organisational goals and professional goals in educational institutions has remained untapped by researchers. Workers' commitment research can possibly provide practical results for academic institutions by providing insight into the commitment profiles of their professional employees. From the employing organisations' standpoint, it is useful to identify which factors motivate academics' desire to remain with the organisation.

Relatioship Between Gender and Worker's Commitment

The concept of workers' commitment has attracted considerable attention as an attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee dedication to work organisations. Two quite different definitions of commitment have been popular in the empirical literature; one provided by Porter and his associates (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982), and the other by Becker (1960). According to Porter et al. (1974),

commitment is the "strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (p. 604). Becker, on the other hand, described commitment as the tendency to engage in "consistent lines of activity" (p. 33) because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise (i.e., leaving). Meyer and Allen (1984; Allen and Meyer, 1990) used the terms affective and continuance commitment respectively, to characterize Porter and Becker's discrepant views of the construct. Workers with a strong affective commitment remain with the organisation because they want to; these individuals identify with the organisation and therefore, are committed to maintaining membership in order to pursue organisational goals. Those individuals with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to do so; they are bound to the organisation through extraneous interests such as pensions, benefits, seniority and the cost of leaving rather than through a favorable affective connection with the organisation.

Despite the substantial number of studies that have investigated the antecedents of workers' commitment, the literature on the relationship between gender and workers' commitment has had mixed results. For example, there are some authors who suggest that women are less committed to their work than men (Schwartz, 1989). Much of these contentions have as their roots the idea that women, as a result of their socialization, place a greater emphasis on family roles than men Schriesheim, C., House, R., and Kerr, S. (1976), which in turn may result in women placing less importance on their work roles. This assertion also posits that women establish their identity through their interdependent, nurturing relations with others, whereas men's socialisation process leads them to identify themselves as independent, assertive and goal-directed. Supportive of this assertion is the evidence that in the accounting profession and in professional associations, women are less affectively committed than men.

However, researchers who appear to be focused on the continuance component of commitment have often argued that women are more committed to organisations than men (Grusky, 1966; Iveson and Buttigug (1999), because they must overcome more obstacles in order to gain employment (Grusky, 1966) and have less interorganisational mobility than males (Angle and Perry, 1981). This perspective is complemented by

studies showing that workers who perceive limited employment options (Angel and Perry, 1981; McGee and Ford, 1987; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981) and higher costs associated with establishing their organisational membership (Grusky, 1966) display greater workers' commitment, perhaps specifically continuance commitment (Iveson and Buttigug (1999). An example of empirical support for this theoretical perspective regarding gender differences in continuance commitment is a study by Eagly et al (1995), which found women to be higher in continuance commitment than men (although with the difference between the two groups was somewhat modest).

Several meta-analyses on workers' commitment have helped to elucidate the aforementioned theoretical and empirical controversy. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of workers' commitment revealed that women are more organisationally committed than men, although the difference was small. Additionally, they did not find a difference in the strength of the gender-commitment relationship across commitment type (i.e., affective and continuance commitment). Iveson and Buttigug (1999) conclude from a separate meta-analysis that there were no gender differences in affective commitment. They also stated that they were unable to address the effect of gender on continuance commitment because the published research focused almost exclusively on affective commitment. However, their meta-analysis included six studies that used the Iveson and Buttigug (1999) commitment instrument, which purportedly measures an employee's calculative (i.e., continuance) involvement with an organisation.

More recent research (over 20 studies; e.g., Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002) observe that there were no gender differences in workers' commitment. Seven additional studies found that even when there was a mean difference in workers' commitment between men and women, there was no gender effect when predicting organisational commitment (i.e., via multiple regression) when control variables such as age, job level, educational, job and organisational tenure were included in the analyses. This suggests that certain characteristics that might be correlated with

gender (e.g., job level as women are more likely to have lower level jobs) may explain the difference in workers' commitment more so than gender itself.

Gender and Psychological Climate

Psychological climate can be defined as sets of perceptually-based descriptions of relevant organisational features, events and processes (Schriesheim, C., House, R., and Kerr, S. (1976). These perceptions represent cognitive interpretations of the organisational context or situation, and summarise an individual's description of their work experiences (Schneider, 1975). The appraisal is a reflection of the organisational characteristics that are important to the individual and his or her personal and organisational well-being (Schriesheim, C., House, R., and Kerr, S. (1976). Although description cannot be completely divorced from affective evaluation, the distinction between descriptive and evaluative reactions to organisational experiences distinguishes climate from job satisfaction (Colbert and Ik-whan 2000). The construct of psychological climate is useful in organisational research because it aids in the prediction of work outcomes such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction, psychological well-being, motivation, and performance (Salami and Omole, 2005).

The study of climates in organisations has been difficult because it is a complex phenomenon (Salami and Omole, 2005). While there is a general consensus on the concept of psychological climate, there appears to be little agreement on its dimensionality and thus, its measurement (Salami and Omole, 2005). Colbert and Ik-whan (2000) reviewed the literature in this area and assembled a list of over 80 separately labeled dimensions of climate. They established a set of criteria by which a reduction of these dimensions could take place. After the reduction process, forty-five of the original dimensions were retained and categorized into eight concepts viewed as the "universe of psychological climate" (p. 268). This categorization of climate perceptions is of interest in the current study because these dimensions are conceptually distinct, provide a means for the theoretically-meaningful and analytically-practical classification of employee

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perceptions of the work environment, and resemble similar types of dimensions examined in previous gender research.

These eight psychological climate dimensions include (1) autonomy: perception of self-determination with respect to work procedures, goals and priorities, (2) cohesion: perception of togetherness or sharing within the organisation setting, including the willingness of members to provide material aid, (3) trust: perception of freedom to communicate openly with members at higher organisational levels about sensitive or personal issues with the expectation that the integrity of such communications will not be violated, (4) pressure: perception of time demands with respect to task completion and performance standards, (5) support: perception of the tolerance of member behaviour by superiors, including the willingness to let members learn from their mistakes without fear of reprisal, (6) recognition: perception that member contributions to the organisation are acknowledged, (7) fairness: perception that organisational practices are equitable and nonarbitrary or capricious, and (8) innovation: perception that change and creativity are encouraged, including risk-taking into new areas or areas where the member has little or no prior experience.

Research that specifically addresses the issue of gender differences in psychological climate perceptions is scarce even though there appears to be a growing concern with the experiential aspects of organisational life (Biernat and Kobrynowize, 1997). Studies that address climate-related variables in organisational research indicate that women's work experiences are different than men's work experiences, and that men and women employees perceive and react differently to organisational components of the work environment (Taguiri and Litwin 1968).

One study along this line of research by Smith (2002) observe that professional women perceive less autonomy, less freedom, less influence, less variety in their work assignments, fewer challenges, and a less positive work environment compared to professional men. Additional research has found that men assign greater importance to rewards such as self-direction or autonomy, pay, security, and promotions, while women assign greater value to social rewards such as interesting work, good relations with

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coworkers, and a friendly work atmosphere (Bartol, 1976a, 1976b). These findings suggest that men perceive themselves to have more control over the work environment in comparison to women, which could be explained by the extant earnings gap between men and women as well as by the importance assigned by men to salary, autonomy, and self-direction. The research indicates that not only are certain components of the work environment perceived differently by men and women, but it also suggests that specific components of the work environment are differentially salient to men and women. We intend to add to this body of research by examining gender differences in perceptions of the work environment, after having controlled for important demographics, with the use of Colbert and Ik-whan (2000) eight-part taxonomy of psychological climate.

Gender as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Psychological Climate and Employee Dedication

Despite the large body of evidence elucidating the role that gender plays in various organisational outcomes (deVaus and McAllister, 1991; Kelley et al., 1990; Mason, 1995; Rosin and Korabik, 1995; Schilit and Locke, 1982; Tannen, 1995), there is still a need to investigate its role as a potential moderator of the relationship between perceptions of the work environment and organisational outcomes. As noted above, various aspects of the work environment may be differentially salient to men and women. Therefore, the perceptions of the work environment, or dimensions of psychological climate, that influence an employee to increase or decrease his or her voluntary attachment to the organisation may change depending upon employee gender. Voluntary attitudes and actions are not directly controlled by the organisation in comparison to overt job behaviours (Taiwo, 2003). Such volitional attitudes are therefore expected to change easily in response to satisfaction or disappointment with the organisation. An employee's dedication to the organisation, in the forms of workers' commitment and turnover intentions, are perhaps the constructs most likely to reflect this effect (Taiwo, 2003, Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

An extensive literature search revealed only two studies that examined gender as a potential moderator of the relationship between climate-related and dedication-related variables. Stathan, (1987) observes for both genders, that the more positively an individual views his or her sense of fit with the organisation, the higher the level of job commitment, and the more likely it is that the job will be viewed as a positive contributor to a high quality of life. When career decisions have to be made, "a commitment to the organisation could be seen as an exchange for the quality of life the job is believed to make possible" (p. 242). In this study, path analyses were performed separately for males and females because the relations among the study variables were expected to vary enough between the genders to justify separate models Stathan, (1987). The structure of the two models was not identical, which suggests gender could have interacted with the antecedents of job commitment. Therefore, Stathan's (1987) separate path analyses serve to indirectly implicate gender as a moderator of the antecedents of job commitment. The antecedents included in their models were perceptions of organisational supportiveness of families as well as background variables, such as job tenure and marital satisfaction. Although the power of several of these antecedent variables to predict job commitment changed across gender, the focus of this study was on work-to-family interface, and it did not examine the psychological climate variables of the current study, which may differentially predict job commitment for men and women once important demographics are controlled for. Furthermore, their study does not directly test for the moderation of the relationship between job commitment and its precursors by gender. A direct test is needed.

In a second study, Schein (2001) examines gender differences in the relationships between workers' commitment and two of its antecedents, job satisfaction and psychological climate. Schein (2001) observes several of the relationships between psychological climate and workers' commitment to change across gender. For instance, the relationship between organisational support and Iveson and Buttigug's (1999) measurement of commitment was stronger for men than for women, with the relationship being positive in both cases. Although other gender differences were found in climate-to-

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commitment relationships, Schein's (2001) results must be interpreted with caution for several reasons. First, when controlling for the effects of age, job tenure, and other important demographic variables, Schein (2001) included only 20 males and 71 females in his sample. This small sample size, especially for men, is of concern given the spurious effect sizes that can occur due to the use of small sample sizes (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). Additionally, to test for the moderating effect of gender when controlling for demographics, Schein (2001) performed 32 significance tests for independent partial correlations. Even when using Cohen and Cohens' (1983) recommended alpha value of .10, one finds no significant differences between the genders in climate-to-commitment relationships when controlling for pyramiding alpha level (i.e., Bonferroni correction with .10 □ 32 = .003). Schein (2001) made note of this limitation in his study. Nonetheless, given the aforementioned limitations, we believe the potential moderation of climate-to-commitment relationships by gender requires further examination.

Gender and Leadership style

Leadership has been perceived as a central focus in organisational management. Samuel (1993) and Akintayo (2003) see leadership as the process of effectively influencing the activities of others within an organised group with a view to maximally achieve organisational goals. In essence, leadership is the focus of activities through which the goal and objectives of the organisation are accomplished. There are three major approaches to organisational leadership. These include trait, behavioural and contingency theories. Each of these theories was concerned with various factors responsible for effective management of organisational resources.

The trait theory identified individual characteristic qualities that could lead to successful achievement of organisational goals. This theory emphasised that leaders are born not made (Bass, 1960; Babajide, 2000). The trait theory only focused on leadership qualities but place no emphasis on situations. The behavioural theorists emphasised certain behavioural pattern the leader will exhibit in order to effectively influence the decision of others towards organisational goal achievement. This theory also places

much emphasis on influence relationship but failed to consider people and productivity at workplace.

The contingency theory thus emphasised that the leadership effectiveness is function of situation or environment that surround the leadership process (Fiedler, 1967). Leadership style according to Ebuta (1992), Atata (1995) and Udegbe (2000) is a term, which encompasses both leadership and administration. They assert further that there are different types of leadership styles, these include democratic, autocratic, Laissez-faire, Idiographic, monothetic, transactional and transformational leadership style. Studies on leadership style indicate that the democratic leadership style tends to induce workers satisfaction, productivity, commitment and support. Blau and Scolt (1963) and Akintayo (2003) assert that the effect of workers of democratic leadership was an increased productivity, cooperation and commitment to work while there is a reduction in productivity, commitment of workers and lack of support under the autocratic (nomothetic) leader.

However, certain functions such as planning, organising, directing, coordinating and controlling are central management functions which leaders and subordinates have to perform. The administrators who encourage workers to participate in planning the organisational goals tend to gain their support and commitment. In support of this view, Ozigi (1977), Obilade (1989) and Akintayo (2003) assert that when workers participate in decision-making their enthusiasm for accepting and implementing the recommendations on planned organisational programme often increase.

In the recent literature which addressed the effect of gender on leadership effectiveness, the findings indicated there were no significant differences on any of the variables between men and women and that in comparable leadership positions, men and women, were more alike than different in terms of performance and effectiveness, (Babajide, 2000, Yonlonfoun, 2002, Ogunsanwo, 1993). Stereotypically, it might be expected that women would be rated higher on the human resource frame which emphasises interpersonal relationship and feelings and lower on the political frame, which emphasises conflict and competition (Bolman and Deal, 1984). This however was

not the case. Women were rated significantly higher than men on the structural, political and symbolic leadership frames in their study in 1991, but in the 1992 study, women were on average, rated significantly higher than men in every frame. Similarly, Ajayi (1981) and Etta (2000) also report that many of the leadership behaviours and styles did not vary across gender. Both men and women performed a variety of leadership functions that overlapped stereotypic gender usage, forming a balanced leadership traits for achieving organisational goals.

In contrast to the above researches, there have been studies supporting gender differences in leadership style. Stathan (1987) in a study of two sex-differentiated management styles, observes that women were more likely to use styles involving the completion of tasks and interpersonal competencies with subordinates while men were more likely to utilise a "hands-off" approach, keeping distance from the subordinates and using their power as authority. Meta-analytic evidence that women are slightly more likely than men to lead in the ways that managerial experts consider particularly effective and that have been shown to be effective in research on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Lowe and others., 1996). Given both advantage and disadvantage, how do female leaders fare relative to their male counterparts? This question should be addressed with direct assessments of effectiveness on appropriate measures, including performance appraisals and objective outcome measures.

From the findings presented on prejudice, it would be reasonable to expect that the relative success of women and men in leadership roles depend on context. In masculine contexts, prejudicial reactions not only restrict women's access to leadership roles, but also can reduce the effectiveness of women who attain these roles (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Testing this role incongruity hypothesis, Eagly et al. (1995) conducted a meta-analysis that included 96 studies that compared the effectiveness of male and female leaders. As required to properly assess reactions to actual leadership, the review contained only studies that did not artificially equate male and female behaviour. In these 74 organisational and 22 laboratory studies, the male and female leaders held the same role, which was sometimes given a general definition (e.g. middle managers in one

or more industries) and sometimes a specific definition (e.g. elementary school principals in a particular city). Most of these studies used subjective ratings of performance or effectiveness, and some included more objective measures. It is of course likely that subjective ratings of effectiveness were biased to some extent, given the demonstration of some gender bias in the evaluation of leaders in the Eagly et al (1992) meta-analysis of Goldberg paradigm experiments.

The results of these studies proved to be quite heterogeneous. Nevertheless, moderating variables successfully predicted the effect sizes, revealing support for the incongruity hypothesis that women are relatively less effective in leadership roles defined in especially masculine terms and more effective in roles defined in less masculine terms. The following findings were consistent with these expectations:

(a) women were less effective than men to the extent that leadership positions were male dominated;

(b) women were less effective relative to men as the proportion of male subordinates increased;

(c) women were less effective relative to men the greater the proportion of men among the raters of leader effectiveness (Bowen, Swim and Jacobs, 2000);

(d) women were substantially less effective than men in military organisations, a traditionally masculine environment, but modestly more effective than men in educational, governmental, and social service organisations;

(e) women fared particularly well in effectiveness, relative to men, in middle-level leadership positions, as opposed to line or supervisory positions. This finding is consistent with the characterisation of middle management as favouring interpersonal skills that are in the more communal repertoire (Paolillo, 1981).

Eagly et al (1995) ran six additional tests based on a group of respondents' ratings of each of the leadership roles in the meta-analytic sample of effectiveness studies. These ratings were correlated with the studies' effect sizes, which represented the comparison between male and female leaders' effectiveness. Although Vecchio (2002) criticised Eagly et al (1995) for using University students as raters, young adults have

experience with managers in many educational and business settings. More important, Eagly et al based their conclusions not merely on analyses using these ratings, but also on the relations between the coded study attributes and studies' outcomes.

These respondents rated the leadership roles on three types of measures:

(a)   how competent they thought they would be in each role and how interested they would be in performing each role;

(b)   how interested the average man and the average woman would be in occupying each role, and

(c)   how much each role required the ability to direct and control people and the ability to cooperate and get along with other people.

Roles were considered congruent with the male gender role to the extent that the male respondents indicated more competence and interest in them, the roles were perceived as more interesting to the average man, and the roles were seen as requiring the ability to direct and control people. Roles were considered congruent with the female gender role to the extent that the female respondents indicated more competence and interest in them, the roles were perceived as more interesting to the average woman, and the roles were seen as requiring the ability to cooperate and get along with others.

In view of the consistent results produced by these 11 moderating variables (five based on coded study attributes and six on ratings of the leadership roles), clearly the mean sex difference in effectiveness in the meta-analysis depends on the balance of masculine or feminine leadership roles that happened to be represented in the sample of studies. Overall, there was no difference in the effectiveness of male and female leaders ($d=$'0.02, indicating no significantly greater female effectiveness). Nonetheless, consistent with the prejudice documented in the prior section of this article, women do fare worse than men in masculine settings. However, perhaps because of an advantage accorded by their tendency toward a transformational (and contingent reward) leadership style, they fare somewhat better than men in less masculine settings. In general, gender appears to be consequential in relation to leaders' effectiveness.

Finally, people's perceptions of female advantage must be framed by the well-known history of concrete walls and glass ceilings that have restricted women from positions that carry substantial authority. Therefore, research findings or everyday observations suggesting equality between women and men in their effectiveness as leaders likely appear notable because men might be expected to be generally more able than women to justify their greater success in obtaining higher-level leadership roles. In addition, because social perceivers often believe that women in extremely male-dominated positions have had to overcome very strong barriers, they may occasionally accord such women competence beyond what they accord to equivalent men (Heilman, Martell, and Simon, 1988). This effect presumably occurs because perceivers augment the causal importance of a force (i.e. task competence) that they believe has prevailed over a countervailing force i.e. discrimination; (Kelley, 1972).

The idea that women are effective leaders has jumped from the writers of feminist trade books on management (Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1995) to the mainstream press and is steadily making its way into the popular culture. Articles in newspapers and business magazines reveal a cultural realignment in the United States that proclaims a new era for female leaders. As business Week announces that women have the "Right Stuff" (Sharpe, 2000), Fast Company concurs that "the future of business depends on women" (Hefferman, 2002:9). Even more startling is Business Week's subsequent cover story on the "New Gender Gap, "maintaining that "Men could become losers in a global economy that values mental power over might" (Conlin, 2003:78).

The sharp edge of these female advantage articles must be quite baffling to the many academic leadership researchers who have argued that gender has little relation to leadership style and effectiveness (Dobbins and Platz, 1986; Powell, 1990). They might be tempted to conclude that in our postmodernist world the voices of social scientists have not been accorded any special authority. However, to earn the trust of journalists and the public, leadership researchers must approach these issues with sophisticated enough theories and methods that they illuminate the implications of gender in organisational life. Toward this goal, we show that a careful sifting through social

scientific evidence, separating wheat from chaff, suggests that contemporary journalists, while surely conveying too simple a message, are expressing some of the new realities associated with women's rise into elite leadership roles.

To address these issues, researchers must confront the perennially important issue of what behaviours characterise effective leaders. Is it the firm execution of authority over subordinates or the capacity to support and inspire them? More likely, as situational theories of leadership contend (Chemers, 1997), the effectiveness of leader behaviours depends on contextual variables, such as the nature of the task and the characteristics of the followers. Yet, historically, leadership has been construed as primarily a masculine enterprise, and many theories of leadership have focused on the desirability of stereotypically masculine qualities in leaders (Miner, 993). Nevertheless, it is probable that stereotypically feminine qualities of cooperation, mentoring, and collaboration are important to leadership as well, certainly in some contexts and perhaps increasingly in contemporary organisations. The increase in female leaders has been accompanied by changes in theories and practices of leadership. Whereas in the past, leaders based their authority mainly on their access to political, economic, or military power, in post-industrial societies leaders share power far more and establish many collaborative relationships (Lipman-Blumen, 1996).

Therefore, contemporary views of good leadership encourage teamwork and collaboration and emphasise the ability to empower, support, and engage workers (Hammer and Champy, 1994; Senge, 1994). These contemporary approaches to leadership not only recommend a reduction in hierarchy but also place the leader more in the role of coach or teacher than previous models of leadership. Although the bone of contention vary, most such discussions emphasise that leader roles are changing to meet the demands of greatly accelerated technological growth, increasing workforce diversity, intense competitive pressures on corporations and other organisations, and a weakening of geopolitical boundaries. As Kanter (1997: 59) wrote:

Managerial work is undergoing such enormous and rapid

change that many managers are reinventing their profession

as they go. With little precedent to guide them, they are

watching hierarchy fade away and the clear distinctions of

title, task, department, even corporation, blur. Faced with

extraordinary levels of complexity and interdependency, they

watch traditional sources of power erode and the old motivational

tools lose their magic.

Is it possible that the changing nature of managerial work accords female leaders some advantages that they did not possess in the past? As explained in this study, social scientists have often emphasised the prejudicial disadvantages that women face because of the construal of leadership in masculine terms. The extent that modern characterisations of effective leadership have become more consonant with the female gender role, the female disadvantage may be eroding. The gradual erosion of female disadvantage would be consonant with the emphasis of many popular mass-market management books on traditionally feminine communal behaviour, involving creating a sense of community, empowering subordinates, and communicating and listening effectively. Indeed, writers of popular books on leadership have argued that effective leadership is congruent with the ways that women lead (Book, 2000; Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1995). For example, Rosener (1995) labeled women's leadership as interactive, involving collaboration and empowerment of employees, and men's leadership as command-and-control, involving the assertion of authority and the accumulation of power.

The argument that women face disadvantage from a prejudicial reluctance to give them Workplace authority, especially authority over men, rests on a wide range of social science evidence (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Eagly and Carl (2003) framed this evidence in terms of Eagly and Karau's role congruity theory, whereby the requirements of the female gender role and of leader roles are often inconsistent. Given such inconsistency, women are generally perceived as possessing less leadership ability than equivalent men and their leader behaviour is evaluated less favourably than equivalent behaviour enacted

by men. Although it is argued as well that prejudice against female leaders has lessened over time, present-day legal challenges to discriminatory practices and much other suggest that in many organisations women do not have equitable access to managerial roles.

The strength of the evidence for continuing female disadvantage makes Eagly et al (2003) leadership style findings especially provocative. Eagly and Carl (2003) also agree with Vecchio regarding the importance of human capital variables and, indeed, have argued that women's lower wages can be attributed in part to women possessing less job experience and consistency of employment than men. The acknowledged contribution of human capital factors does not, however, discount the contribution of discrimination to women's lower pay and authority, as Vecchio implies that it does. Although Blau and Kahn (2000), whom Vecchio (2003) cites, did argue that the gender gap in pay related to sex differences in occupation and industry, they also pointed out that women's placement in particular occupations and industries may reflect discrimination.

In addition, there is little evidence that employed women choose to avoid occupational leadership because they are married, have children, or have a disproportionate amount of domestic responsibilities (Smith, 2002; Wright, Baxter and Birkelund, 1995). Moreover, research reveals that women receive fewer job benefits than men for comparable investments in human capital. For example, although female managers do not quit their jobs more often than male managers (Lyness and Judiesch, 2001), these women are penalised more than their male counterparts in terms of lost wages when they quit and then obtain a new position (Keith and McWilliams, 1999).

Before reviewing research on how gender impinges on leadership, some considerations are given to the methods by which we draw our conclusions. Popular writing typically has relied on qualitative analyses or on surveys or interviews with select groups of women leaders (Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1990, 1995). Although such approaches can illustrate many of the concerns and experiences of women leaders, they do not allow systematic examination of sex differences and similarities. In contrast, social

scientific research has explored gender effects on leadership through a wide variety of research methodologies in many hundreds of studies.

Making use of large numbers of studies is a formidable task. Using narrative methods, some reviewers qualitatively analyse groups of studies to identify common themes or patterns in the findings. Such reviews have value principally when there are few studies that have addressed a particular question. Alternatively, reviewers summarise studies using meta analysis, which quantitatively combines the results of individual studies (Lipsey and Wilson, 2001). This method is especially useful for integrating large numbers of studies, which would quickly overwhelm reviewers' abilities to produce accurate generalisations from more intuitive, narrative summaries.

In meta-analyses, the outcome of each study is computed using the common metric of effect sizes, which in reviews of gender and leadership generally take the form of a standardise difference (or d), defined as the difference between the mean scores of women and men (e.g. on a measure of leadership style) divided by the pooled standard deviation. The goal of meta-analysis is to combine study findings to yield measures of the average magnitude of an effect and, even more important, to statistically test whether variation in these findings can be accounted for by the characteristics of the studies themselves. To help readers of the Leadership Quarterly evaluate meta-analyses pertaining to gender and leadership, Vecchio's (2002) offered a very short primer on how to judge their quality:

1. Evaluate whether a meta-analyst conducted an extensive enough search that virtually all-relevant studies likely were identified. The search should encompass unpublished studies, to lessen publication bias (Sutton, Song, Gilbody, and Abrams, 2000). Multiple databases should be searched as well as the reference lists of existing reviews and all located studies. The exclusion of studies that tested the hypothesis of interest requires a defensible justification. Of course, the cardinal rule of meta-analysis is that all data sets that are included address the same hypothesis.

2.   Determine whether at lease two independent judges who achieved high inter

judge   reliability coded the studies extensively enough to represent the differences in

        studies' attributes, including features relevant to study quality.

3.   Appraise whether a meta-analyst thoroughly analyzed the database of studies'

        effect sizes and coded attributes. Central tendencies of the effect sizes should be

        presented, accompanied by counts of studies producing findings in each direction.

        The meta-analyst should calculate all possible models relating study attributes to

                the effect sizes and report the significant models.

4.   Consider whether a meta-analyst appropriately discussed and interpreted the size

                of effects, the relations between studies' attributes and the effect sizes,

        strengths and weaknesses of the studies, and the theoretical and practical

                implications of the findings.

        To illustrate these criteria, Dobbins and Platz's (1986) meta-analysis of sex

differences in leadership style and effectiveness is compared with those of Eagly and

Johnson (1990) on leadership style and of Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) on

leaders' effectiveness. Dobbins and Platz located 17 documents, yielding 8 studies of

leadership style and 16 studies of the effectiveness of leaders or satisfaction with leaders'

performance. In contrast, Eagly and Johnson located 161 documents, yielding 162

studies of style, and Eagly et al located 87 documents, yielding 96 studies of

effectiveness (including satisfaction with leaders' performance). The discrepancy in the

number of studies derives primarily from the far more thorough search procedures of

Eagly and her colleagues.

        In addition to using minimalist search procedures, Dobbins and Platz (1986)

failed to code the included studies. They presented only means and variabilities of the

effect sizes and dispatched discussion of these findings in three paragraphs, one of which

called for a moratorium on research comparing male and female leaders. In contrast, the

Eagly and Johnson (1990) and Eagly et al (1995) meta-analyses included:

(a)   extensive coding of the studies by two judges who achieved adequate intercoder

        reliability;

(b)   the computation of all possible models relating study attributes to the effect sizes and the presentation of the significant models and

(c)   a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses and the theoretical and practical implications of their findings.

The most startling defect of the Dobbins and Platz (1986) review is its inclusion of studies with designs inappropriate to drawing conclusions about sex differences in leaders' style or effectiveness. Reviews of these questions should include only studies that allowed leader behaviour to vary naturally and omit those that constrained or manipulated leader behaviour.

However, Dobbins and Platz included seven experimental studies featuring male and female behaviour that had been made artificially equivalent by presenting participants with:

(a)   standardised written descriptions of leader behaviour ascribed to a man or woman (Bartol   and Butterfield, 1976; Butterfield and Powell, 1981; frasher and Frasher, 1980;   Rosen and Jerdee, 1973);

(b)   male or female experimental confederates who had been carefully trained to lead in a particular style (Lee and Alvares, 1977); or

(c)   videotapes of a man or woman portraying a leader by delivering the exact same script (Welsh, 1979).

These studies holding male and female behaviour constant and varying only sex were variants of the Goldberg paradigm, designed to investigate biases in perceptions of equivalent male and female leader behaviour (Goldberg, 1968). Despite the fact that 41% of the included studies deliberately insured the actual equivalence of male and female behaviour, Dobbins and Platz (1986) announced conclusions about sex differences in leadership style and effectiveness. Vecchio (2002) repeatedly cited this defective meta-analysis to support his views and even maintained that "Dobbins and Platz can be applauded for focusing their analysis on more rigorous published studies" (p.651). In this statement, he also wrongly maintained that published studies are more rigorous than unpublished ones, which primarily consist of dissertations. In contrast, meta-

analysts judge study quality, not by publication status, but by coding of quality-relevant study attributes.

We rely on high-quality meta-analytic reviews because of their advantages in producing valid conclusions from large research literatures. Of course, questions concerning gender and leadership, as with any social science research question, are best derived from a variety of different and valuable methods: true experiments, quasi-experiments, organisational studies, survey research, and studies using aggregate social statistics such as wages. Both convergent and divergent findings across differing methods can yield important information.

Experiments can be useful for their excellent internal validity, especially when they are considered in the context of studies using methods with excellent external validity, albeit lesser internal validity (e.g. organisational studies, survey research). Vecchio's (2002) suspicion of true experiments derives in part from his inaccurate opinion that they are conducted in laboratories with impoverished stimuli. Instead, experiments are defined only by manipulated independent variables and the random assignment of participants to conditions. The stimuli may be complex (e.g. realistic job resumes, videotaped interviews) or simple (e.g. brief descriptions of leaders). The participants can be managers or other non-student groups, and the sites include organisations and other non-laboratory settings. In contrast to Vecchio's tilt toward organisational studies, we thus adopt an ecumenical approach toward research evidence.

2.2   Leadership Style and Workers' Commitment

Leadership can be broadly defined as the relationship between an individual and a group built around some common interest wherein the group behaves in a manner directed or determined by the leader. The leader thus becomes the interpreter of the interests and objectives of the group, as the group in turn recognises and accepts the interpreter as its spokesperson (Aquino, 1985).

Leadership in an institutional setting is the result of the way principals use themselves to create a school climate that is characterised by staff productivity, student productivity, and creative thought (Ubben and Hughes, 1987). Consequently, the principal's qualities and behaviour determine to a large degree how the subordinates feel about their organisation (Eblen, 1987). A particular leadership style may either foster or hinder teachers' commitment.

The style of the leader is considered to be particularly important in achieving organisational goals (Obadara, 2006) and so it is not astonishing that many studies endeavour to categorise leadership style. Leadership style is categorised into six: democratic, autocratic, laissez faire, manipulative, transactional and transformational leadership styles, following Bass (1985a) and Bass and Avolio (1994). These style categories have been widely applied in training efforts and evaluation studies as well as a typology in academic research.

Democratic Leadership Style

The **democratic leadership style** consists of the leader sharing the decision-making abilities with group members by promoting the interests of the group members and by practicing social equality.

This style of leadership encompasses discussion, debate and sharing of ideas and encouragement of people to feel good about their involvement. The boundaries of democratic participation tend to be circumscribed by the organisation or the group needs and the instrumental value of people's attributes (skills, attitudes, etc.). The democratic style encompasses the notion that everyone, by virtue of their human status, should play a part in the group's decisions. However, the democratic style of leadership still requires guidance and control by a specific leader. The democratic style demands the leader to make decisions on who should be called upon within the group and who is given the right to participate in, make and vote on decisions.

Research has found that this leadership style is one of the most effective that it creates higher productivity, better contributions from group members and increased group morale. Democratic leadership can lead to better ideas and more creative solutions to problems because group members are encouraged to share their thoughts and ideas. While democratic leadership is one of the most effective leadership styles, it does have some potential downsides. In situations where roles are unclear or time is of the essence, democratic leadership can lead to communication failures and uncompleted projects. Democratic leadership works best in situations where group members are skilled and eager to share their knowledge. It is also important to have plenty of time to allow people to contribute, develop a plan and then vote on the best course of action.

Autocratic Leadership Style

This leadership style is also referred to as **authoritarian or** dictatorial style of leadership. It is leader centred; the leader with this style believes in force, he issues instructions that must be obeyed. This is somebody who finds if difficult to trust others more than anything else. He dose not believe that any other person can perform. He therefore holds his responsibiliities and information to himself. He imposses strict control and makes decisions on his own without explanation. Under this style, communication flows from the top downward with little or no feedback from subordinates. The only advantage of this style is that, it allows fast decision-making. This is because of their single-handedly decides the approch to use in the organisation.   This style would also be approprate for directing beginning teachers in the school setting because of their inexperience they tend to need more direction.The research shows that the autocratic leadership style is preferable to a democratic one for the achievement of tasks. People love democracy but it does not mean that it leads to more productivity.

Laissez-faire Leadership Style

The **laissez-faire leadership style** was first described by Lewin, Lippitt, and White in 1938, along with the autocratic leadership and the democratic leadership styles. The laissez faire style is sometimes described as a "hands off" leadership style because

the leader delegates the tasks to their followers while providing little or no direction to the followers. If the leader withdraws too much from their followers it can sometimes result in lack of productivity, cohesiveness, and satisfaction

Laissez-faire leaders allow followers to have complete freedom to make decisions concerning the completion of their work. The leader allows followers a high degree of autonomy and self-rule, while at the same time offering guidance and support when requested. The laissez-faire leader using guided freedom provides the followers with all materials necessary to accomplish their goals, but does not directly participate in decision making unless the followers request their assistance.

This is an effective style to use when: followers are highly skilled, experienced, and educated; Followers have pride in their work and the drive to do it successfully on their own; outside experts, such as staff specialists or consultants are being used; Followers are trustworthy and experienced. This style should not be used when followers feel insecure at the unavailability of a leader. The leader cannot or will not provide regular feedback to their followers.

Manipulative Leadership Style

In this type of leadership, the leader makes his desire known to the group members and once his plan are ratified by a committee in the organisation, the committee would have no choice than approving the proposal since the committee members are appointed by the leader. At times, the leader may request for suggestions and opinions of the group members after making his desire or proposal known to them. No doubt that this leadership is full of pretence and deceit. The leader with this type wastes the precious time of his subordinate in deliberating on issues he has concluded. He at times plants his supporters in strategic location and encourages factions in the organisation. He usually uses "divide and rule tactics" as his weapon of coordination.

Transactional

The **transactional style of leadership** was first described by Max Weber in 1947 and then later described by Bernard Bass in 1981. Mainly used by management, transactional leaders focus their leadership on motivating followers through a system of rewards and punishments. There are two factors which form the basis for this system, Contingent Reward and Management-by-exception.

- **Contingent Reward** provides rewards, materialistic or psychological, for effort and recognises good performance.
- **Management-by-Exception** allows the leader to maintain the status quo. The leader intervenes when subordinates do not meet acceptable performance levels and initiates corrective action to improve performance.

Transactional leadership style emphasises task structuring and its accomplishment and focuses on the exchange that take place between a leader and followers (Bass 1998). The "transactions" or relationship between the leader and follower are enhanced by a sequence of bargains (Den Hartog,Van Muijen, and Koopman, 1997) and involved the use of incentives to influence effort as well as clarification of the work needed to obtain reward (Bass 1985). Field and Herold (1997) note this when they describe transactional as a reward driven behaviour, where the follower behaves in such a manner so as to elicit reward or support from the leader. This leadership style focuses on follower motivation through (extrinsic) reward or discipline. Consequently, leaders who adopt this style of leadership clarify kinds of rewards and punishments that followers expect for various behaviours (Bass, 1998). Leader and subordinate could be viewed as bargaining agent whose relative power regulates and exchange process as benefits are issued and received. Thus a follower may follow a leader so long as that leader is perceived to be in position to deliver some important needs. Transactional leadership is based on the notion of a social exchange; leaders control followers' behaviours by imposing authority and power on one hand and satisfying followers' needs on the other. That is, leaders offer organisational resources in exchange for followers' compliance and responsiveness.

Transformational leadership style

There is considerable variation in the way transformational leadership is conceptualised. Bennis's and Goldsmith, (1994) notion of the transformational leader as someone with the ability to reach the souls of their followers has been modified. It has been modified by such authors as Burns (1978), who was first to propose that transformational leadership represents the transcendence of self-interest by the leader and followers. Transformational leaders, according to Burns (1978), are able to ensure that followers are consciously aware of the importance of sharing organisational goals and values. They also find ways to ensure that followers know how to achieve these goals. Burns (1978) further states that transformational leaders motivate their followers to go beyond their own self-interests and give effort on behalf of the organisation by appealing to the higher order needs of followers.

Bass and colleagues (Bass, 1985; Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1995; 1999) have identified five factors which represent the behavioural components of transformational leadership: 1) idealised influence (attributes) 2) Idealised influence (behaviour); 3) inspirational motivation; 4) Intellectual stimulation; and 5) individualised consideration. Idealised influence attributes occur when followers identify with emulate those leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision. Idealised influence behaviour refers to leader behaviour that results in followers identifying with leaders and wanting to emulate them. Inspirational motivation is closely related to idealised influence. It implies that leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Individual consideration occurs when leaders relate to followers on a one-to-one basis in order to elevate goals and develop skills.

Leaders who display individual consideration treat each employee as an individual and are attentive to the unique needs, capabilities and concerns of each individual (Bass, 1985). They also consider the individual's developmental and growth

needs. Managers who demonstrate individualised consideration often coach, mentor, and counsel their subordinates. Leaders manifesting inspirational motivation articulate high expectations to subordinates (Bass 1985). They communicate important issues very simply and use various symbols to focus their efforts. They also demonstrate self-determination and commitment to attaining objectives and present an optimistic and achievable view of the future. A transformational leader provides intellectual stimulation to employees by encouraging them to try out new approaches for solving problems, (Bass, 1985). They challenge the status quo and encourage employees to explore new ways of achieving organisational goals and objectives. Subordinates under such leadership are not hesitant to offer their ideas, become critical in their problem solving and tend to have enhanced thought processes.

Yuki (1989) defines transformational leadership as the process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organisational members and building commitment for the organisation's mission and objectives. Transformational leaders are said to appeal to higher ideals and moral values of followers, heighten their expectations, and spur them to greater effort and performance on behalf of the organisation (Bass, 1990a; Bass and Avolio, 1990b). Bass and Avolio (1990b) suggests that transformational leaders inspire followers with a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort, thus motivating followers to achieve more than they thought they would achieve.

Sergiovanni (1990) considers transformational leadership a first stage and central to getting day-to-day routines carried out. However, Leithwood states it does not stimulate improvement. Mitcell and Tucker add that transformational leadership only works out when both leaders and followers understand and are in agreement about which tasks are important. Leithwood (1992) indicates that transformational leaders pursue three fundamental goals.

1. Helping staff develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture. This means staff members often talk, observe, critique, and plan together. Norms of collective responsibility and continuous improvement encourage them to teach

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each other how to teach better. Transformational leaders involve staff in celebrative goal setting, reduce teacher isolation, use bureaucratic mechanisms to support cultural changes, share leadership with others by delegating power and actively communicate the school's norms and beliefs.

2. Fostering teacher development. One of Leithwoodd's studies suggests that teachers' motivation for development is enhanced when they internalise goals for professional growth. This process, Leithwood found, is facilitated when they are strongly committed to a school mission. When leaders give staff a role to play towards school improvement they should make sure goals are explicit and ambitious but not unrealistic.

3. Helping teachers solve problems more effectively. Transformational leadership is valued by some because it stimulates teachers to engage in new activities and put forth that "extra effort" Leithwood (1993). Also, Leithwood (1994) observes that transformational leaders use practices primarily to help staff members work smarter, not harder. "These leaders share a genuine belief that their staff members as a group could develop better solutions than the principal could alone", concludes Leithwood.

    Strategies adopted by transformational leaders include:

    - Visit each classroom every day; assist in classrooms; encourage teachers to visit one another's classes.

    - Involve the whole staff in deliberating on school goals, beliefs and visions at the beginning of the year.

    - Help teachers work smarter by actively seeking different interpretations and checking out assumptions; place individual problems in the large perspective of the whole school; avoid commitment to preconceived solutions; clarify and summarise key points during meetings; and keep the group on task but do not impose your own perspective.

- Use action research teams or school improvement teams as a way of sharing power. Give everyone responsibilities and involve staff in governance functions. For those not participating, ask them to be in charge of a committee.

- Find the good things that are happening and publicly recognise the work of staff and students who have contributed to school improvement. Write private notes to teachers expressing appreciation for special efforts.

- Survey the staff often about their wants and needs. Be receptive to teachers' attitudes and philosophies. Use active listening and show people you truly care about them.

- Let teachers experiment with new ideas. Share and discuss research with them. Propose questions for people to think about.

- Bring workshops to your school where it's comfortable for staff to participate. Get teachers to share their talents with one another. Give a workshop yourself and share information with staff on conferences that you attend.

- When hiring new staff, let them know you want them actively involved in school decision-making; hire teachers with a commitment to collaboration. Give teachers the option to transfer if they can't wholly commit themselves to the school's purposes.

- Have high expectations for teachers and students, but don't expect 100 per-cent if you aren't willing to give the same. Tell teachers you want them to be the best teachers they possibly can be.

- Use bureaucratic mechanisms to support teachers, such as finding money for a project or providing time for collaborative planning during the workday. Protect teachers from the problems of limited time, excessive paperwork and demands from other agencies.

- Let teachers know they are responsible for all students, not just their own classes.

Evidence of the effects of transformational leadership, according to Leithwood (1992), is "uniformly positive". He cites two findings from his own studies (1) transformational leadership practices have a sizable influence on teacher collaboration,

and (2) significant relationships exist between aspects of transformational leadership and teachers' own reports of changes in both attitudes towards school improvement and altered instructional beahviour.

Sergiovanni (1990) remarks that student achievement can be 'remarkably improved" by such leadership while Sagor (1992) observes that schools where teachers and students reported a culture conducive to school success had a transformational leader as its principal.

In addition, transformational leaders have the ability to motivate their subordinates to commit themselves to performance beyond expectations (Bass, 1990a; Bryman, 1992; Howell and Avolio, 1992). According to Bass (1990b), this occurs in three main ways. First, it is by raising the level of awareness of the objective of the organisation and how it is to be achieved. Second, it is to encourage co-workers to put the organisation's objective above their own personal interests. Finally the leaders have to satisfy and stimulate people's higher-order needs. To accomplish these results, transformational leaders must possess and display four characteristics namely idealised influence or charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1985; 1990b; Bass and Avolio, 1990a; 1990b).

Leaders demonstrating idealising influence or charisma have a vision, a strong influence and a sense of mission (Bass, 1990a; Bass and Avolio, 1990a). They also instill pride in their subordinates and command respect. Employees have a high level of trust and confidence in such leaders, tend to adopt their vision, seek to identify with them, and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. A charismatic leader does not derive his/her authority and the legitimisation of his/her leadership from rules, position or tradition, but from the followers' trust in him. The leader's power is personal and due to these extraordinary qualities. Leaders who encourage their followers to be innovative and creative provide intellectual stimulation (Bass and Avolio, 1990b).

When the leader prompts the followers to provide alternative solutions to problems and challenges their assumptions, it creates intellectual stimulation. An idealised influence attribute occurs when the followers identify with and emulate the

leader. The followers also tend to trust the leader whom they perceive as someone with an attainable mission and vision. Idealised influence behaviour refers to the leader when the leader's behaviour results in followers identifying with the leader and wanting to emulate him/her. Inspirational motivation is about motivating and inspiring followers and providing challenges and meaning within their work environment.

Leadership theory and research suggest that relationship-oriented leaders treat subordinates with kindness and respect, emphasize communication with and listen to subordinates, show trust and confidence in subordinates, and provide recognition and show appreciation for subordinates' contributions (Likert, 1961, 1967; and Yuki, 1989). Accordingly, subordinates who value interpersonal relations at work are likely to be drawn to relationship-oriented leaders, both because of their similarity in values and because the relationship-oriented leader will help them meet their interpersonal needs. Subordinates who are low in self-esteem may also be drawn to the relationship-oriented leader, expecting the relationship-oriented leader to fill their need for encouragement and self-esteem. Similarly, employees who value security at work may be attracted to relationship-oriented leaders insofar as these leaders foster a supportive, caring work environment, and thus offer socioemotional security to those followers because relationship-oriented leaders keep "subordinates informed, show appreciation for subordinates' ideas, and provide recognition for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments" according to Yuki, (1989) subordinates who value participation in decision-making may prefer relationship oriented leaders because these leaders share their values and are likely to meet their needs for input and involvement.

Conversely, subordinates who value achievement may be put off by the relationship-oriented leader's relative inattention to task accomplishment. Similarly, employees who have a high need for structure may dislike the relationship-oriented leader's focus on employee welfare rather than task structure and guidance. Finally, risk-taking employees may find the relationship-oriented leader too staid in his or her approach. In sum, the relationship-oriented leader's behaviours appear to run counter to these followers' values and may not meet these followers' needs.

Leadership theory and research suggest that, task-oriented leaders guide subordinates in setting performance goals that are high but realistic, plan and schedule the work, provide necessary supplies, equipment, and technical assistance, and coordinate subordinate activities (Likert, 1961, 1967; Yuki, 1989). Task-oriented leaders focus on goal accomplishment should be attractive to subordinates who value achievement, because of both similarity attraction and need fulfillment. Subordinates who have a high need for structure should also be attracted to task-oriented leaders, as these leaders are likely to offer subordinates clear structure and guidelines for task accomplishment. So, too many followers who value the intrinsic rewards that come from task accomplishment may be attracted to task-oriented leaders because they have a similar task-focus at work. Also, followers who value extrinsic rewards may be attracted to task-oriented leaders, as these leaders may appear to offer a road map to the attainment of extrinsic rewards (e.g., bonuses and raises). Finally, task-oriented leaders may create an unambiguous work environment that is attractive to followers who value stability and security at work.

Conversely, subordinates who value interpersonal relations are unlikely to be attracted to task-oriented leaders, as these followers are likely to believe that task-oriented leaders' values differ from their own. Similarly, subordinates who are low in self-esteem are unlikely to be drawn to the task-oriented leader because his/her leadership style will not meet their needs for emotional support. Finally, subordinates who are eager to take risks may dislike the task-oriented leader's focus on routine, not risky, task achievement.

The relational relationship of transformational leaders and their followers is one characterised by pride, and respect (Bass and Avolio, 1990a). The employees often develop a high level of trust and confidence in such a leader. The employees are proud to identify with the leader and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. Transformational leaders therefore do not rely on rules, position or regulations to legitimise their leadership, rather transformational leaders use their component abilities of inspiring, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate leadership to motivate followers to higher levels of achievement. They achieve greater organisational performance by

aligning individuals with the strategic vision, mission, and collective goals of their organisation (Pawar and Eastman, 1997). The ability to implement their vision is affected by the degree to which other managers agree with the vision. Waldman and Yammarino, (1999) suggest that charismatic leaders create greater agreement among direct followers that translates to an overall organisational alignment and cohesion around the vision, strategic priorities and purpose.

Podsakoff, (1990) opines that transformational leaders build trust among followers who can help foster the dissemination of strategic goals to the extent that the followers trust their leaders; they will seek and accept more information from them. Such leaders are seen as credible sources of information and are described by followers as being concerned about their interests as well as the organisation's interests.

Madzar, (2001) reports in a study involving engineers working for a technology organisation that transformational leaders had followers who were more proactive about seeking information from their supervisors as compared with followers of nontransformational leaders.

Transformational leadership style was related positively to greater levels of inquiry concerning technical, performance, referent (pertaining to follower role demands), as well as social type of information. Followers of transformational leaders had higher levels of interest in seeking work-related information to accomplish their goals and objectives than followers of non-transformational leaders (Madzar, 2001).

Effective strategy implementation involves integration and alignment of internal operations which is expected to result in increased performance (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). We expect that transformational leaders will focus on aligning other managers with the goals of their organisation. Such leaders are more effective in articulating strategic visions and missions, while promoting an environment for learning them, and hence would be more effective disseminators of strategic goals. Transformational executives will have followers who are also more in agreement about the organisation's strategic goals, as they are typically more involved in their creation and implementation (Cannela and Monroe, 1997).

While transformational leadership may be associated with creating agreement on strategic outcomes, we believe that effective dissemination of organisational goals also depends on the communication skills of leaders. Support for potential links between leadership and communication styles comes from prior research linking communication skills with leadership processes. Barge and Hirokawa (1989) observe how an individual verbally expresses himself or herself was associated with leader effectiveness and emergence, Johnson and Bechler (1998) found that emerging leaders in student teams displayed more effective listening skills than team members who did not emerge as leaders. Baum, Locke, and Kirkpatrick (1998) reported that visionary leadership and communication skills were associated with unit and organisational performance outcomes.

Conger and Kanungo (1998) argue that the style of oral communication is a critical distinguishing factor in whether the leader's message will be recalled and embraced by followers. Garland, (2001) argues that "successful articulation and enactment of a leader's vision may rest on his or her followers' ability to paint followers' a verbal picture of what can be accomplished with their help.

Further, transformational leaders are expected to use their communication skills to articulate organisational goals more effectively than other leaders. They do so by first aligning their followers around the mission by emphasising how each of them can contribute to the strategic mission. They help their followers learn the organisation's mission and vision through individualised and then adjust their messages accordingly to build higher levels of identification between the follower and the mission.

Klauss and Bass report that leaders rated as more particupative and delegative were also evaluated as being careful transmitters of information and effective listeners. Such leaders promoted open and two-way communications with their followers to achieve objectives.

Leadership Styles within Academic Institutions

According to Bryman (1992), transformational forms of leadership have only recently become the subject of systematic inquiry in educational contexts, although it has been studied extensively within business settings. The studies of leadership within an educational context are important for several reasons. Educational institutions, especially higher education institutions, which use public funds, are under scrutiny and are pressurised to produce value for money performance (Bass and Goldman, 2001; Pounder, 2001). Expectations are that these institutions should operate as "business units" making profit. This has led to a tendency to transfer commercial business models into the educational arena. As Bass and Goldman (2001) have put it, a new managerial culture, which promotes economic efficiency and bottom line results, dominates both policy and practice often overriding most concerns for social goals, quality of teaching and research and internal human relations, is being adopted in higher education. As a result, leaders within academic institutions struggle to respond to business pressures of controlling costs, maintaining enrolment, and fundraising while managing employees who often do view business interests as secondary to academic freedom.

As a sub-discipline or content area of leadership studies, educational leadership is still in its infancy. Most of the empirical studies conducted have been done in schools with a limited number of studies concentrating on higher education (Brown and Mowen 2002). While it is acknowledged that the organisational cultural legacies and leadership within schools and higher education institutions may be different, Bess and Goldman (2001) point out that professors and teachers have much in common. Both do work with a significant cognitive and intellectual content and have substantial independence and autonomy where they work closely with students and associate with their own peers. Professors and teachers enjoy a tenure system that provides job security and a buffer that characterises their profession and the leadership context.

Based on Bass and Goldman's (2001) arguments, it is assumed that the common goal of education pursued by both types of institutions might allow for comparisons or generalisation from one to the other.

Educational leadership researchers have drawn selectively from the broader perspectives or approach to leadership and concentrated mainly on transformational and charismatic leadership. A review of the literature indicates a limited number of papers focusing on the efficacy of transformational and transactional leadership in the context of higher education. In a study of principals of 89 high schools, Koh, Steers and Telbord (1995), observe that transformational leadership behaviours hold an additive effect on outcomes such as satisfaction and effectiveness. In another study of 440 University faculty members, Brown and Mowen (2002) show that the idealised influence or charisma factor of transformational leadership was significantly predictive of desired organisational outcomes. Using the MLQ, they observe that the aggregated measure of transformational leadership is significantly related to the faculty's satisfaction, their perceptions of their organisation's effectiveness and their willingness to expend extra effort.

Leithwood and his colleagues, with their research with schools, also contributed a great deal towards our understanding of transformational leadership within an educational environment. Leithwood (1994) shows that transformational leadership practices had significant direct and indirect effects on progress within school restructuring initiatives and teacher perceptions of student outcomes. Leithwood (1994) synthesises the effects of transformational leadership on organisational aspects such as the purpose, people, structures and culture. His summary shows that a transformational leader shares the school's vision with the individuals within the school and that he also shares the responsibility and decision making power with staff.

Skills and Knowledge Required for Executive Position

To understand the significance of professional development to all administrators, it is important to understand their responsibilities. In any consideration of administrative responsibilities, it is impossible to separate leadership and administrative responsibilities, since most leaders also must manage and most managers must occasionally lead.

Administrators, particularly senior executives, are responsible for developing visions and goals and for achieving them. Although others may actually run the systems

and tend the processes, the senior officers are ultimately responsible for the operations that enable the complex enterprise of the modern college or University to function. The senior officers are responsible for the interrelationship between the environment and the institution. They must develop the people; provide a working climate and good communications.

Gender Differences and Similarities in Leadership Style

The question of whether women and men differ in leadership style is an issue that many researchers have addressed, primarily with organisational studies. Although Vecchio (2002) questioned the value of this research because job descriptions do not ordinarily stipulate particular styles, it is believed that this research is important, well beyond its potential to yield 'developmental insights related to the understanding of others and one's self' (Vecchio, 2002; 649). Job candidates' leadership styles are surely among the attributes given special scrutiny in interviews of candidates for managerial positions, and managers fired from their positions are often critiqued for their leadership styles (e.g. faulty 'top-down management style,' Steinberg, 2003).

Moreover, the impetus of this research investigates whether the dearth of women in high level positions could be explained by their leading with styles that are less effective than those of their male counterparts, and in other cases, to investigate whether women possessed superior leadership styles.

Public Perception of Men and Women

Although Vecchio (2003) disparages the views of journalists and the general public, a cautiously respectful stance is recommended toward them. This recommendation derives in part from research on stereotyping, especially on gender stereotypes, which reveals that cultural stereotypes are, on average, quite accurate in reflecting group differences (Hall and Carter, 1999; Ryan, 2003). Researchers should thus consider whether public perceptions and journalistic claims offer hypotheses worthy of testing.

Whereas the public often departs from scientific evidence on matters that its members cannot directly observe (e.g. the origins of the human species), their views on the characteristics of male and female behaviour are generally astute, no doubt because they observe both sexes on an everyday basis. Therefore, if journalists and the general public seem willing to entertain the idea of female leadership advantage based on leadership style, researchers should take note and submit new hypotheses to systematic tests. Scholars of leadership should also contemplate the abundant evidence of women rising into positions of greater authority and elucidate the mechanisms that underlie this rise.

There is evidence that the way in which college presidents approach leadership issues is rapidly changing. Vaughan (1986) notes that images of community college presidents have undergone a dramatic metamorphosis over the last thirty years, keeping pace with the changes the colleges themselves have made. Familiar leadership styles have evolved from the stern, "take charge" images often associated with male leaders. Vaughan's work in 1986 and 1989 suggests that each new generation of community college presidents has moved closer to an approach emphasising participatory and shared decision-making. Baker (1992) notes a paradigm shift in leadership style for the 21st century that views leading and managing as a holistic, inclusive process, rather than one in which a single leader's viewpoint dominates.

The approach described by Baker is evidenced in studies of women in leadership roles. Judith Rosener's 1990 business and management study of female and male executives with similar backgrounds concludes that women tend to manage in different ways than men. Female executives were found to be more interested in transforming people's self interest into organisational goals by encouraging feelings of individual self-worth, active participation, and sharing of power and information. On the other hand, she found that men tend to lead through a series of what she identifies as "transactions", concrete exchanges which involved rewarding employees for a job well done and punishing them for an inadequate job performance.

In the context of the issues and trends that shaped the women's movement, Astin and Leland (1991) view leadership development as a "process of empowerment". Their analysis, based on interviews with 75 women representing three generations, focused on women leaders who demonstrated passionate commitment, believed in involving others in the leadership process, and possessed keen self-awareness and interpersonal communication skills. Megatrends for women, published in 1992, supports and expands the concept of a unique leadership style more prevalent among women. Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992) coined the term "women leadership" to describe what they consider to be a personality that reflected women's values and leadership behavioural characteristics. These researchers identified 25 behaviours that characterized women's leadership and clustered them into six central patterns identified as: behaviours that empower, restructure, teach, provide role models, encourage openness, and stimulate questioning.

Two researchers studying leadership in the community college setting are Rosemary Akintayo and Oloyede (2004) and Sandra Acebo Acebo. Akintayo and Oloyede (2004) frame leadership in four ways:

1. taking appropriate risks to bring about change, a "vision" behaviour;

2. providing caring and respect for individual differences, a "people" behaviour;

3. acting collaboratively, an "influence" behaviour; and

4. building trust and openness, a "values" behaviour.

Akintayo and Oloyede's work on behavioural characteristics of leaders revealed that effective leadership is more behaviourally derived than gender based, and that leadership is subject to the dynamics and interactions of people and institutions. In Akintayo and Oloyede's view, leadership depends on situations, not gender. Acebo (1994) has a slightly different perspective, viewing the community college leader as a team leader. He encourages community college leaders to bring shared leadership and accountability into focus within their organisations. She compares and contrasts established leadership models in her work but argues that efforts to create dynamic teams with "synergy" a form of group energy, is part of the paradigm shift taking place in

leadership styles. DiCroce (1995) and Vaughan (1989) suggest ways in which women leaders can influence the culture of the community college and improve future opportunities for women:

1. Encourage elimination of institutional gender stereotypes: As more women become community college presidents, their presence will help chip away at gender barriers and "double standards" that may exist at their institutions.

2. Redefine power and the power structure of the institution: Women presidents are well positioned to model and create a power structure built less on hierarchy and more on relations, with a free exchange of information and an open environment for collegial debate and discussion.

3. Enact gender-related policies and procedures: Women community college presidents are uniquely situated to promote diversity and enforce strong policies on sexual assault and harassment.

4. Raise collegial consciousness and initiate collegial dialogue on gender and related issues: Women leaders can advocate and promote focus groups, brown bag lunches, discussion sessions, and guest speakers on campus to bring updated information to the college community.

5. Take a proactive stance on public policy and debate beyond the local campus: The community college president has an opportunity to mingle and network with a varied population of peers, researchers, legislators and professional associations and continue advocacy efforts for women in the regional, state and national arenas.

Chliwniak, (1997) notes that only 16% of college and University women are presidents, only 13% of chief business officers are women, and only 25% of chief academic officers are women. Yet, women comprise more than 52% of the current student body. While male leadership dominates colleges and universities, concerns regarding administrative procedures that exclude women and create chilly campus climates continue to plague academic institutions. Many believe that by closing the leadership gap, institutions would become more centred on process and persons

(described as feminised concerns) rather than focused on tasks and outcomes (attributed to masculine styles of leadership). Most people are intellectually aware of the complexity of women's situation and recognize that it needs to be viewed in a broad historical context of inclusion and exclusion. By exploring women's place in higher education institutions historically and currently, the lack of women's leadership is analysed to determine the reasons for the gap and persistence factors in maintaining the gap.

Societal and organisational conceptions of leadership vary according to authors' assumptions. However, it is a common motion that leaders are individuals who provide vision and meaning for an institution and embody the ideals toward which the organisation strives. Five common frames of reference for organisational structures inform us that leadership within these structures is traditionally conceived. Most conceptions of organisations assume that leadership emanates from the apex of a hierarchy. A sixth frame, a web of inclusion is offered as an alternative and fermine frame of reference.

A problematic issue is that leadership traditionally has been studied using male norms as the standard for behaviours. As noted by Desjardins, (1989) women adopted male standards of success to better fit into male-dominated hierarchical structures and system's traditional scholars, such as Birnbaum and Mintzberg (1988) view leaders as being alike and genderless. However, scholars such as Tannenbaum and Schmidt, (1985) who researched gender differences, posit that social norms and issues of gender-role ascription create differences between women and men. Gilligan, Ward and Taylors' (1988) research on cognitive development has provided impetus for many of today's scholars to explore and revise leadership, as we knew it. Gilligan argues that a single model of reasoning patterns and stages of moral development fails to capture the different realities of women's lives. By offering two different modes of reasoning patterns, a more complex but better understandable explanation for the human experience would also be more inclusive. Helgesen, (1990) for example, examines how women chief executive officers (CEOs) make decisions, gather and dispense information, delegate tasks, structure their organisations, and motivate their employees. She concludes that women

leaders place more emphasis on relationships, sharing and process, while male CEOs, as per Mintzberg's studies, focus on completing tasks, achieving goals, hoarding of information and winning. Gilligan's work identified a separate development pathway that results in personal and relational responsibility being of highest value for females and legalistic justice for individuals being highest for males. Therefore, as described by several authors, while men are more concerned with systems and rules, women are more concerned with relations and atmosphere.

Many authors have produced scholarship surrounding women's way of knowing compared with men's way of knowing. Recent scholarship speculates how these gender differences impact on the values held by leaders, and how these values influence institutional structures and infrastructures. Chliwniak (1997) observes that if styles and approaches are indistinguishable between women and men, the gender gap is a numerical inequity and should be corrected for ethical reasons. But, if leadership approaches are different, the gender gap may represent an impediment to potential institutional improvements.

Prejudice and Discrimination against Women as Leader

Any female advantage in leadership style might be offset by disadvantage that flows from prejudice and discrimination directed against women as leaders. Prejudice consists of unfair evaluation of a group of people based on stereotypical judgements of the group rather than the behaviour or qualifications of its individual members. When people hold stereotypes about a group, they expect members of that group to characteristics consistent with those stereotypes. Perceivers than tacitly assimilate information to their gender-stereotypic expectations and spontaneously fill in unknown details of others' behaviour to conform to those expectations (Dunning and Sherman, 1997). These stereotypic inferences yield prejudice against individual group members when stereotypes about their group are incongruent with the attributes associated with success in certain classes of social roles. This incongruity tends to produce

discrimination by lowering evaluation of such group members as potential or actual occupants of those roles.

Eagly and Karau (2002) opine incongruity between expectations about women (i.e. the female gender role) and expectations about leaders (i.e., leader roles) underlie prejudice against female leaders. This explanation, based on Eagly's social role theory of sex differences and similarities in social behaviour (Eagly, 1987; Eagly, Wood, and Diekman, 2000) asserts that the activation of beliefs about women and men by gender-related cues influences people to perceive individual women as communal but not very agentic and individual men as agentic but not very communal. Consistent with role incongruity theory, stereotype research reveals that people do consider men to be more agentic than women and women to be more communal than men (Deaux and Kite, 1993). Also, the communal qualities that people associate with women, such as warmth and selflessness, diverge from the agentic qualities, such as assertiveness and instrumentality that people perceive as characteristic of successful leaders. In contrast, the predominantly agentic qualities that people associate with men are similar to the qualities perceived to be needed for success in high status occupations, which would include most managerial occupations (Cejka and Eagly, 1999).

Stereotypes about women and men, like other stereotypes of social groups, appear to be easily and automatically activated (Fiske, 1998). Although stereotypes are not necessarily activated or applied to bias judgments of individuals, many circumstances do favour both activation and application (Conger and Kanungo 1987). Because such circumstances are common, we assume that, in general, perceptions of individual leaders reflect both beliefs about leaders and beliefs about gender. Therefore, it is likely that judgments of female leaders ordinarily manifest an amalgam of the communal traits associated with the female gender role and the agentic traits associated with leadership roles (Heilman, Block, and Martell, 1995). The typical similarity of the male gender role and leader roles requires no such amalgamation.

Ample evidence exists that managers (and undergraduate and graduate business students) link management ability with being male and possessing masculine

characteristics (Powell, Butterfield, and Parent, 2002; Schein, 2001). Also nationally representative survey data reveal greater preference for male than female bosses, although this preference has been decreasing over time (Simmons, 2001). Because of doubts about women's leadership ability, they are generally held to a higher standard of competence than men are. For women to be considered as instrumentally competent as men, perceivers must be given clear evidence of women's greater ability or superior performance compared to their male counterparts (Biernat and Kobrynowicz, 1997; Foschi, 1996; Shackelford, Wood, and Worchel, 1996; Wood and Karten, 1986). Examples of the challenges women face in being perceived as competent leaders include a field study examining judgments of leadership ability among U.S. Army captains attending a leadership-training course.

Despite doubts about women's competence as leaders, one might expect that highly agentic female leaders would be able to overcome such difficulties. However, people may perceive women who demonstrate clear-cut leadership ability as insufficiently feminine. Thus, a female leader can be rejected because people perceive her to lack the agentic qualities associated with effective leadership or because she possesses too many of them. This rejection as "too masculine" results from injective or prescriptive gender role norms – that is, consensual expectations about what men and women ought to-do-that require women to display communal behaviour and not too much agentic behaviour (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Fiske and Taylor 1990). As a result of these injunctive demands, female leaders often receive less favourable reactions than male leaders do for male-stereotypic forms of leadership. This generalisation was confirmed in a meta-analysis of Goldberg paradigm experiments on the evaluation of male and female leaders (Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992). Although the overall bias in favour of men was small (d = 0.05), women received lower evaluations than equivalent men for autocratic leadership (d=0.30) but comparable evaluations for democratic leadership. Also women encounter more dislike and rejection than men do for showing dominance, expressing disagreement, or being highly assertive or self-promoting (Rudman, 1998). In addition, dominance lowers women's but not men's

ability to influence others (Ellyson, Dovidio, and Brown, 1992). Greater penalties against women than men for dominant and assertive behaviours reflect the constraints on women to avoid stereotypically masculine behaviour.

Male-dominated environments can be difficult for women. The Eagly et al (1992) meta analysis of Goldberg paradigm experiments thus demonstrated that female leaders received less favourable evaluations than their equivalent male counterparts in male-dominated leader roles, but were equally evaluated in roles that were not male-dominated. Congruent evidence in survey data emerged from an analysis of the panel Study of Income Dynamics (Hill, 1992), which showed that, despite controls on numerous variables (e.g. human capital, family characteristics, skill requirements of occupations), working in male-dominated occupations increased men's chances of promotions (as assessed by substantial wage increases in successive years), but increased women's chances of leaving their jobs (Maume, 1999). Consistent with such findings, women appear to be disadvantaged in employment contexts in which advancement depends on sex homophilous male networks, which are especially prevalent in environments where men constitute a strong majority (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook, 2001).

In terms of everyday organisational behaviours, discrimination in male-dominated settings occurs through blatant and subtle stereotyping, questioning of women's competence, sexual harassment, and social isolation (Collinson, Knights, and Collinson, 1990; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley, 1997; Kanter, 1977; Martin, 1992). Stereotyping can produce its own reality through expectancy confirmation processes that can derail women's performance in the stereotypic domain (Geis, 1993). In a demonstration of such processes, experiments in the "stereotype threat" paradigm made the female stereotype especially accessible to students by having them view female-stereotypic (vs. neutral) television commercials (Davies and Spencer, 2003). Then in a subsequent procedure portrayed as an unrelated experiment on leadership, the women, but not the men, who had been exposed to the female-stereotypic portrayals, expressed less preference for a leadership role versus a non-leadership role.

In summary, research provides ample demonstration of bias against women as leaders, despite the failure of some reviewers (Arvey and Murphy, 1998) to recognise important moderators of these effects. Conclusions are strengthened by converging results from differing methods – specifically, organisational studies, survey research, and experiments that equate the objective characteristics of men and women. Women thus face discriminatory barriers mainly in male-dominated and masculine environments and with male evaluators. Because higher levels of authority and higher wages are concentrated in such environments and are controlled primarily by men, this prejudice is highly consequential for women's advancement.

Traditional arguments against prejudice as accounting for women's lower wages and lesser workplace authority ascribed these phenomena to women's lesser human capital in terms of education, training, and work experience. However, women's human capital investments have increased (Eagly and Carli, in press). In addition, sex differences in human capital investments account for only a portion of the male-female wage gap (e.g., 21% in O'Neill and Polachek, 1993) and are clearly insufficient to explain women's lesser access to higher-level leadership positions in view of evidence that women receive substantially smaller gains in workplace authority than men do for similar human capital investments (Smith, 2002).

In addition, considerable evidence argues against the "female choice" proposition that family and domestic responsibilities cause employed women to avoid leadership responsibility (Smith, 2002). Paradoxically, the discriminatory disadvantage that women encounter in male-dominated environments can sometimes produce the appearance of a female competence advantage. Given impediments to achieving high-level leadership roles, those women who do rise in such hierarchies are typically the survivors of discriminatory processes and therefore tend to be very competent. This increment of competence, driven at least in part by a double standard, is no doubt one factor underlying social scientific evidence and journalistic claims of female advantage (Eagly and others, 2003; Sharpe, 2000).

Relationship Between Leadership Style And Workers' Commitment

Efficiency of the organisation relies on the leadership style in the organisation (through communicating policies and plans, rules and regulations, offering incentives, instructions, co-operation) and builds efficient work environment which facilitates the employees in a positive way. The pioneer of transactional leadership is Burns (1978). He describes the transactional leadership as the exchange of the relationship between leaders and subordinates. Transactional leadership provides benefit at the achievement of goals and penalties at not achieving the targets. Hellriegel and Slocum, (2006) explain that transactional leadership has three subscale; contingent reward, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive). The Burn's theory of transformational leadership explained that leader has more moral quality and leader scarifices his own interest over the group interest. Transformational leadership theory is the leader's power of motivating the subordinates for achieving more than already planned by followers (Krishnan, 2004). Avolio and Bass in 1988 and 1994 classified the leadership skills into 4 I's including Idealised influence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation and Individualised consideration.

Researchers paid more attention on the transactional and transformational leadership. The behaviour of a leader is a strong determinant of organisation success (Laohavichien et al., 2009). Transformational leadership encourages the subordinates and gives way to critically thinking which affect the employee commitment (Avolio and Bass, 1994). Transformational leadership is considered as one of the most influencing factor which has a positive effect on employee commitment in Indian bank's employees (Rai and Sinha, 2000). Various studies conducted on leadership style (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Decotiis and Summers, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) claim there is a strong positive relationship between leadership and workers' commitment. In 1999, Price enhanced this research and suggested that subordinates' confidence and trust in leaders lead to increase in the commitment of the employees within the organisations. Aronold, Basling and Kelloway (2001) claim that transformational leadership style helps leaders in enhancing their employees' trust and commitment. Transformational leaders give the

solution of the problems frequently, which enhances motivation and commitment of employee (Lawler, 2003). If the management of the organisation tries to satisfy the needs of its employees, the commitment of the employees will also increase and employee will prefer to remain in the part of the organisation (Hamdia and Phadett, 2011). Riaz and Haider (2010) conclude that transformational and transactional leadership positively correlated with the job success and satisfaction while transformational leadership found more significant and strong relationship with job success and career satisfaction as compared to transactional leadership. To bring the organisation commitment, transformational leaders have strong influence on employees as compared to transactional leaders. Sub elements of transformational leadership such as intellectual stimulation, inspiration, idealised influence are significantly correlated with the organisational affective and normative commitment. Inspirational motivation and idealised consideration are not correlated significantly with continuous commitment while inspirational motivation and individual consideration has significant and positive relationship with organisational continuous commitment (Lo, Ramayah, Min and Songan, 2010). Recent researches on the leadership style and workers' commitment (Marmaya, Torsiman and Balakrishnan, 2011) show that transformational and transactional leadership have positive relationship with workers' organisational commitment while workers of Malaysian organisation are more influenced by transformational than transactional leadership style.

2.3   Organisational Climate and Workers' Commitment

Organisational climate has been defined as the "feel" of an organisation (Halpin and Croft, 1963), as its "collective personality" (Norton, 1984). Climate is the human environment within which the employees of an organisation operate. Like the air in a room, climate surrounds and affects everything that happens in an organisation (Freiberg, 1983). As one moves from one organisation to another, it is possible to note that an organisation feels different from another. This is primarily the results of organisational climate.

A lot of studies have been conducted on organisational climate with reference to educational setting but mostly in elementary and secondary schools. Inferences from such studies could be made since the institution of higher learning is an extension of the primary and secondary institution. Litwin and Stringer, (1968) and Halpin (1963) define climate *"as the personality of the organisation ...figuratively personality is to the individual while climate is to the organisation"*. Palmer (2002) identifies two fundamental types of climate – internal and external. She equated internal climate with organisational climate and it could be conceptionalised as those factors that have influential effect on the internal functioning of an organisation; ranging from subordinate to top management super-ordinate. The place of climate in organisation is very important. According to McGregor (1960) "climate is more significant than the type of leadership or the personal 'style' of the superior". The boss can be autocratic or democratic, warm and outgoing or remote and introverted, easy or tough, but their personal characteristics are of less significance than the deeper attitudes to which his subordinates respond.

Palmer (2002) opines that leadership behaviour should be viewed as a subset of organisational climate and as such any assessment of leadership behaviour should also include the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational climate. Leadership behaviour is seen as a contingent factor for organisational climate in institutions of higher learning. The role of leadership in creating a conducive climate is imperative. Halpin, and Croft, (1963), Tagiuri and Litwin (1968), Owen (1981) and Bower (1976) who seem to be the first author of original work in organisational climate postulate that it is the duty of the administrator or manager of any organisation to create desirable or favourable climate. They stated that:

> *as essential determinant of school effectiveness as an organisation is, the principal's ability or lack of ability to create a climate in which the other members can initiate and consummate acts of leadership. One of our guiding assumptions is that a desirable organisational climate is*

one in which it is possible for leadership acts to emerge
easily from whatever source.

Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) in their study, used Halpin and Croft (1963) instrument which consists of subsets of disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy and principal leadership behaviour comprising 'aloofness' production emphasis, thrust and consideration. Disengagement refers to a lack of task oriented behaviour. Hindrance is a feeling of being overburdened by routine to a combination of high morale and job accomplishment and intimacy, can be perceived as an enjoyment of friendly social relations. They identified six types of behaviour according to the open "autonomous", "controlled", "paternal" to "closed climate". The climates were used as appropriate measures of the types of interpersonal relationships that existed in the social life of the school as reflected in the behaviour of the teacher as a group and the principal as a leader. It is evident that relationship does exist between leadership behaviour and organisational climate but the extent to which one affects the other needs empirical evidence. It is obvious that any attempt to study one without the other will result into inconclusive or false results.

There is evidence to suggest that organisational climate can influence both job performance and employee satisfaction (Lawler, Hall, and Oldham, 1974). Unlike the weather, which is unable to be controlled, some organisational climates can be promoted to facilitate the achievement of organisational goals (Muchinsky, 2010). This makes organisational climate a worthwhile concept to study in industrial and organisational psychology, despite difficulties with its definition.

Because climate is best described as employee perceptions of the organisation, it follows that the measurement of climate will be a function of employee attitudes and values. If the measurement of climate is considered to be a barometer, then the measures that the "barometer" yields will depend on the type of barometer used. So far as weather is concerned, barometers can give a reasonably valid measure of the climate by measuring atmospheric pressure. However atmospheric pressure is only one measure of

climate. Unfortunately organisational climate measures do not have this high degree of validity.

An early definition of organisational climate is Forehand and Gilmer's (1964) suggestion that organisational climate is a set of descriptive characteristics of an organisation that are relatively enduring over a period of time. These characteristics distinguish one organisation from other organisations and influence the behaviour of people that belong to it. This definition represents the multiple measurement-organisational approaches to measurement, which is one o three approaches identified in a review of climate theory by (Bennis and Nanus 1985). The other two are the perceptual-organisational attribute, and the perceptual measurement-individual attribute approaches. According to Bennis and Nanus, the descriptive characteristics arising from definitions such as Forehan and Gilmer's are measured by a variety of methods, and the attributes or main effects will include such variables as size, structure, systems complexity, leadership style, and goal direction.

The perceptual-organisational attribute approach to measurement views climate as an organisational attribute, but, unlike the first approach, is measured purely by perceptual rather than by objective measures such as the size and structure of the organisation. For instance Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) agree with Forehand and Gilmer's definition, except that the descriptive characteristics are measured by the experiences of its members. In those circumstances, the perceptions by the organisation members of the set of descriptive characteristics, rather than the objective structural realities, constitute climate. For instance if size is taken as a descriptive characteristic, the first approach would simply measure it in terms of the specified dimensions, while the second approach would measure it in terms of the employees' perceptions of these dimensions. Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) suggest that definitions of this sort view climate as a situational or organisational main effect.

The perceptual measurement-individual attribute approach views climate as a set of summary or global perceptions reflecting an interaction between actual event in the

organisation and the perception of those events. Here the emphasis swing away from actual organisational attributes to a summary of individual perceptions (Schneider, 1975).

Schriesheim, C., House, R., and Kerr, S. (1976) note that these three approaches to organisational climate reflect the conceptual diversity expressed in the literature. They suggest that the concern in climate research has focused on measurement techniques rather than understanding the underlying constructs. Toulson and Smith (1991) make a similar point in their discussion of the semantic ambiguity associated with many current constructs in industrial and organisational psychology. This diversity and contradiction has led Guion (1973) to conclude that the concept of organisational climate is "fuzzy". Schriesheim, House and Kerr, suggest as a first step in reconceptualisation that a distinction be made between climate being regarded as an organisational attribute (organisational climate), and as an individual attribute (psychological climate). The term "organisational climate" would therefore include both the multiple measurement-organisational attribute and perceptual measurement-organisational attribute approaches, and the term "psychological climate" to apply to the perceptual measurement-individual attribute approach.

A distinction needs to be made between organisational climate and organisational culture. Organisational culture consists of managerial and employee beliefs and values that define the ways in which the business of an organisation is conducted. In correspondence with the anthropological view a society's prevailing culture dictates that people are to learn and how they are to behave (Luthans, 1985). An organisation's culture dictates that people have to know the ways that things are done. Core values, about how to treat employees, customers, suppliers, and others, are thought to lead to sustained superior financial performance in organisations with strong cultures (Barney, 1986).

The culture of an organisation can be defined as the emergent pattern of beliefs, behaviours, and interactions that uniquely characterise the organisation as it operates within an industrial and a societal context (Fombrun, 1984). It is therefore the set of important beliefs, values and understandings that all members of the organisation share in common. Since culture defines the way the organisation conducts business, it strongly affects management practice. In fact, organisations with strong cultures go to great

lengths to socialise new members into the prevailing beliefs and values that determine the way things are done in the organisation and this may be the major feature in employee orientation and induction practices in such organisations. Highly successful organisations tend to have strong cultures (Peters and Waterman, 1982).

The measurement of organisational climate is the means to uncover an organisation's culture (Desatnick, 1986). Climate surveys measure the perceptions and reactions to the culture of the organisation, as well as reactions to other organisational attributes and the culture is reflected through its management style. Therefore climate surveys measure employees' perceptions about the way they are being managed.

A variety of organisational climate measures have been developed to measure climate in most types of organisations (Woodman and King, 1978). Litwin and Stringer's (1968) organisational Climate Questionnaire (LSOCQ) is used most frequently in business organisations. They define organisational climate as a "...set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour." They called their approach to organisational climate the perceptual measurement-organisational attribute approach. Litwin and Stringer drew from the McClelland-Atkinson motivation theory (McClelland and Atkinson, 1953) and based their dimensions of organisational climate and their effects, on the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation. They proposed that climate is made up of dimensions of structure, responsibility, rewards, risks, tolerance and conflict.

These dimensions may actually describe the way an organisation treats its employees (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970). Woodman and King (1978) list the LSOCQ as one of the most frequently used organisational climate scales. Consequently it has been the focus of much research. The scale consists of 50 items where the respondent is required to indicate strength of agreement or disagreement according to a five point Likert-scale.

The first major review of the LSOCQ was undertaken by Kermani 2008. Using a sample of medical professionals and support staff within a large medical complex in the Midwest United States, they administered the original LSOCQ questions (slightly

reworded to fit the medical centre environment). The results of 997 usable questionnaires were factor analyzed using the PA2 extraction and a varimax rotation (Nie, Bent, and Hull; 1970). Eighteen separate analysis were undertaken on the data using both varimax and oblimin rotations. After an examination of the results, a six factor orthogonal solution was chosen. The factors were: general affect tone towards other people in the organisation; general affect tone towards management and/or the organisation; policy and promotion clarity; job pressure and standards; openness and upward communication; and, risk and decision making.

In more recent research, items from the LSOCQ have been used to measure aspects of organisational climate along with other measures (Batlis, 1980; Heller, Guestello, and Aderman, 1982). It has also been used in studies unchanged, without any anxiety being expressed about its internal consistency or structure (Ganesan, 1983 and Putti and Kheun, 1986).

The LSOCQ has also been used in a modified form. Schnake (1983) administered a 30 item version of the LSOCQ to a sample of 8,938 non-supervisory employees of large utility, together with an 11 item job satisfaction measure. The 30 item questionnaire was factor analyzed using the same procedures as the earlier studies reported above (PA2 and varimax rotation). Again six non-trivial factors were identified, and it was concluded that the results provided evidence that job satisfaction may influence perceptions of organisational climate.

While the measurement of organisational climate is fraught with difficulties of replication and validation, there is, nonetheless, some research evidence that instruments like the Litwin and Stringer Organisational Climate Questionnaire are useful indicators of perceptions about management in organisations. Such perceptions are important determinants of behaviour in the work place and are therefore relevant for investigation. Since climate deals with the perceptions that employees have about their employing organisations, it follows that the way personnel management is practiced can impact on climate.

Relationship Between Organisational Climate And Workers' Commitment

Organisational climate affects organisational performance by influencing employee motivation. In most jobs, there is a gulf between what employees need do to "get by" and what they can do if they perform at their fullest potential. A positive organisational climate is said to be the catalyst that will encourage this discretionary effort and commitment.

The climate of an organisation refers to those aspects of the environment that are consciously perceived by organisational members (Armstrong, 2003). In short, it refers to how the members of an organisation perceive it as it goes about its daily business. There is a general agreement that organisational climate is a multi-dimensional concept, and that a number of typical dimensions could be described. For the purpose of this study, the dimensions of organisational climate examined were organisational design, communication, leadership, teamwork, decision-making, culture, job satisfaction, and motivation. Organisational design refers to the process of constructing and adjusting an organisation's structure to achieve its goals.

Communication refers to the evoking of a shared or common meaning in another person. Leadership involves in influencing and directing people to achieve particular goals within the given time and place using the leaders' capability and skills to make people work together. Teamwork is a process of working collaboratively with a group of people, in order to achieve a goal. Organisational culture is described as a pattern of basic assumption that are considered valid and that are taught to new members as the way to perceive, think, and feel in the organisation. Job satisfaction is a self-reported positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or from job experiences (Locke, 1976). Finally, motivation is referred to as an internal state or condition that activates behaviour and gives direction and it develops desire or want that energises and directs goal-oriented behaviour.

Workers' commitment has been conceptualised by Meyer and Allen (1990) as having three dimensions, which they identified as affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to,

identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation.

Past research findings have indicated that there exist relationships between the dimensions of organisational climate and workers' commitment. For example, Spector (1997) cited that job satisfaction is a correlate and predictor of workers' commitment. Gregersen and Black (1996) posited that work process would enhance sense of responsibility that led to an increase in commitment among employees; Varona (2002) observes there is a relationship between communication and organisational commitment in terms of feedback and responses from both upper level and employees; Mitchell et al (2001), Osbourn et al (1990), and Wellins, Byham, and Wilson (1991) indicate that teams contribute to better outcomes for business organisation due to employees commitment to the organisations; and Angle and Perry (1981) posit that proper leadership and motivation influence commitment and would result in organisational effectiveness. In addition, employee perception of decision-making influence was positively correlated with organisational commitment of employees.

Leadership Style and Organisational Climate

Davis (2000) studied a possible correlation between leadership style of department heads and department organisational climate. He found no significant relationship between organisational climate and leadership style. He suggested a focus on other variables than leadership styles that are significantly related to college department organisational climate. This does not often occur, but, the concept of behaviour rather than style which is restrictive should have been used.

In a retrospective study of the relationship between organisational climate and leadership in a new community college, Meyer and Allen, (1997) observe a relationship between organisational climate and leadership but no causal relationship existed. They conclude by supporting the other studies that positive leadership behaviour is closely related to positive organisational climate.

All these studies no doubt have demonstrated the importance of organisational climate and the role of leadership in ensuring favourable climate for ease in achievement of organisational goal and academic goals. In a study of student perception of University instructional climate, "students viewed climate to be effective and important when instructors were dynamic, enthusiastic about course, respect individuality of students and showed interest in students. Instructors were also expected to be master of the subject area, display good control of teaching – learning situation and actively involve students". These are various attributes of a leader in creating effective organisational climate. Some of the expectations of the students border on the amount of funding and this may not be completely under the jurisdiction of the immediate leader; it is an area outside the control of an immediate leader. However, if about 90% of the factors are under the control of leadership process then the aims for conducive climate is definitely under the jurisdiction of the leader.

Relationship between Leadership Behaviour and Organisational Climate

Meyer and Allen, (1997) opine that organisational climate reflects the history of internal and external struggle, the type of people the organisation attracts, its work processes and physical layout, the mode of communication and the exercise of authority within the system. Krampitz and William (2003) also state that the climate could be used to describe a set of expectations and incentive and represent a property of environment that is perceived directly or indirectly by the individuals in the environment.

Every organisation has an evolving climate because of the human interaction amongst its members. Often the ability to communicate effectively depends on the accuracy of the perception of those involved. If this is the case, can head of department or faculty members choose a desired climate? Can the head of department on his own

determine the faculty climate since according to social learning theory his behaviour is partly determined by other variables.

Ibukun (1983), states that very few studies exist on climate, Krampitz and Williams also noted that after the study of Halpin and Croft on social component of organisational climate in elementary and high school neither the instrument nor similar organisational climate measurement had been done especially in higher education programme. Halpin and Croft (1963) focus on the principal staff relationships, with specific emphasis on the principal behaviour, in creating an effective organisation in which staff members could imitate and consummate act of leadership.

Kramptiz (2003) states that educational administrators are charged with the effective operation of the formal organisation and must have an awareness of forces influencing the learning environment. They further noted that successful management of complex organisations demand both timely and crucial assessment of the existing climate and its impact on organisational goals.

Krampitz's (2003) study shows that inconsistency exists between faculty and nurse administrators perception of the organisational climate. Even though the effect of the difference in perception on organisational climate was not measured, it stands to reason that to create a learning environment both students and staff must experience a climate of openness and trust.

Likert (1961) has alluded that there is relationship between organisation climate and leadership effectiveness. Halpin (1966) states that it is the responsibility of the administrator to create a climate conducive for other members to develop acts of leadership.

An essential determinant of a school's effectiveness as an organisation is the principal's ability or lack of ability to create a climate in which he and other members can initiate and consummate acts of leadership. One of our guiding assumptions is that a "desirable" organisational climate is one in which it is possible for leadership act to emerge easily from whatever source.

In a study conducted by Plareton and Anderson cited by Nwankwo (1984) where they used OCDQ and other personality tests, they found some relationship between principal personality and the school climate. They highlighted that open climate school tended to have confidence, self-secure, cheerfulness, sociable, and resourceful principals, while close climate school principals tended to be evasive, worrying submissive, conventional and frustration prone.

Tagiuri, R. and Litwin, G.H. (1968) in their study report that the older and more experienced the administrator, the less effective. Middle aged administrators were found to be most effective. Years of experience also were found to have relationship with effectiveness. Those with five to nine years experience were found most effective and one to two years least effective.

Tagiuri and Litwin's (1968) definition of organisational climate even included the effect of the climate on members. Organisational climate to them is the internal environment that members experience and can describe as sets of characteristics or attributes of the organisation that influences workers' behaviour.

In a study by Meyer and Allen, (1997) on analysis of leadership behaviour group interaction and organisational climate found that faculty perceived digital climates to be less open than did their leaders who also perceived a greater amount of production emphasis than did faculty members; faculty members perceived departments to be more inhibiting and restrictive than did their leaders, consideration however, correlated with openness of climate.

Several scholars have established that men and women differ on a number of psychological dimensions that are relevant for performance (e.g. Choi (1998)).

Typical men are described as having agentic qualities or attributes. These include the ability to make decisions more easily, be more independent, self confident, assertive, competitive, aggressive and leader – like than women. It is because of these attributes that men are assumed to be more competent and more knowledgeable than women (Carli, 2001). Specifically, agentic attributes describe personality traits that convey behaviour that is achievement oriented and emotionally tough and are said to be characteristic of

men. According to Choi (1998), these are the same skills and attributes required to effectively handle executive management or male – type jobs and do not correspond with behaviour that should characterize women as a group. Attributes of agents are coterminous with self promotion which means presenting one's self in a competent, assertive, confident and ambitious manner (Rudman and Kilianski, 2000). Rudman (1998) observes that self promotion is positively related to decisions on hiring and promotion.

According to Meyer and Allen, (1997), the academia is not left out when it comes to stereotyped perception of women and men's abilities. Even the President of Harvard University caused uproar when he stated that men outperform women because of genetics and that men are innately smarter than women". Female faculty members rate themselves lower than their male colleagues in teaching ability, number of publications, and professional reputation. Conversely, male faculty members rate themselves more positively than do their colleagues on these same criteria. Moreover, female professors matched in rank and teaching experience receive lower teaching evaluations from students than male colleagues. The rating is more pronounced in male students. This is in spite of the fact that male faculty members are more inclined to cancel their classes.

Contemporary research provides evidence that when women attempt to present a competent impression through self promotion, they are liked and employed more often than not comparable to males (e.g. Rudman, 1998; 2000). According to Rudman (1998), self promotion is designed to augment one's status. It involves speaking in a direct, confident manner about one's strengths and talents and is particularly useful in competitive situations such as during a job interview. Rudman (1998), states that self promotional skills are positively related to decisions on hiring and promotion. Further, self promotion is associated with qualities such as competence, confidence and ambition, qualities that are desired and required for many occupations (Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muijen, J. J., and Koopman, P. L. (1997). Self promotion according to them is an important tactic for any competitor, male or female.

Rudman (1998) believes that self promotion poses special problems for women because historically, women are perceived to be less competent and competitive than men. Therefore, if women compete against men, they may not be well received if they behave in an assertive and confident manner. Women managers that adopted a direct, task oriented leadership style were evaluated more harshly than male counterparts (Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, (1992). Eagly et al (1992) further report that women who asserted themselves were less popular than men who exhibited the same behaviour. Eagly et al (1992) later observe that a self confident woman received the highest performance evaluations but was the least liked by her peers. According to Carli, LaFleur and Loeber (1995), because social influence is a function of both competence and social attraction, women may suffer backlash effect. In other words, self promotion may enhance perceptions of competence but will cost women negative social reactions. Other researchers are also of the view that self promotion is more natural and acceptable for men than for women (e.g Meyer and Allen, (1997).

Men traditionally have been socialized to promote themselves in order to compete amongst themselves for economic resources and attention from women. Women are socialized to be modest. Some authors feel that women may be unable to self promote due to low self esteem (e.g. Nkechi 2006). Also, people who behave contrary to traditional stereotypes may encounter social disapproval for violating the prescriptive aspects of gender stereotypes (Eagly 1987). Rudman (1998) explores the use of self promotion behaviour by women in a series of laboratory experiments. Rudman found that women who presented themselves as highly accomplished and made internal attributions for their success were often perceived as going against gender role prescriptions and thus were found to be less socially attractive for behaving this way even though they were also seen as more competent. Thus, behaving counter-normatively attracted hiring discrimination.

Consequent upon the notion that authority may be more associated with male characteristics – agency than female characteristics – communality, different role, authority and trait associations also might influence prejudice against female authority on

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the basis that women should be less career oriented, authority seeking and agentic than men (Glick and Fiske, 1999). Gender role authority and trait beliefs may be inter-related, as a result, each construct may covary with attitudes toward female authority. Rudman and Kilianski (2000) think that a pertinent question is the extent to which prejudice against female authority might operate below conscious awareness. o explore this line of reasoning Rudman and Kilianski tested the gender role hypothesis by examining the strength of individual attitudes towards female authority. The gender role hypothesis as earlier stated indicates that different trait and status expectancies for men and women motivate negative attitudes toward female authority. Specifically, the authors looked at gender role (career vs. domestic), gender authority (high vs. low), and gender trait (agency vs. communality) beliefs as correlates of attitudes towards female employment. Participants' implicit (unconscious) and explicit (conscious) attitudes toward female authority and gender beliefs were also recorded. As a means of comparison, implicit attitudes toward high authority and low authority males and females were obtained.

Findings showed that both men and women expressed more negative attitudes towards a high authority female than they did toward a high authority male, low authority male and low authority female. Women reported less prejudice against female authority than men. Results showed consistent support for the gender authority hypothesis. Associating men with high authority and women with low authority covaried with negative attitudes toward female authority. The results were the same for both implicit (unconscious) and explicit (conscious) attitudes. Rudman and Kilianski's (2000) findings are consistent with the literature on implicit gender stereotypes (e.g. Banaji and Hardin, 1996; and Blair and Banaji, 1996). These authors established that implicit attitude toward female authority were similar for men and women.

A classical example of negative social repercussion for women that exhibit agentic behaviour is the anecdotal evidence in the high profile case of price Waterhouse vs. Ann Hopkins. Ann Hopkins was one of 87 candidates competing for the position of partner in one of the largest accounting firms in America. She had demonstrated competence beyond her peers, she, alone had brought in over $25 million dollars in

contracts for exceeding the performance of her male colleagues. Hopkins prosecuted the firm on the grounds of sex discrimination. The firm claimed that Hopkins was "over bearing and aggressive as well as insensitive to coworkers."

A male colleague was reported to have said that "she was too man like." Her direct supervisor said she needs to "wear makeup, have her hair styled and wear jewelry" this he said would make her more "promotable." Ann Hopkins assertive and aggressive behaviour was perceived more negatively than her male colleagues. Ann Hopkins won the case with the help of the expert testimony of Susan Fiske a social psychologist (Fiske 1993). The allusion to Hopkin's personality as man like (agentic behaviour) suggests that women are expected to look and behave in line with gender prescribed roles.

Likewise, discrimination against agentic women was displayed against a female sales representative working for a large pharmaceutical company. She was promoted regional acting manager. After performing successfully for one month, she was informed that her promotion was dependent on a new assessment programme where she would be rated by evaluators while completing simulated managerial tasks. She was rated on both competence and social skills. The final assessment report described the female in this case as "autocratic, unsysmpathetic and manipulate." This assessment resulted in her demotion from acting manager back to sales representative (Rudman 1998).

Deaux and Lewis (1984) opine that the physical appearance is a very strong cue for judging a person's gender role. People who are very masculine or feminine in appearance are also presumed to be masculine and feminine in other aspects of their lives. According to them, if masculine physical appearance is linked to the male stereotype, a person with a typical masculine appearance should be perceived to possess higher management skills than a person with a typical feminine appearance regardless of the person's actual sex. Individuals are more likely to infer masculine than feminine traits for a female they perceive to be physically masculine. This view appears to be consistent with the findings of Krampitz and William (2003) that women that used the title Ms. rather than Miss or Mrs. were assumed to be more assertive, achievement oriented and dynamic, but also cold, unpopular and unlikely to have happy marriages.

These findings support Brehm and Kassin's (1996) assertion that even a simple think like one's title of choice can trigger off gender stereotypes. He further reported contrasting results when she examined what kind of features of the physical appearance influence the activation of gender stereotypic knowledge about leadership competence. She hypothesized that a typical masculine physical appearance would be perceived as a good fit with the typical male requirements of leadership positions.

Brehm and Kassin's (1996) in a study using a sample of 120 students asked participants to imagine they were working as a personnel manager and make decisions about a promotion to leadership position based on applications with attached photographs of applicants. The study revealed that applicants with a masculine physical appearance were promoted more often and were perceived to have higher leadership competence than applicants with a feminine physical appearance. According to her the results support the assumption that the probability of being hired or promoted to leadership position depends partly on a person's physical appearance. A masculine looking face might be a prospect for success. She did caution that the study had practical limitations as it was not conducted in a realistic setting.

To further explore her hypothesis, Rennenkamff sought to find evidence for a biased search for information based on the perceptual confirmation bias in the selection process. She assumed that participants would choose different interview questions for masculine vs. feminine looking applicants. The participants should have informed preconceptions of high or low leadership competence based on applicant's physical appearance. Ninety six participants were asked to imagine they were working as a personnel manager and had to prepare for an interview. Participants were asked to choose six questions from a list of 18 questions they would want to ask in the supposed interview based on pictures of female applicants with masculine or feminine biologically determined features and masculine and feminine styling. Results showed a perceptual confirmation bias based on think management, think male. Participants that formed a first impression of applicants based on looks were not interested in the applicant's skills and abilities. The interviewers chose different interview questions based on perceptions

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of masculine vs. feminine looks. The study reported biased search for information in the selection process. The results suggest that the more masculine a person's appearance, the easier, their job interview.

Gender stereotypes and behaviour required for executive management positions and implications for unfavourable evaluation of women is further established by several studies Clark, K. E. and Clark, M. (1996). This studies report gender differences in the way men and women wield social influence. They report that men wield more influence than women in mixed – sex groups. Lockheed (1985) demonstrates this in a meta-analytic review of 29 studies. Clark (2008) supports the view that men are more powerful than women, but according to her, this is dependent on the situation. Factors such as gender composition (the proportion of males and females in an interaction); communication style used by the influence agent and gender bias of task are situations that Carli says determine influence. For example women wield less influence than men when using a dominant (agentic) form of communication whilst male influence is reduced in domains that are traditionally associated with women. Also, males in particular resist influence by women more than females do especially when the women employ highly competent styles of communication. Carli states that people tend to respond with dislike, hostility and rejection toward women who act in highly assertive, confident or competent ways. Resistance to competent women may be reduced however, if women can combine their competence with communality and warmth.

Research supports the notion that the situation is also a very important trigger of gender stereotypes such as a man in an all female group or a woman in an all male group. The situation draws attention to these individuals that might make them self conscious and impair their performance on cognitive tasks. However, solo men in female groups report greater influence in group decisions than solo women in male groups. Solo men in female groups are likely to be perceived as more masculine and thus seen as a father figure or leader. On the flip side of the coin, solo women in male groups are more likely to be seen as more feminine and probably would either be perceived as a motherly type or

a bitch or the group secretary. These views may not hold in a more balanced mixed sex group (Fiske, Bersoff, Borgida, Deaux and Geilman, 1991).

The leadership perceptions in the military found stronger evidence of preferential ratings of male leaders in training groups in which women held solo, token status than in groups with greater numbers of women. These findings are similar to self reported studies where women reported greater influence over fellow workers in a balanced group than in groups where women are in the minority. However, men in the minority report exerting greater influence over fellow workers than women in the minority. In a study where participants listened to an audio tape of a male and female expert that delivered a speech advocating non traditional gender roles; women were equally persuaded by male and female experts whereas men were less persuaded by the female speaker than by the male speaker (Meyer and Allen, (1997). Further, unless where it is established that women have demonstrated superiority in the task assigned they would be at a disadvantage in exerting influence in gender neutral contexts because people consider men to be generally more expert than women. Research on children also reveals that likewise, boys are likely to wield more influence than girls (Locke 1990). Indeed, it was found in a study conducted at Harvard that in classroom situations male students dominate discussions. Male students were reported to talk two and a half times longer than their female peers. There are studies however that have reported no gender differences in social influence among of which is Atkinson (1984).

Therefore, organisational settings leads to better performance and such people are found more 'promotable'. However, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) believe that higher appraisals for those employees are based on fear on the part of their supervisors. They further posited that intimidation may generally be positively related to performance ratings but there are instances in which intimidation may be negatively related to performance evaluations. According to them, the emphasis of contemporary organisation is on team work and cohesiveness (Pfeffer, 1998) and thus in this case intimidation may be more of a liability than an asset.

It can also be argued that people get angry and are resentful of individuals that try to intimidate or manipulate them and may result in lack of cooperation from other employees. Thus intimidation strategies in impression management could have positive or negative influence on performance evaluations. Vroom, V. H. (1976) strongly believes that intimidation and the use of forcefulness and aggressiveness tends to make individuals less likeable.

Indeed, Bolino and Turnley (2003) emphasise the importance of likeability because previous research indicates that likeability frequently influences critical job and career outcomes for individuals as well as team functioning and effectiveness (e.g. Allen and Meyer 1990). According to (Allen and Meyer 1990), liking within workgroups is a key component of group cohesiveness which may contribute to group performance.

Allen and Meyer 1990 demonstrate that exhibiting agentica behaviour is more costly for women in a study of supervisor-subordinate dyads to investigate reactions to use of intimidation strategies by men and women. They reported that women who use intimidation strategies of impression management were more negatively related to supervisor ratings of likeability. In contrast, the relationship between intimidation and likeability was positive for men who used such strategies. Also, the use of intimidation is unrelated to performance ratings for women but positive for men. These findings are consistent with other research, which have reported that women who use "masculine" (agentic) leadership styles and are autocratic and dominative are evaluated less favourably than their male counterparts who use the same style (e.g. Rudman and Kilianski, 2000).

Lips (2001), observes that often women in positions of public power are said to be too hard. According to her, "agentic" women suffer personal derogation. The competent woman is considered to be cold and undesirable but this is not the case with the competent man. Terms used to describe competent women include "bitch", "ice queen", "battle axe", quarrelsome, selfish, and interpersonally deficient. Choi (1998) also affirms that agentic women are disliked. According to her, female managers were described as interpersonally hostile, that is, devious, vulgar, quarrelsome, selfish, bitter, and deceitful.

Comparable male mangers were described as active, emotionally stable, and independent. Siskind and Kearns (1997) affirm that negative reaction to agentic women are common and gives an example of the 'Margaret Thatcher prototype. The Margaret Thatcher prototype is a (often derogatory) reference to tough women in high status positions. According to them, if a woman leader is perceived as tough and focused she is criticized as being unfeminine.

2.4   Appraisal of Literature Reviewed

Various scholars have extensively discussed the importance of leadership in influencing employees' willingness to exert extra efforts to the accomplishment of organisational goals. Some have equally worked on leaders' effectiveness. Mostly, they concluded that effective leadership positively influences employees to cooperate with the leader, comply with the rules and regulation of the organisation, and be committed to the attainment of organisational goals. Also, the area of gender and leadership has been exhausted by different scholars, and various factors have been identified to influence organisational commitment, even high productivity. Indeed, "leadership involves persuading other people to set aside for a period of time their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important to the responsibilities and welfare of a group" (Hogan, Curby, and Hogan, 1994; 493).

In attempt to evaluate the different literature reviewed so far, one may conclude that some of the research findings are contradictory and inconclusive. For instance, research has tried to understand differences among constituents in the leadership roles they associate with effectiveness. Pfeffer and Salancik (1975) observes that supervisors in the housing division of a large state University thought that their subordinates and bosses had distinctly different expectations for them. The authors found that supervisors' expectations of subordinates were more important in influencing their social behaviours, although the expectations of the bosses were more important in determining their work related behaviour. Pfeffer and Salancik (1975), however, did not ask the subordinates and superiors directly about which behaviours they associated with the effectiveness of the housing supervisors. Salam and others (1997) partially addressed this last issue by

relating subordinate perceptions of leadership behaviours to subordinates, managers', and superiors' perceptions of effectiveness of the focal manager. They found that the subordinates' perceptions of leadership behaviours had different relationships with effectiveness, depending on the rater of effectiveness. However, they did not examine the relationship between the manager and superior's perceptions of leadership behaviours to their own perceptions of effectiveness.

Some of the studies reviewed like Babajide (2000) and Ogunsanwo (1993) report that there were no significant differences on any of the variables between men and women or the way they lead, and that men and women were more alike than different in terms of performance and effectiveness while some contradict these finding. Whereas, leadership effectiveness is not the same as leadership styles, but workable or successful is a particular leadership style in organisational settings determines the effectiveness of a leader. In a nutshell, this present study addressed most of the loopholes of the study reviewed. For instance, this study combined gender of the leader, leadership style and organisational climate together and determines their influence(s) workers' commitment in institution of higher learning.

2.5   Theoretical Framework

This study could be located in the theory of leadership; it is specifically based on Path-goal Leadership Theory.

The trait theory is one of the earliest approaches to the study of leadership. It examines leadership from the standpoint of individual's personal traits: physical, mental, and psychological characteristics. The trait approach to leadership according to Mondy et al (1990) is the evaluation and selection of leaders based on their physical, mental, and psychological characteristics. Trait approach emphasises that certain inborn characteristics would determine successful leaders and unsuccessful leaders. The belief of this theory is that, leaders are specially endowed with some traits that would make subordinates follow them willingly and naturally. In other words, it emphasises that leaders are born and not made. Many research studies have put some of these inborn traits

to be height, weight, age, size, intelligence, ambition, initiative, decisiveness, extroversion, creativity etc.

The question at this juncture is, could traits differentiate successful from unsuccessful leaders? Udegbe (2000) discovers that traits such as intelligence, initiative, and self-assurance were associated to some extent with high managerial levels and performance. While some other studies found that successful leadership depended not on a particular trait, but on how well the leader's traits matched the requirements of the situation on ground (Udegbe 2000). However, these studies failed to identify the traits that are associated with successful leadership. Uniformity of trait across all levels is thus questioned (Bass, 1988). The problem with the trait approach lies in the fact that almost as many traits as studies undertaken were identified. After several years of such research, it became apparent that no such trait could be identified in a considerable number of studies, and the results were generally inconclusive.

In spite of the contributions of trait researchers, the trait approach to the study of leadership has not provided broad understanding and prediction of leadership effectiveness. This is because studying individual traits could not tell what the individual does in a leadership situation. Traits identify who the leader is, not the pattern of behaviour he/she would exhibit in attempting to influence subordinates' actions. The trait approach has ignored the subordinate and his/her effect on leadership. As a result, there is need to search another approach to the study of leadership. Therefore, there is behavioural approach

This behavioural approach attempts to identify the personal behaviour associated with effective leadership. That is the behaviour or style utilized by the leader in leading individuals or groups to achieving organisational goals that result in subordinate commitment and high productivity. Thus, leaders' behaviours should be the most immediate manifestation of influence towards his subordinates and his job. Rather than concentrating on what leaders are, as the trait approach urged, the behavioural forced looking at what leaders do and how they do it. The main shortcoming of the

behavioural approach was its focus on finding a dependable prescription for effective leadership (Hill, 1983).

In terms of prior research, House (1971) observes that styles of leadership that focused on initiating structure were most valuable when tasks that were stressful or dissatisfying, while the consideration styles were most appropriate for tasks that were clear and routine in nature. The styles high in initiating structure were also related to higher productivity, but tended to generate higher employee grievance rates and turnover. The consideration styles, by contrast, have been associated with satisfied subordinates and fewer absences (Immegart, 1988).

A large number of studies have been conducted to determine the authenticity of findings and the effects of initiating structure and consideration on group performance and morale. While some researchers associated high performance and workers satisfaction with high initiating structure and high consideration style, for instance, Choi and Mail-Dalton, (1998) point out principal leadership behaviours that are high both in consideration and initiating structure also result in high satisfaction and performance among school teachers. Others faulted it and revealed that this style had some dysfunctional effects. So, the conclusion of most studies was that no single style could be considered as the best (Fleishman, 1973). This is not to say that this research study (Ohio State research) contributed nothing to the study of leadership. It laid the foundation upon which other approach was built.

The present study is basically on path-goal theory. House (1971) developed the path-goal theory of leadership. This theory is based on the expectancy theory of motivation advanced by Victor Vroom (1964), which states that; an individual's motivation depends on his expectation of reward and the valence or attractiveness of that reward. The proposition of this theory (path-goal) is that managers can facilitate job performance by showing employees how their performance directly affects their receiving desired rewards. The path-goal theory identified major function of leader as influencing the valence and expectancy perceptions of subordinates. The path-goal theory identified four distinct and independent leadership behaviours, which include the

following: Instrumental/Directive behaviour, Supportive behavior, Participative behavior and Achievement-oriented behaviour.

House also identified two situational factors that can help moderate the relationship between the leader's style and the behaviour of the subordinate for the purpose of goal attainment. These factors are: the characteristics of the subordinates, and the characteristics of the work environment. The path-goal theory of leader effectiveness is considered highly promising, because it attempts to explain why a particular leadership style is more effective and functional in one situation than in another. Most importantly, it indicates that the relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates cannot be viewed in isolation. Therefore this theory suitably explains the relationship that exists between leaders' gender, leadership style, organisational climate and workers' commitment as the present study implies. The theoretical model in Figure 1 shows the findings of the study in totality.

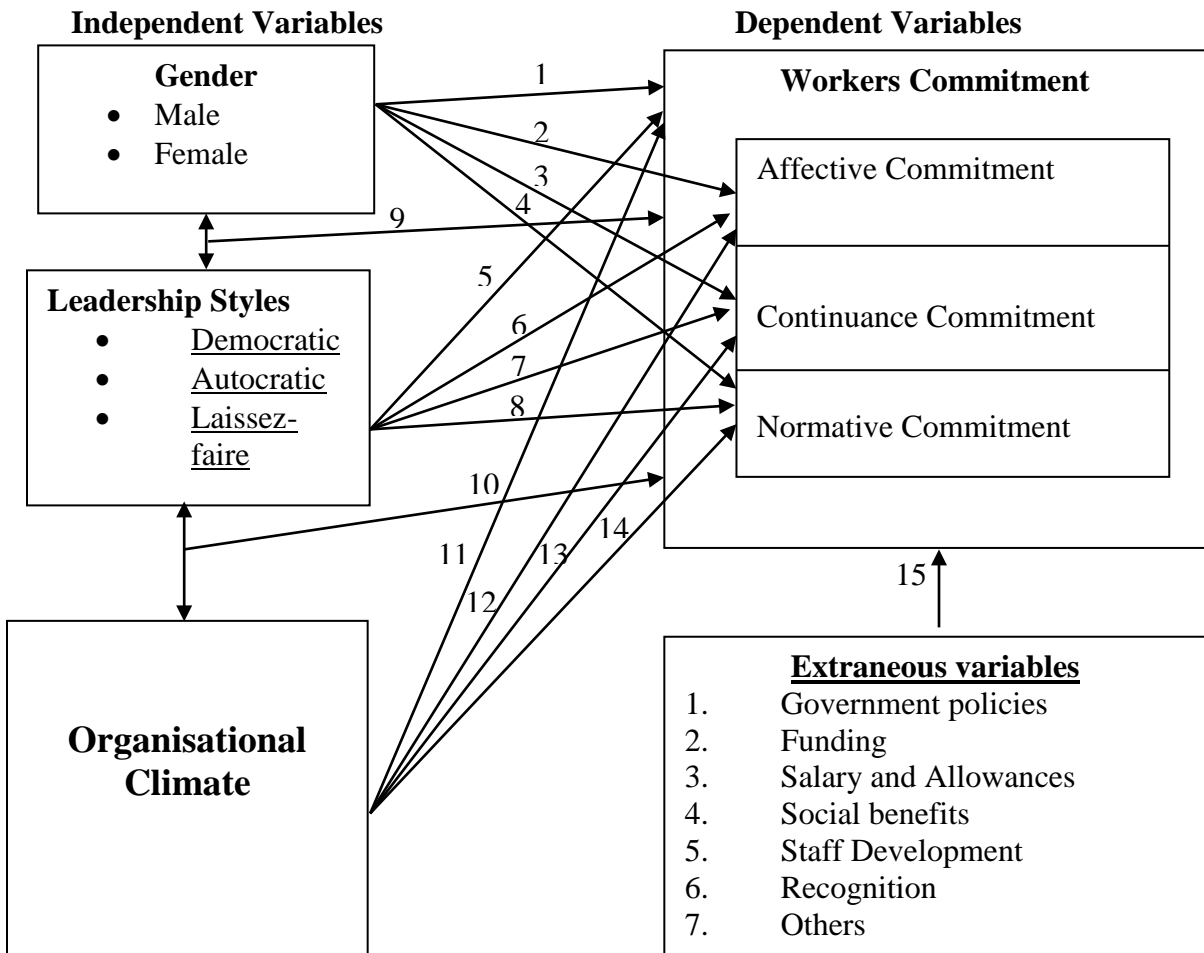**THEORETICAL MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER, LEADERSHIP STYLES, ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND COMMITMENT**

Figure 2.1: Theoretical Model of the Relationship between Gender, Leadership Styles, Organisational Climate and Workers' Commitment. *(Developed by the Researcher: Adenaike, F. A.).*

The most widely recognized and earliest conceptualization of organisational commitment is affective commitment, defined as ''an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation'' (Mowday et al, 1982). Affective commitment is characterized by three factors: identification - a strong belief in and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; involvement - a readiness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation; and loyalty - a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation.

Figure 1 shows the composite relationship among gender, leadership styles, organisational climate and commitment of tertiary institutions' workers in Ogun State. The gender with the characteristics of the teaching and non-teaching staff in the academic environment influences the organisational commitment in totality (1), affective commitment (2), continuance (3), and normative commitment (4).The leadership style with the characteristics of the teaching and non-teaching staff in the academic environment influences the organisational commitment in totality (5), affective commitment (6), continuance (7), and normative commitment (8). While (11) shows the organisational climate with the characteristics of the teaching and non-teaching staff in academic environment influences organisational commitment as a whole; its relationship with affective commitment (12), continuance (13), and normative commitment (14) of workers. It also reveals the composite relationship between gender, leadership styles, organisational climate and workers' commitment.

Finally, extraneous variables (15) such as state government policies, funding of the institutions, salaries and allowance of the members of staff, staff development, recognition and others are powerful influence on the success of any leader coupled with the leadership style adopted and organisational climate within the context of attaining workers' commitment.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0   Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that willl be adopted in the conduct of this study which includes the different procedures, such as the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, description of major instruments adopted and/or adapted for data collection and, instrument administration. Also, contained in this section is the method for data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The descriptive survey design will be used, premised on *expost facto.* The researcher will examined the extent to which gender, leadership styles and organisational climate will relate to workers' commitment as they occurred in tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria.

3.2 Target Population

The population for the study comprised all the academic and non-academic staff of the four state owned tertiary institutions in Ogun State which are: Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago Iwoye; Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode; Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta; and Ogun State Health Technology, Ilese. The four institutions have 1,595; 960; 554; and 280 workers respectively, giving a total population of 3,389.

Table 3.1 shows the population of academic and non-academic staff in the four institutions covered in the study.

Table 3.1: Population of academic and non-academic staff in the four institutions covered.

Institutions	Academic staff	Non-academic staff	Total
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye (OOU)	540	1,055	1,595
Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode (TASUED)	403	557	960
Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta (MAPOLY)	204	350	554
Ogun State Health Technology, Ilese-Ijebu (OSCO TECH)	126	154	280
Total	1,273	2,116	3,389

3.3 Sample And Sampling Technique

A sample size of 1,356 workers from the four institutions, (two universities and two polytechnics) which constitutes 40% of the total population was used for the study. As a result, 40% of total population of workers in each institution was used as respondents. To ensure true representation of the targeted population for the study, a proportionate sampling size of academic and non-academic staff was selected to participate in the study. The population was first stratified in terms of academic and non-academic categories of workers in tertiary institutions from which the sample was drawn in such a way that the relative proportions of the strata in the sample are the same as in the total population. Table 3.2 shows the sample distribution of academic and non-academic staff in the four institutions used for the study based on 40% of total population.

Table 3.2: *Sample Size of Academic and Non-academic Staff in the Four Institutions Covered.*

Institution	Academic staff (40%)	Non-academic staff (40%)	Total
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye (OOU)	216	422	638
Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode (TASUED)	161	223	384
Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta (MAPOLY)	82	140	222
Ogun State Health Technology, Ilese-Ijebu (OSCO TECH)	50	62	112
Total	509	847	1,356

3.4 Research Instruments

The major research instruments used were structured questionnaires. Three types of questionnaires were adopted and used. These are:

1. Leadership Styles Questionnaire (LSQ)
2. Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ)
3. Workers' Commitment Questionnaire (WCQ)

Leadership Styles Questionnaire (LSQ)

The leadership styles questionnaire consists of 18 items designed to elicit information on the types of leadership styles adopted by the heads of departments or superior officers in the administrative cadre. A four point Likert scale rating was used with the scoring ranging from strongly agree, agree, disagree to strongly disagree.

The demographic data on personal characteristics of the respondents which include name of institutions, faculty or college/department, gender of respondents, age,

religion, educational qualification and professional qualifications were requested in the first section of the questionnaire.

Organisational Climate Questionnaire.

The Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed to generate data about teacher factors or characteristics from teachers. It comprised 15 items that solicit data on the work environment that will influence workers' motivation and behaviour. It equally adopted a 4-point Likert rating of strongly agree, agree, disagree to strongly disagree.

Workers' Commitment Questionnaire (WCQ):

The workers' commitment questionnaire was adapted from Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) and Meyer and Allen (1990). Mowday et al (1979) reported a Cronbach's Alpha reliability of .89 while Meyer and Allen (1990) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of .78. This is a-15 item scale and it has three dimensions of workers' commitment namely; affective, normative, and continuance. All scales utilised a 4-point Likert type format (1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; and 4 = Strongly Agree). An individual with a score below the mean is regarded as exhibiting low commitment while an individual who has a mean score or score above the mean is regarded as exhibiting high commitment.

3.5 Validity of the Instrument

The face and content validity of the questionnaires were ensured by giving them to senior lecturers in the Department of Educational Management, University of Ibadan, for proper scrutiny and verification. The instruments were later presented to the researchers' supervisor for certification.

3.6   Reliability of the Instrument

Pilot studies of the instruments were carried out on with 60 respondents from the Lagos State University, Lagos and the Lagos State Polytechnic, Ikorodu. The tests were repeated two weeks later. Analyses of the internal consistency of the instruments indicated a Cronbach alpha of 0.79 for the Workers' Commitment Questionnaire; 0.87 for the Leadership Styles Questionnaire and 0.84 for Organisational Climate Questionnaire. Test-retest reliability indices of 0.67; 0.73; and 0.78 were recorded for Workers' Commitment Questionnaire, Leadership Styles Questionnaire, and Organisational Climate Questionnaire respectively.

3.7   Method of Data Generation

Data were generated using Leadership Styles Questionnaire (LSQ), Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) and Workers' Commitment Questionnaire (WCQ). To reach the individual respondents, visits were made by the researcher to the tertiary institutions with a letter of introduction from the department in order to secure permission to conduct the study.   In each institution, the purpose of the research was explained to the Registrar, Deans of Faculties and the respondents. They were assured that all the information solicited would be confidential and used for research alone. Respondents were met at their duty posts. With the aid of trained research assistants, the instruments were administered and were retreived from the respondents within three weeks. The researcher was able to retrieve a total of 1,343 copies of the questionnaire, fully completed which represents 99.04% return rate. These were collated and used for the final analysis.

3.8   Method of Data Analysis

The data were analysed using appropriate statistical tools. These are multiple regression analysis, Pearson product moment correlation and t-test analysis while all the null hypotheses developed for the study were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the findings. Four research questions and ten research hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance using frequency count and percentages, Multiple Regression Analysis, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and T-test. The summary of the findings are presented in Tables.

Research question 1:   What is the state of organisational climate in each of the universities and Polytechnics?

Table 4.1:   State of Organisational Climate

Name of Institutions		Nature of climate		Total
		Favourable	Unfavourable	
OOU	Frequency	330	295	**625**
	%	52.8	47.2	**100**
TASUED	Frequency	185	199	**384**
	%	48.2	51.8	**100**
MAPOLY	Frequency	106	116	**222**
	%	47.7	52.3	**100**
OSCOTECH	Frequency	56	56	**112**
	%	50.0	50.0	**100**
Total	**Frequency**	**677**	**666**	**1343**
	%	**50.4**	**48.6**	**100**

Keywords: OOU - Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye

TASUED – Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode

MAPOLY – Moshood Abiola Polytechnics, Abeokuta

OSCOTECH – Ogun State Health Technology, Ilese-Ijebu

Table 4.1 shows the state of organisational climate of the universities and polytechnics. From the Table, 52.8% of the OOU respondents believed that the climate is favourable while 47.2% considered it not favourable. While 48.2% of the respondents from TASUED agree that the climate is favourable, 51.8 disagree that it is favourable. While 47.7% of the respondents from MAPOLY agree that the climate is favourable,

52.3% disagree that it is favourable. While 50.0% of the respondents from OSCOTECH agree that the climate is favourable, 50.0% agree that it is not favourable. In all, while 48.6% agree that the climate is not favourable**.**

Research question 2: What is the level of workers' commitment in each of the universities and polytechnics?

Table 4.2: Level of workers' commitment (employees)

Name of Institutions		Level of Commitment		Total
		High	Low	
OOU	Frequency	318	307	**625**
	%	50.9	49.1	**100**
TASUED	Frequency	176	208	**384**
	%	45.8	54.2	**100**
MAPOLY	Frequency	120	102	**222**
	%	54.1	45.9	**100**
OSCOTECH	Frequency	55	57	**112**
	%	49.1	50.9	**100**
Total	**Frequency**	**669**	**674**	**1343**
	%	**50.5**	**49.5**	**100**

Table 4.2 Shows the level of commitment of workers to the universities and the polytechnics. From the Table, 50.9% of the OOU respondents have high level of commitment while 49.1% have low level of commitment. Meanwhile, 45.8% of the respondents from TASUED have high level of commitment and 54.2% have low level of commitment. Observably, 54.1% of the respondents from MAPOLY have high level of commitment, 45.9% have low level of commitment. While 49.1% of the respondents from OSCOTECH have low level of commitment, 50.9% have high level of commitment. In all, a majority of 50.2% have low level of commitment**.**

Research question 3: Which of the leadership style is prominent in each of the universities and polytechnics?

Table 4.3: Leadership Style in each of the Universities and Polytechnics.

Name of Institution		Leadership styles			Total
		Democratic	Autocratic	Laissezfaire	
OOU	Frequency	241	289	95	**625**
	%	38.6	46.2	15.2	**100**
TASUED	Frequency	197	132	55	**384**
	%	51.3	34.4	14.3	**100**
MAPOLY	Frequency	105	91	26	**222**
	%	47.3	41.0	11.7	**100**
OSCOTECH	Frequency	45	50	11	**112**
	%	40.2	50.0	9.8	**100**
Total	**Frequency**	**588**	**568**	**187**	**1343**
	%	**43.8**	**42.3**	**13.9**	**100**

Table 4.3 shows that autocratic leadership style is the most prominent at OOU (46.2%) followed by democratic leadership style (38.6%) and laissez-faire leadership style the least prominent (15.2%). At TASUED, democratic leadership style is the most prominent (51.3%) followed by autocratic leadership style (34.4%) and laissez-faire leadership posted style the least prominent (14.3%). At MAPOLY, democratic leadership style is the most prominent (47.3%) followed by autocratic leadership style (41.0%) and leissez-faire leadership style, the least prominent (11.7%). At OSCOTECH, autocratic leadership style is the most prominent at (50.0%) followed by democratic leadership style (40.2%) and laissez-faire leadership style, the least prominent (9.8%). In all, democratic leadership style is the most prominent (43.8%) followed by autocratic leadership style (42.3%) and laissez-faire leadership style the least prominent (13.9%).

Research question 4: Is there any significant gender difference between female and male workers' commimtent?

Table 4.4: t-test of gender differences in workers' commitment.

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	T	Sig.
Male Workers	754	43.41	5.23	1341	1.632	0.310
Female Workers	589	42.96	5.61			

Table 4.4 reveals no significant gender difference between female and male workers' commitment (t =1.632; p>0.05). Therefore, the stated null hypothesis is retained. This means that workers' commitment is not gender sensitive. Workers have the same level of commitment to work. This finding corroborates previous studies (Uwachukwu, 2003; Emmanuel, 2006; Abubakar, 2008) which reported that male and female workers commitment to their organization is the same in terms of their level of productivity and compliance.

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between gender and university workers' commitment.

Table 4.5 : PPMC Summary of Relationship between Gender and University Workers'Commitment.

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	r	df	Sig.	P
Workers' commitment	808	69.22	14.63	0.16	806	0.132	< 0.05
Gender	808	52.38	7.48				

Table 4.5 reveals there is no significant relationship between gender and university workers' commitment (r = 0.16, p > 0.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. This means that university workers' commitment is not gender sensitive.

In other words, university workers' commitment is gender neutral, connoting it does not depend on genger. This finding of Vonttippel, Sekaquaptewa and Vargas, 1995 negates the finding that women are found to have higher commitment than men at work.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between leadership style and university workers' commitment.

Table 4.6:   PPMC Summary of Relationship between Leadership Style and University Workers' Commitment.

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	r	df	Sig.	P
Workers' commitment	808	69.22	14.63	0.54	806	0.000	< 0.05
Leadership Style	808	62.14	13.65				

Table 4.6 reveals that there is a significant relationship between leadership style and University workers' commitment; $r (806) = 0.54$, $p < 0.50$. In other words, leadership style is significantly related to university workers' commitment. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The finding on hypothesis two indicates significant positive relationship between leadership style and university workers' commitment. This means that leadership style contributes to university workers' commitment. This finding lends credence to that of Schwartz (1989) that some leadership styles lead to greater workers' commitment and productivity while others impede development and lower workers' commitment.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant relationship between organisational climate and university workers' commitment.

Table 4.7:   PPMC Summary of Relationship between Organisational Climate and University Workers' Commitment.

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	r	df	Sig.	P
Workers' commitment	808	69.22	14.63	0.39	806	0.000	< 0.05
Organisational climate	808	26.67	5.34				

Table 4.7 shows that there is a significant relationship between organisational climate and university workers' commitment; r (806) = 0.39, p < 0.05. In other words, organisational climate in the university is significantly related to university workers' commitment. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The finding on the hypothesis reveals that organisational climate is positively related to university workers' commitment. This implies that if organisational climate is conducive, university workers' commitment is likely to be very high. However, if it is poor, university workers' commitment may be low. This finding corroborates Meyer and Allen (1997) who observe that workers' commitment develops as a result of organisational climate which satisfies employees' need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant relationship between gender and polytechnic workers' commitment.

Table 4.8: PPMC Summary of Relationship between Gender and Polytechnic Workers' Commitment.

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	r	df	Sig.	P
Workers' commitment		535	69.22	14.63				
Gender	Male	535	58.16	8.94	0.18	533	0.106	> 0.05
	female							

Table 4.8 reveals no significant relationship between gender and polytechnic workers' commitment (r = 0.18, p > 0. 0.5). Therefore, the stated null hypothesis is accepted. This means that polytechnic workers' commitment is not gender sensitive.

The finding from the hypothesis reveals no significant relationship between polytechnic workers' commitment and gender. This means that workers' commitment is not related to gender. This finding runs contrary to Cejka and Eagly, (1999) who observes gender disparity in workers' commitment. It also negates Simmons (2001) who reports that workers' commitment is influenced by gender.

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant relationship between leadership style and polytechnic workers' commitment.

Table 4.9: PPMC Summary of Relationship between Leadership Style and Polytechnic Workers' Commitment.

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	df	Sig.	P
Workers' commitment	535	69.22	14.63	0.60	533	0.000	< 0.05
Leadership style	535	40.05	7.85				

Table 4.9 reveals that there is significant relationship between leadership style and polytechnic workers' commitment, r (533) = 0.60, p < 0.05. In other words, leadership style has significant influence on the polytechnic workers' commitment. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The findings from the fifth hypothesis reveal significant positive relationship between leadership styles and polytechnic workers' commitment. This means that leadership styles could promote or impede workers' commitment. This finding supports Meyer and Allen (1997) who contend that effective leaders earned their workers' loyalty and commitment.

Hypothesis 6

There is no significant relationship between organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment.

Table 4.10:   PPMC Summary of Relationship between Organisational Climate and Polytechnic Workers' Commitment.

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	r	df	Sig.	P
Workers' commitment	535	69.22	14.63	0.34	533	0.000	< 0.05
Organisational climate	535	42.17	7.58				

Table 4.10 reveals that there is significant relationship between organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment; r (533) = 0.34, p < 0.05. In other words, organisational climate is postively related to polytechnic workers' commitment. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The finding reveals significant positive relationship between organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment. This implies that organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment are positively related. This supports Hawkins (1998) who concludes that organisational climate significantly influence workers' commitment postively.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant combined effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment.

Table 4.11:   Composite Effect of Gender, Leadership Style And Organisational Climate on University Workers' Commitment.

R	R-square	Adjusted R^2	Std Error of the Estimate	F	df	Sig.
0.68	0.46	0.45	7.33	33.22	2 805	< 0.05

Table 4.11 shows a R-value (0.68) with an adjusted R^2 of 0.45 which implies that 45% of the variance in workers' commitment is accounted for by gender, leadership style and organisational climate. The F-value $33.22_{(2, 805)}$ is significant at 0.05, (p < 0.05). It follows that the composite effect is significant at 0.05.

Therefore, the stated null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. This means that gender, leadership style and organisational climate have significant effect on university workers' commitment. The implication of this for workers' commitment is that gender as well as leadership style and organisational climate must be put into consideration in all programmes designed to enhance university's workers' commitment. This is because male and female workers share similar experiences in terms of leadership style and organisational climate which in turn may contribute to their level of commitment.

This finding corroborates Becker (1992), Becker and Billing (1993) who contend that employees' commitment is influenced by a multiple of factors which they referred to as "multiple foci". Several factors contribute to workers' commitment some of which are gender, leadership style and organisational climate as `revealed by the present finding. This finding also lends credence to Ajayi (1981) and Udegbe (2001) that leadership style and organisational climate will predicted workers' commitment.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant relative joint effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment.

Table 4.12: Relative Effect of Gender, Leadership Style and Organisational Climate on University Workers' Commitment.

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	T	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Gender	0.631	0.519	0.05	0.70	> 0.05
Leadership	0.546	0.024	0.34	5.38	< 0.05
Organisational climate	-0.106	0.054	0.40	11.08	< 0.05

Table 4.12 shows the beta values of gender, leadership style and organisational climate. From the Table, organisational climate has the highest value of beta (0.40) followed by leadership style (0.34) and gender the least (0.05). This implies that organisational climate predicts workers' commitment most, followed by leadership style and gender the least. While leadership style and organisational climate have significant effect on workers' commitment, gender has no significant effect. All the three variables have positive effect on workers' commitment

Therefore, the stated null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. This means that gender, leadership style and organisational climate have positive effects on university workers' commitment but the effects varied significantly. Thus, while organisational climate and leadership style independently predicted workers' commitment, gender did not independently predict workers' commitment. This connotes that workers' commitment is not gender biased. Male and female workers can become highly committed depending on the university leadership style and the organisational climate. Given effective leadership and favourable or conducive organisational climate, male and female workers can increase their level of commitment.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment.

Table 4.13: Composite Effect of Gender, Leadership Style and Organisational Climate on Polytechnic Workers' Commitment

R	R-square	Adjusted R^2	Std Error of the Estimate	F	df	Sig
0.53	0.60	0.58	7.45	38.43	2 532	< 0.05

Table 4.13 shows a R-value of 0.53 with an adjusted R^2 of 0.58 which implies that 58% of the variance in workers' commitment is accounted for by gender, leadership style and organisational climate. The F-value $38.43_{(2, 532)}$ is significant at 0.05, ($p < 0.05$). It follows that the composite effect is significant at 0.05.

Therefore, the stated null hypothesis is not supported by the result from data analysed. Hence, it is rejected. This means that gender, leadership style and organisational climate have a joint effect on polytechnic workers' commitment. This means that when the three variables are combined, they can predict polytechnic workers' commitment. The implication is that workers' gender, leadership style and polytechnic's organisational climate are important variables to be properly considered when one wishes to improve polytechnic workers' commitment.

The finding supports Ibukun (1983) who opines that several factors are responsible for the prevailing low level of commitment among Nigerian workers. The finding indicates that gender, leadership style and organisational climate taken together have significant effect on workers' commitment. This finding corroborates Akintayo (2003) who observes that conducive organisational climate and democratic leadership style often lead to increase in productivity, cooperation and commitment to work while there is a reduction in productivity, commitment of workers and lack of support under the autocratic (nomothetic) leader.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant relative effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment.

Table 4.14: Relative effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	t	sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Gender	0.143	0.657	0.02	.81	> 0.05
Leadership	0.550	0.031	0.36	8.67	< 0.05
Organisational climate	0.044	0.067	0.22	6.89	< 0.05

Table 4.14 shows the beta values of gender, leadership style and organisational climate. From the Table, leadership has the highest value of beta (0.36), followed by organisational climate (0.22) and gender the least (0.02). This implies that leadership style predicts workers' commitment most, followed by organisational climate and gender the least. While leadership style and organisational climate have significant effects on workers' commitment, gender has no significant effect. All the three variables combined have positive effect on workers' commitment.

These findings are plausible looking at the situations in Nigerian polytechnics. That leadership style is the most potent predictor of polytechnic workers' commitment shows that leadership is a major determinant of what goes on in any organisation. This is because a leader sets the pace, dictates the tune, motivates the work-force and take important decisions which tend to impact on workers' commitment. The finding also shows that organisational climate is the next potent predictor of polytechnic workers' commitment. This is understandable since organisational climate is seen as a contingent factor for development in institutions of learning (McGregor, 1960; Palmer 2002). It is also an essential determinant of school effectiveness (Owen, 1981; Bower, 1976).

However, gender was not a potent independent predictor of workers' commitment. This is because it has been found that workers' commitment is not gender sensitive (Salami, 2001; Odumade and Amoda, 2008). Diverse and discriminatory sets of

values and expectation of women merely emanated from prejudices in culture and customs (Beverly, 2005 and Oni, 2004). Therefore, workers' level of commitment is not gender dependent.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter presents the discussion of findings. The discussion is done by explaining the findings and relating them to existing literature review or empirical findings from earlier studies.

Discussion of Findings

The study investigated the relationship of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on the one hand and workers' commitment on the other in state-owned tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria. Ten hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analysis, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and t-test. The findings are hereby discussed hypothesis by hypothesis.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis one states that there is no significant relationship between gender and University workers' commitment. The result from testing this hypothesis aligns with Bender and Keller (1977) and Luthans (1996) who contend that workers' commitment is a dimension to be reckoned with as far as organisational effectiveness is concerned. In other words, it contributes to increase in organisational effectiveness and efficiency by improving workers' performance and reducing labour turnover. This finding corroborates Buchanan (1974), Akintayo (2003) and Taiwo (2003) which affirm that commitment is an attitude which has been shown to be determined by a number of demographic factors. Similarly, Steer and Porter (1979) support the aforementioned author on the subject matter. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) find that there is no gender effect in predicting workers' commitment. This suggests that certain characteristics might be associated with gender may explain the differences in workers' commitment more than gender itself.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two states that there is no significant relationship between leadership style and university workers' commitment. The result premised on this hypotehsis is congruent with Hellriegel and Slocum (2006) which explains that transactional leadership vis-à-vis management can go along way in ensuring that leaders have moral quality that could bring about workers' commitment with a view of improving organisational life. Similarly, Lawler (2003) agrees that given a conducive environment and workers cooperation, the sky is the limit to ensuring productivity and less workers' fatigue is achievable. Laohavichien, Fredendall, and Cantrell, (2009) are of the opinion that transformational leadership style encourages subordinates and gives way to critical thinking which affect employees' commitment positively.

Avolio and Bass (1994) support Laohavichien et al (2009) that transformational leadership style is considered as one of the most influencing factors which have a positive effect on employees' commitment.

In the same vein, Riaz and Haider (2010) conclude that transformational and transactional leadership positively correlated with job success and satisfaction.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three states that there is no significant relationship between organisational climate and university workers' commitment. The finding from testing this hypothesis shows there is significant relationship between organisational climate and university workers commitment. This finding is consistent with Glisson and James (2002) that there is a significant relationship between organisational climate and university workers' commitment. They posit that organisational climate is an important factor to be considered when discussing commitment in any organisation.

Also the finding is in tune with the submission of Armstrong (2003) which perceives the climate of an organisation as aspects of the environment that are consciously perceived by an organisational member. In other words, it refers to how members of an organisation perceives their working climate as they go about their daily

business. Karasick (1973) also agrees that there is a general agreement that organisational climate is a multi-dimensional concept, and that number of typical dimension could be described. Similarly, Locke (1976) posits that job satisfaction is a self-reported positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job experiences.

Becker (1968) and Kanter (1968) identify that workers' commitment is primarily a function of individual behaviour and willingness of an individual to give his/her energy to an organisation through action and choices over time. That is, workers' commitment to their employers or organisations emerge a great interest to researchers to study.

Hypothesis four

Hypothesis four states that there is no significant relationship between gender and polytechnic workers' commitment. The finding from testing this hypothesis is in tune with the submission of Wiltaker (1965), Sheldon (1976) and Udegbe (2001) who find gender inequalities lead to differential treatment and reward in work organisations, produce differential level of satisfaction in men and women, thereby leading to differences in commitment. In support of this, Mishel (1998) contends that an unfortunate situation that was found in most organisations is that women are placed in lower level jobs than men. Also in line with this is Meyer and Allen, (1997) on the levels of commitment of workers to their ortanisational jobs towards ehnancing productivity. Richard et al (2002), also predicted the organisational commitment via gender disposition and attitude.

Hypothesis five

Hypothesis five states that there is no significant relationship between leadership style and polytechnic workers' commitment. The outcome from testing this hypothesis goes hand in hand with the submission of Allen and Meyer (1990) who regard normative commitment in terms of moral obligations the employees develop after the organisation as invested in them. In other words, their agreement is premised on the fact that when an employee starts to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money

developing and training him/her, such an employee might feel oblige to stay with such an organisation to provide its own quota towards further development of the organisation. Jaros et al (1993) also agree with Allen and Mayer (1990) to affirm that normative commitment is as a result of the organisation wake-up to workers' welfare. In the same token Becker (1992) also give his opinion on the subject matter by submitting that workers' commitment differ only on the basis of their underlying motives and outcomes.

Hypothesis Six:

Hypothesis six states that there is no significant relationship between organisational climate and polytechnic workers commitment. The validity of this finding from testing this hypothesis is demonstrated by Taiwo (2003) which indicates that when the goals of the organisation and the member of the organisation are integrated or congruent, attitudinal commitment occurs. Consequently, attitudinal commitment represents a stage in which an individual identifies with a particular organisation and his/her goals are to maintain membership in other to facilitate those goals. This finding also agrees with Gregerson and Black (1996) who posit that work process would enhance a sense of felt responsibility that led to an increase in commitment among employees. The finding again is in congruence with Varona (2002) who finds there is a relationship between communication and organisational commitment in terms of feedback and responses from both upper level and employees.

Hypothesis Seven

Hypothesis seven states that there is no significant comnposite effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment. It is observed that there is joint contribution of gender, leadership style and organisational climate to university workers' commitment. Further, it is observed that 44.7% variance in the organisational commitment of university staff is due to the combined relationship of the independent variables. This implies that variation between male and female workers,

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the kind of leadership style in an institution and the organisational climate will influence the commitment of workers in the organisation.

The findings corroborate that of Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy (2002) who report that female managers show greater concern for others; they consider how others feel about their influencing tactics, and are more likely than men to act with organisation's broad interest in mind. In most culture in Nigeria, women are not expected to be engaged in paid employment and because of gender biases against women, most men would not like to have a woman as their boss in the office. Again, some women would not want to take up leadership role for the fear of opposition from their male counterparts. Also, the finding is in line with the findings of Knipenberg, Knipenberg and Hogg (2004) which show that leadership style had significant influence on workers' commitment and performance. This is also in line with the findings by Walsek and Laran (1981), and Elbem (1987) who reported that leadership effectiveness, and a number of constructs like job satisfaction, lack of role conflict, ambiguity, several demographic characteristics and finance performance of organisation and organisational climate were positively related to workers' commitment. Leadership has been perceived as a central focus in organisational management. The finding that leadership style also had significant influence workers' commitment which corroborates previous studies is not surprising; this is because there are basic leadership styles that appear general practiced all over the world irrespective of race, tribe and culture. Therefore, given that the same leadership style is used, there may not be variance.

The findings also agree with several studies which postulated that organisational climate is a crucial characteristic of organisations that influences employees' attitudes which may be considered as workers' commitment (Aarons and Sawitzky, 2006; Glisson and Hemmlgarn, 1998). A conducive environment, with adequate motivating factor and incentives will surely stimulate commitment on the part of the workers and vice versa. Since employees are the kingpin in all organisations (both within and outside the country), to get them committed there is the need to put the right organisational climate in

place. Without a conducive and enabling environment, there may be high turnover intention and this will definitely affect the organisation negatively.

It is pertinent to note that at times, factions and cliques among staff can pose problem to institutional leaders. Regardless of what the leader is doing to promote the good image of the institution, if there are factions and cliques among staff, his efforts will definitely be thwarted. It is therefore incumbent upon leaders to promote harmony among staff and thereby dispel the idea by forming factions and cliques. He/she should encourage his/her staff to work with him/her democratically, instilling in them that they are all responsible for achieving the stated goals and objectives of the institution. He/she should always encourage other members of staff to feel that they are part of the system. Leaders in the above situation should be cautious and diplomatic in handling staff regardless of gender so as to enlist or secure their commitment to the organisation.

Hypothesis Eight

Hypothesis eight states that there is no significant relative effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on university workers' commitment. The finding from testing this hypothesis shows there is relative contribution of leadership style and organisational climate to university workers' commitment but gender of niversity workers did not contribute relatively to their commitment. This study corroborates several researches (Glisson and James, 2002, Morris and Bloom, 2002) which reveal a variety of possible predictors of workers' commitment to be organisational culture and climate, demographic characteristics and leadership style. These stuies find leadership style is significantly related to workers' commitment (Morris and Bloom, 2002). As explained earlier, there are basic leadership styles that are used everywhere, thus, irrespective of where it is used, the same leadership style will most often than not yield the same result. In the same vein, creating the right organisational environment will most likely produce the same result that is higher commitment in workers, irrespective of the culture in which the organisation is. Therefore, the more the employees perceive the

leadership as good, and the organisational environment as conducive, the higher the level of their commitment.

Every institutional leader is concerned with the problem of excellence and quality which is a reflection of the standards of quality that permeate the various defects and elements of a given condition, situation or product quality is an essential impediment in the search for excellence. The population and knowledge explosion are rapid changes in the development and utilization of technology; growing population, increases in crime and major disturbances, as well as many other similar developments in the country in the recent years, have led to serious and searching question by many literate people.

Some have become convinced that the traditional system of education that has placed considerable emphasis on intellectual learning and given little attention to modern problem is no longer meeting the needs of the people. There are many demands that leadership style and its attendant commitment on part of staff be restructured to meet present and emerging needs but apparently, there is little agreement thus far on how this can best be accomplished. Moreover, there are conflicting attitudes as to what directions that should be taken in problem resolution.

For this simple reason educational leaders are advised to seek the help of political analysts who would assist them in the appraisal of government ideology from time to time before taking major decisions. For example, the appraisal may reveal that the political ideology of the government in power is to make people aware of the rights and freedom as well as their social responsibilities. Thus, in managing institutions funded by such governments, educational leaders should make provisions for schools to understand the importance of education law. Nevertheless, they should realise that the school needs to be taught to respect this law and the people who enforce it, in order to achieve peace, justice and respect for human dignity. If the press, for instance, has a good relationship with an educational leader, the press can bring such leader into recognition and by the same token, the press is in an easy position to destroy a leader. It is often advisable to maintain good public relations by going to the press before they come to you on

important issues. Such advanced information and rapport often forestall embarrassing and unsympathetic questions from the press.

Hypothesis Nine

Hypothesis nine states that there is no significant effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment. It is observed that there is joint contribution of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment. H_0 is rejected while H_1 is accepted. It is further observed that 57.8% variance in the polytechnic workers' commitment is due to the combined relationship of the independent variables. The variance observed in this institution shows that workers' commitment in the polytechnic is greatly influenced by the independent variables (gender, leadership and organisational climate)

For a long time (although there may not be any written document to support this), there has been a feeling of disparity between polytechnic instructors and university lecturers. There has been the feeling that the niversity is higher in status compared to the polytechnic. It has also been argued that more of the courses taken in the polytechnic are practical and are better taught in the laboratory and workshops, hence the feeling that there is of necessity a difference in what priority will be placed upon with respect to the kind of organisational environment required. Therefore, attention may be paid to organisational environment more in the polytechnic setting than in the university, as the result of this study has shown.

For a leader to be successful in his/her leadership position, it is necessary to identify the pressure group and have them involved in some of the problems facing the institution concerned. Since they have been made part of the system, there is tendency they will change their attitude by developing sense of belonging since they have been recognised through their involvement in the problem-solving. The leader should study and have enough understanding of the people working under him/her so as to know when to put his/her request before them without having it turned down. This timing factor is an

opportunity and should be used whenever it comes if the leader is to accomplish the objectives of the institution.

To secure workers' cooperation and commitment plus absolute loyalty, a leader should make his/her door open to everybody. He should try to examine outside forces on priority basis by being a careful listener to suggestions given to him. However, he should not hesitate to raise objection if the advice or proposal given is against his/her policy.

Hypothesis Ten

Hypothesis ten states that there is no significant relative effect of gender, leadership style and organisational climate on polytechnic workers' commitment. H_0 is rejected while H_1 is accepted. It is observed that there is significant relative contribution of leadership style and organisational climate to polytechnic workers' commitment. Gender did not have significant relative contribution to workers' commitment. Previous studies have also found variations in the workers' commitment and a combination and independent effect of some variables like leadership style, organisational culture and organisational climate as predictors of workers' commitment (Glisson and James, 2002; and Morris and Bloom, 2002). They posit that more conducive organisational climate predict more positive work attitudes. They also assert that employees working in organisations with more conducive culture and climates are more likely to be satisfied with their job and more committed to their organisations and hence, should be productive.

That gender did not have a significant effect on polytechnic workers' commitment could be a function of the fact that there is a disparity in the distribution of the staff population of polytechnic staff. There are more men than women, as against what operates in the university. This is not suggesting that there are more women than men on the staff list of universities; however, there is a difference in the distribution based on gender. The general opinion is that the courses taken in the polytechnics are more of practical, industrial courses that will demand the use of machines, going to technology laboratory and carrying out supposedly tedious jobs that may not be considered suitable for women.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, IMPLICATION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   Summary of Findings

1. The hypothesis which earlier states that there is no significant relationship between gender and university workers' commitment is accepted, implying university workers' commitment is not premised on gender.

2. That there is significant relationship between leadership style and University workers' commitment.

3. Hypothesis three result from testing reveals that organisational climate in the university is significantly related to university workers' commitment. By implication, the null hypothesis is rejected.

4. This hypothesis testing reveals a non-significant relationship between gender and polytechnic workers' commitment.

5. That there is a significant relationship between leadership style and polytechnic workers' commitment. In other words, leadership style has significant influence on the polytechnic workers' commitment.

6. That organisational climate is positively related to university workers' commitment. The implication is that significant relationship exists between organisational climate and polytechnic workers' commitment.

7. The postulated null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. This implies that gender, leadership style and organisational climate jointly have significant effect on university workers' commitment.

8. This hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis, suggesting that gender, leadership style and organisational climate have positive effects on university workers' commitment but their effect varied significantly.

9. The postulated null hypothesis is not supported by the result of the data analysed. Hence, it is rejected. This means that gender, leadership style and organisational climate have joint effect on polytechnic workers' commitment.

10. That leadership style predicts workers' commitment while leadership style and organisational climate have significant effect on workers' commitment, gender has no significant commitment on polytechnic workers' commitment.

6.2   Implications of Findings

The outcome of this study depicts that the practicability of any decision will depend on available data regarding the educational objectives, the duties to be performed and the resources available in the organisation. Consequently, participants in decision-making will be actively involved and able to present logical ideas when they are well-informed.

In the same vein, periodic meetings among members of an organisation could enhance effective decision-making, information dissemination and experience sharing. As a result, members get to know what is expected and what is not expected of them irrespective of their gender.

The study also plays a central role in the execution of leadership functions within the tertiary institution setting. The administrator engages in planning, organising, directing and controlling activities of other members towards the achievement of educational objectives. Effective execution of these administrative duties will to a large extent be determined by the quality of decision that is made on different aspects of their duties. Hence, the administrator's decision will be guided by certain regulations, procedures and directives which will provide a form of control to members.

In the same vein, via the study, efficient goal attainment hinges upon programming and integration of institutional activities to incorporate hierarchical structure that systematically orders communications and authority among formally established position. To this end, most educational institutions have organisational charts, pyramidal with veritical interconnections of every formal organisation.

Characteristically too, those who attain managerial positions in every organisation are usually skillful in relevant domains of work, physically fit, experienced, ready to

learn, mentally sound and morally balanced. Based on the outcome of this study, it is still expedient for education institutional managers to acquire some forms of managerial skills (either formally or informally) to deal with various challenges to their performance in office.

Nonetheless, administrative efficiency is supposed to be enhanced by limiting the number of subordinates who report directly to a leader. In the real life situations, especially in a large organisation where the principle leads to many levels in the administrative hierarchy, this principle brings about inefficiency and delay in taking some decisions.

Grouping the staff according to purpose, process, place and clientele improves organisational effiency. On the contrary, the grouping of staff based on these criteria would just be an exercise in futility because purpose is the end result or motive behind setting up a unit, department or organisation. To realise the purpose, process has to take place while the purpose is to satisfy a particular set of clientele. Therefore, separating or grouping workers on these criteria will not favour a department, unit or establishment whose activities overlap.

It should also be noted that school is a system composed of other sub-systems. Each of the sub-systems complements the activities of others. Hence, school leadership needs to be democratic in their disposition. Every member of staff, irrespective of gender, that will be affected by whatever decision has to be carried along. This would ensure workers' commitment at all time. The students as well should not be left out in the school administration as this ensures peace and harmony in the system. When there is peace, teaching and learning activities will go on smoothly.

6.3   Conclusion

The findings reveal that there is a joint contribution of the independent variables to workers' commitment in both institutions. Leadership style and organisational climate have relative contribution to workers' commitment; but gender of the respondents did not. It is revealed in the study that organisational climate had more impact on

commitment of university staff while leadership style impacted more on commitment of polytechnic staff. There is significant difference between the commitment of university and polytechnic staff, and workers' commitment is more enhanced among polytechnic staff than university staff.

It should be pointed out however that the common characteristics of an organisation include composition of people, shared objectives, allocation of resources, practice of division of labour and coordination of activities among others. Tertiary institution, therefore, is viewed as an organisation of complex activities, carried out by people and are coordinated by a person or persons. In every organisation, there is need to make things happen and get tasks performed. This is done through proper administration.

6.4   Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study it is recommended that:

The leaders of higher institutions should adopt good leadership strategy in the management of organisation which they head. This could be done by carrying along their workers in organisational activities and decision-making which will invariably promote their commitment to the organisation. Organisational climate of higher institutions should be more favourable in such a way that workers will be encouraged to belong and work for the organisation.

There is need for the adequate equipping of workers for an effective performance. Radical technological changes are needed to minimise the effect of work strain and improve the emotional well-being of the workers concerned. Organisational culture should favour the employees and enhances positive work attitudes among them.

In addition to this, the following recommendations are also made:

Appointment of leaders into administrative offices in tertiary institutions should not be based on gender but records of previous performance which could serve as indications for future performance on related jobs.

Seminars, workshops and conferences should constantly be sponsored for the tertiary institution leaders, especially those just appointed to take up management

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positions. This would be expected to enhance their effectiveness and consequently, their commitment.

Provision of incentives should be made to improve on the workers' commitment of the tertiary institution staff. Such incentives could be in the form of enhanced allowances, and regular promotions. This could sustain commitment of the staff.

Effectiveness of leaders could be greatly enhanced by the participation of staff in decision-making. It is also suggested that staff members be involved in decision-making process at every level of management.

In good organisations, the leaders encourage risk-taking, innovations and tolerate failure via flexible modes of operation. Leaders should broker talents in organisations by allowing innovators among staff to freely champion their pet projects and see them through to completion.

Good leadership should know how to out-source to attain vision and mission objectives. The organisation should provide the environment that will encourage innovation and creative thinking.

Team management is necessary in education because the contemporary educational managers experience rapid educational changes, deal with complex problems, want people to work closely together and want people to share problems and solutions. Staff and students can often accomplish much more by working together than they can by working separately. Even just making people feel part of a team, instead of isolated individuals, helps achieve more and feel more committed. An effective team can share and exploit its range of talents and expertise and compensate for individual weaknesses.

Leadership should know how to assess effectiveness in relation to important and urgent activities to delegate properly and thereby avoid stress.

6.5 Contribution to Knowledge

From this study it becomes crystal clear that in adopting and implementing any of the leadership control measures, the administrator would ensure objectivity, firmness, justice and impartiality. These characteristics are likely to make the control measures effective.

Similarly, control measure will be effective if members have necessary information to guide their operations. In this regard, members of the tertiary institutions will be familiar with the laws and policies guiding their operations as contained in the constitution, education laws and education policies of the governments at federal, state and local levels. Essentially, documents containing these regulations should be made available in the tertiary educational institutions as part of school records. As a corollary, members of the school organisations will be kept constantly informed of changes in regulations guiding their activities. This can be done during workshops, seminars, meetings and through news bulletins.

Nevertheless, it is crystal clear from the findings of this study that leadership should be taken with absolute caution whenever the issue of superordinates' and subordinates' relationship is involved.

- From the model developed - the theoretical model as used in this study acknowledges individual workers' commitment as a necessary tool in education because the contemporary education managers experience rapid educational changes, deal with complex problem, want people to work closely with them, and want people to share problems and solutions. For instance, staff and students can often accomplish much more by working together than separately. Making people feel part of an organisation, instead of isolated individuals, helps them achieve more and feel more committed.

- From the major findings- Organisations should treat individuals with respect and dignity and foster enthusiasm, trust and a family feeling organisation will encourage people to have fun while getting something meaningful accomplished. Both public and private tertiary institutions are full of people and therefore,

managers should emphasise people – oriented management. The motivational practice will continue to work with commensurate wage, conditional watch and unconditional warmth.

- From the conclusion – through this study, managers will not only follow the laid down plan, they will equally encourage all members of the organisation to orient their thoughts and actions towards the core values of the school. The organisation will also provide the environment that will encourage innovation and creative thinking.

6.6   Limitations of the Study

The study was not extended to any federally-owned tertiary institution.

The literature reviewed was restricted to a few concepts and studies that are related to the present investigation.

Attention was focused on gender, organisational climate, leadership styles and workers' commitment whereas there are other allied variables that could have been included.

6.7   Suggestions for Further Studies

Further studies in this area could look into the following areas for future research:

An analysis of the interaction effect of gender of leader and leadership effectiveness on affective, continuance, normative and total organisational commitment of tertiary institution staff is indispensable. This would be expected to expose greater underlining influence of gender and leadership effectiveness in the organisational commitment of tertiary institution staff.

Moderating effect of staff gender on the assessment of the prediction of gender and leadership effectiveness in organisational commitment of tertiary institution staff is crucial.

Comparative study of federal and state-owned tertiary institutions would also be fundamental to determine if some other factors could be important in the prediction of organisational commitment of tertiary institution workers.

Studies should explore possible factors that could influence the organisational commitment of tertiary institutions staff other than the gender and effectiveness of the leaders. Such factors could be worker-related or organisation-related.

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UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT
Postgraduate (Doctoral) Programme

Dear Sir/Ma,

This questionnaire has been designed to gather information on some demographic variables. It is for the purpose of gathering data for a current research. Your frank response would therefore be of great significance in arriving at reliable and valid conclusions. Your responses would however be kept strictly confidential and used only for the purpose of this study.

Thanks.

Demographic Data Inventory

Please supply the following information and place a tick (√) in the appropriate boxes.

1. Name of your Institution:……………………………………………………..

2. Faculty/Department:………………………………………………………….

3. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

4. Age: below 35 years ☐ from 35 to 45 years ☐

    from 45 to 55 years ☐ above 55 years ☐

5. Highest education qualifications Bachelor's Degree ☐

    Master's degree ☐ Ph.D. ☐

    Professional Qualifications (if any) ☐

6. Occupational Line of Duty Teaching ☐ Non-Teaching ☐

7. Status: GA ☐ SL-Professor ☐ HOD/Dean ☐

    Senior Admin. Officer ☐ Junior Admin. Officer ☐

8. Working experience: Below 5 years ☐ 5-10 years ☐

    10-15 years ☐ 15-20 years ☐ Above 20 years ☐

Leadership Styles Questionnaire (LSQ)

Instruction:

This questionnaire is designed to measure the type of person your leader is, and also the way you perceive him or her as your superior officer or head of department. It is strictly for research purpose, therefore feel free to express your opinion as regards each item.

My leader / head of department is; Male ( )   Female ( )

Please respond to the following statement by using the scale below:

Strongly Agree (SA),   Agree (A),   Disagree (D),   Strongly Disagree (SA)

SN	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD
1.	My HOD/Superior Officer: Places a great deal of confidence in me and my Co-workers				
2.	Listens to and appreciates subordinates' views about their job.				
3.	Does a good job of sharing responsibility for achieving organisational goals.				
4.	Is skilled in encouraging subordinates' participation in decision-making.				
5.	Is very skillful in communicating the organisational goals to be achieved.				
6.	Is skilled at creating an atmosphere of trust and openness.				
7.	Does not believe in any other person except himself				
8.	Attempts to impose his or her ideological perceptiveness onto subordinates				
9.	Single-handedly makes decision without involving members of staff.				
10.	Imposes strict control and expect little or no feedback from subordinates.				
11.	Holds his responsibilities and information to himself.				
12	Finds it difficult to trust others more than anything else				
13.	Relies heavily on subordinates' expertise in shaping the direction of the programme.				
14.	Is careless about the workers and accomplishment.				
15.	Has no time for long process of decision-making.				

16.	Has no time to co-ordinate the affair of the organisation.				
17.	Will never welcome ideas of his staff				
18.	Avoid responsibility and letting any other who can do it.				

APPENDIX III

Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ)

Please circle the number that indicates your feeling using the key format below:

5 = Always   4 = Frequently   3 = Occasional
2 = Rarely   1 = Never

S/N	ITEMS	5	4	3	2	1
1.	My organisation is well structured					
2.	Pattern of Communication in my organisation is favourable					
3.	My organisation is strict to rules and regulation					
4.	My work environment is conducive					
5.	Workers are well encouraged in my organisation					
6.	Workers are allowed in decision-making					
7.	My supervisor is friendly					
8.	My organisation is well furniture					
9.	My organisation is full or air conditioned					
10.	The management of my organisation is democratic in nature.					
11.	There is good leadership system in my organisation					
12.	Information is made easy in my organisation					
13.	Access to communication gadgets is not restricted					
14.	Access to information is not restricted in my organisation					
15.	My organisation has a favourable policy to their workers					

Workers' Commitment Questionnaire (WCQ)

Instruction

The statements here are designed to measure how well you are committed to your organisation. Please indicate how much you agree with these statements.

Key:

Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A),   Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD).

S/N	STATEMENTS	SA	A	D	SD
1.	I do not feel like part of a family in this establishment				
2.	I feel emotionally attached to this establishment				
3.	Working at this establishment has a great deal of personal meaning for me.				
4.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this establishment				
5.	This establishment does not deserve my loyalty.				
6.	I am not concerned about what might happen if I left this establishment without having another position lined up.				
7.	It would be very hard for me to leave this establishment right now, even if wanted to.				
8.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this establishment now.				
9.	It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave this establishment now.				
10.	Right now, staying with this establishment is a matter of necessity as much as desire.				
11.	I do not feel any obligation to remain with this establishment				
12.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave this establishment now.				
13.	I would feel guilty if I left this establishment now				
14.	This establishment deserves my loyalty				
15.	It would be wrong to leave this establishment right now because of my obligation to the people in it				